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# Teachers' Motivational Practice and Student Motivation in the EFL classroom: A Literature Review

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## Abstract

The aim of this review is to survey the research area on motivational strategies for teachers in different EFL settings. Research on motivation in the L2 has for a long period of time focused on the role of motivation in the L2 learning process and has established its great importance for learning. Early research focused to a great extent on defining motivation and identifying important components. In the early 90s, a shift of focus took place with a new interest in strategies, making the teacher role a central aspect. This paper analyses research on teachers' beliefs regarding the importance of motivational strategies and frequency of use in the EFL classroom in different cultural contexts. It compares the results to evaluate what motivational strategies teachers believe to increase student motivation the most when learning English as a foreign language. The review shows that there is agreement among teachers from different cultural backgrounds on which strategies are most important. However, few studies to date have tested the strategies in relation to English achievement and learning benefits.

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# 1 Introduction

Student motivation has gained a great deal of attention in the past decades and is considered necessary for learning a foreign/second language (L2) (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001). Some researchers suggest that even the most intelligent student with remarkable abilities cannot accomplish English achievement without sufficient motivation (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Alqahtani, 2016). Much research has focused on trying to explain what motivation is. It is best explained in relation to a particular action in that it defines a person's interest and desire to achieve something, and, includes the effort and persistency of the person to that effect (Gardner 1985, as cited in Oxford, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001). As a result of motivation being a complex and broad concept, an endless amount of components from different perspectives have been found to be important to the field (Williams & Burden, 1997).

The field of motivation in the L2 has shifted lately to focus less on what motivation and its subcomponents are and more on *how* students can be motivated and emphasises *the teacher role* in the matter. There is general agreement in the literature reviewed that research has not, up until this day, focused sufficiently on the teacher role and its great importance for enhancing student motivation in the language classroom. Expanding the knowledge on motivation in this direction highlighted the learner, the teacher and the learning environment as key components (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Dörnyei, 1994). Teachers' ability to incorporate strategies in their teaching became important and, therefore, practical motivational strategies were studied.

Practical motivational strategies have now become the dominant area of study but we are missing a coherent overview of the findings of such studies. As classrooms differ from one another, there are reasons to believe that some strategies will work better with some groups of students and differently with others depending on classroom culture. This issue will be addressed throughout the review as researchers of the studies explicitly compare their results and conclusions with previous studies in the field to address the issue of universal use of motivational strategies (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013).

The purpose of the present work is to give an overview of the current state of knowledge in the area of teacher motivational strategies for the L2 classroom. This encompasses overviewing what motivation is in relation to learning and how one can use this knowledge to motivate students (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). This paper addresses the

questions: what does research say about motivational strategies and what do teachers believe to be the most efficient strategies to motivate students in the EFL classroom?

Chapter 2 gives the reader a theoretical background through a brief look at different definitions of motivation which is necessary in order to understand thoroughly under what circumstances recent research has developed. It also includes the Gardnerian theory which inspired the field and opened up for motivation in the L2. Chapter 3, the review proper, begins by introducing the new interest for motivational techniques to motivate students and moves on to empirical studies of motivational strategies. In Chapter 4, the findings will be summarized, pedagogical implications will be presented and areas for future research identified.

## **2 Early research on motivation**

The following chapter gives a brief insight into different definitions of motivation and continues with Gardner and his colleagues' investigation of motivation in the L2. The purpose of this theoretical background is to contextualize this review and to clarify how motivational strategies for teachers became a dominant concept in the studies.

### **2.1 What is motivation?**

In the field of psychology, motivation is one of the most important concepts as it tries to explain a person's behaviour, why the person behaves and thinks the way they do. Motivation is, in other words, connected to our actions (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). "Researchers seem to agree that motivation is responsible for determining human behaviour by energising it and giving it direction" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 117). However, how this happens has been interpreted in many ways. Thus, the concept motivation has been described in different manners and been used differently by different people as theories of psychology have changed over time (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 111).

This concept is a significant dimension for learning, as it is most likely to occur if the learner *wants* to learn. From an L2 learning point of view, Gardner (1985, as cited in Oxford, 1996) labels motivation as a composition of four elements: a goal, a desire to attain the goal, positive attitude towards learning the language and lastly, effortful behaviour to that effect (p. 2). Similarly, Williams and Burden (1997) propose a definition with similar aspects such as goals, desire, and effort. They believe motivation can be constructed as "a state of cognitive

and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)” (p. 120). According to Williams and Burden (1997), motivation comprises different stages of a person’s behaviour. They highlight the importance of stages by defining them as firstly, *initiating* motivation, secondly, *sustaining* and lastly *maintaining* motivation which are helpful stages to consider when speaking about learning processes. In comparison to Gardner (1985, as cited in Oxford, 1996), attitudes towards learning the L2 are not part of this definition. However, these two definitions of motivation mention how motivation is connected to a goal, a desire and the effort of this person to attain the goal.

In a more recent account, Dörnyei (2001) starts by asking if there is such a thing as motivation. By this, Dörnyei (2001) suggests that motivation is an abstract hypothetical concept that attempts to explain human behaviour and why humans think the way they do as well as behave in a certain way. To simplify even more, it is a term that is used when someone wants to describe what a person *wants*, *thinks*, or *feels*. Hence, “motivation explains *why* people decide to do something, *how hard* they are going to pursue it and *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 7). In addition, Dörnyei (2001) argue that the important parts of motivation are the “antecedents”, which are the causes and origins of a person’s feelings or desires. What these antecedents are is what motivational research tries to figure out (Dörnyei, 2001).

In practice, teachers, parents and learners normally use motivation to explain “what causes success and failure in learning” (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 55). In fact, when one uses the term motivation in relation to the person, for example, not being motivated, one speaks for all the different causes *why* a person is unwilling to do something without explicitly elaborating them. Not least, when we speak about learning a language. There is no doubt that motivation is an abstract phenomenon. Even though, interestingly, most teachers and parents still understand what a ‘motivated’ student is; “a keen, committed and enthusiastic learner who has good reasons for learning, who studies with vigour and intensity, and who demonstrates perseverance” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 1). This means, a person that is motivated has made a choice to learn and how well this person does in the process depends on persistency and the effort expended on that choice of action (Dörnyei, 2001).

As mentioned earlier, looking back in time, researchers define motivation as a broad concept and describe motivation in different manners depending on their perspective; behavioural, cognitive or constructive (Brown, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001). A behavioural

definition of motivation places stress on the role of rewards (and perhaps punishment) in motivating behaviour because according to Skinner (as cited in Brown, 2007), a person will act a certain way because at the end of the behaviour the person will receive a reward. The rewards act, therefore, as reinforcement of the behaviour which leads into habits (Brown, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001). In a school context, the reward could be grades.

In contrast, a cognitive definition emphasises the importance of human drives, such as stimulation, activity, knowledge, ego enhancement etc. These drives were explained by David Ausubel (1968, as cited in Brown, 2007, p. 86), who saw them as part of motivation. Another theory within the cognitive definition, stresses the needs inside a human being that are laid out as a pyramid of needs. In other words, once a person fulfils the basic needs (e.g. air, water, food, rest, exercise), a person can progress to a higher attainment such as, to safety, to belongingness, to esteem needs, and finally “self-actualization”. Self-actualization means a state of reaching your fullest potential (Brown, 2007, p. 86). See the full pyramid of needs in the figure below.

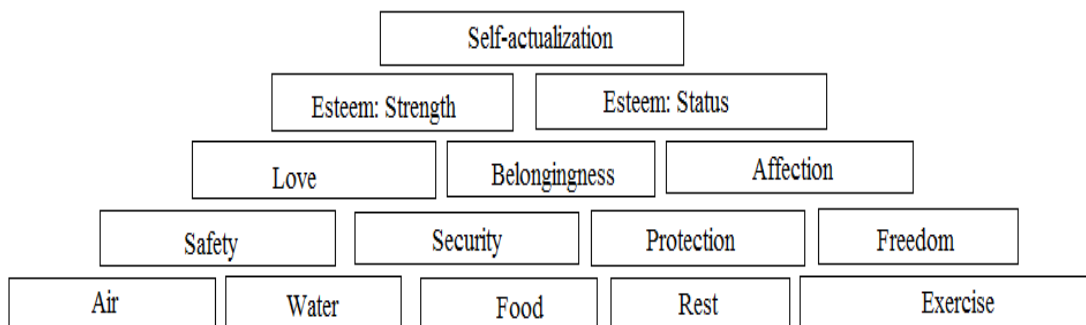


Figure 1. “Maslow’s hierarchy of needs” (as accounted for in Brown, 2007, p. 86).

This metaphorical pyramid is a system that is greatly related to classroom situations and according to Brown (2007), “what might be inappropriately viewed as rather ordinary classroom routines may in fact be important precursors to motivation for higher attainment” (p. 87). For instance, if a learner does not feel safe in the group of learners because of what not reasons, this person will not be able to reach out to be their best. Another theory within the cognitive perspective is called “Self-control theory”. Hunt (1971, as cited in Brown, 2007) among other cognitive psychologists, argues for people deciding for themselves and making their own choices. Whether it concerns what to feel or what to think, making our own

decisions is important for motivation. In the classroom, this theory claims that learners need autonomy in order to develop motivation when learning because then they will not feel forced by anyone else but themselves (Brown, 2007).

Lastly, in opposition, the constructivist definition of motivation places focus on social context and individual choices. There are internal and external influences that affect our motivation, such as social interactions with others, in the unique environment of that person (Brown, 2007). This means that "each individual is motivated differently" and that "an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 120). Furthermore, the self-determination of a person is important for motivation as no one else can decide why you want to learn.

In conclusion, these three perspectives define motivation with opposite standpoints. However, none of them are considered better than the other. They are considered greatly important for the field. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that motivation is a challenging concept to describe. As a result, motivational research has tried to find "most-important" factors for this reason. There are endless determinants of motivational behaviour (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 9). These theories and perspectives of motivation will be addressed throughout the review. In the following chapters, it is always necessary to bear in mind what early research discovered as recent research has kept developing through them.

## 2.2 Gardner and colleagues

Motivation in the L2 field was inspired and introduced by Robert Gardner and his Canadian colleagues around the late 1950s (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001; Brown, 2007). The studies performed by Gardner and his colleagues started investigating attitudes towards the L2 community. The theory arose from a social-psychological perspective and resulted in one of the leading theories in the L2 motivation field: The Social Psychological Theory. Their inspiration came from situations where students for some reason did not like the L2 community and, therefore, refused to incorporate elements of the target language culture into their own identity. Thus, the specific target of the investigation is *language*. Gardner (as cited in Dörnyei, 2001, p. 14) argued that teaching a second/foreign language involved teaching the target language culture which causes a problem if the student dislikes the L2 community. Therefore, the main principle of the theory was the great influence of attitudes when learning a new language and the effect on learners' success (Alqahtani,



2016). Dörnyei (2001) believes that it is no accident that this journey of research started in Canada, a country that is officially divided into a community of two world languages (English and French) (Dörnyei, 2001). This division caused concerns regarding social relationships and intercultural communications in the country. “They perceived the L2 as a mediator between different ethnolinguistic communities and therefore the motivation to acquire the language of the other L2 community was seen to play a powerful role in promoting or hindering intercultural communication” (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 154).

The most common interpretation of the social psychological approach of motivation, which Gardner and Lambert (1972, as cited in Hedge, 2000, p. 23) were greatly involved in, has often been understood as the interaction of two different components, integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. These components describe two reasons why a learner wants to acquire a L2. For instance, integrative motivation is generally described as “the desire for learning a language for the purpose of cultural or linguistic integration of the L2 speaking community” (Oxford, 1996, p. 2). In other words, the emotion of wanting to be part of the L2 community affects the effort and commitment that the learner puts into the learning process because this learner has a goal to achieve. In opposition, instrumental motivation is described as a motivation to learn L2 for practical purposes that involve, for example, getting a better job, earning more money or pursuing higher education. Gardner and Tremblay (1994) argue that there has been little research focusing on instrumental motivation because the results in their studies have mainly showed integratively motivated students (except one). As a result, it is recognised that the most elaborate and researched aspect is not the duality of integrative/instrumental motivation, it is the wider concept of the “integrative motives” (Dörnyei, 2001).

These two motivational components developed levels that relate to each other and one main concept that grew out of both of them are *integrative orientation* and *instrumental orientation* and were both associated to success in learning a L2. Orientation means a reason or purpose for learning while motivation describes the intensity of wanting to pursue that goal (Brown, 2007, p. 88). Consequently, research by Gardner and his colleagues were in reality based on orientations, not motivation (Brown, 2007). Before explaining the different levels further, it needs to be said that great attention has been drawn to the fact that, in the context of Canada, learners had reasons to learn English either because of wishing to integrate into activities with another group of people (integrative motives) or needing the language as an

instrument for future studies and job findings (instrumental motives). “Orientation” and “motives” mean more or less the same thing.

Most common out of these two components was integrative orientation/motives as most of the results from Gardner and Tremblay’s (1994) studies showed integratively motivated students. Another level, also a component of integrative motivation, include two different elements: integrativeness and attitudes towards the L2 learning situation. Integrativeness consists of integrative orientation and two attitudinal factors: “general foreign language interest and attitudes towards the target community”. In comparison, attitudes towards the L2 learning situation involve what opinions the learner has about “the language course and teacher” (Oxford, 1996, p. 2). Lastly, the third level describes motivation through the tripartite group and consists of: effort (the intensity of motivation), desire to learn the language and attitudes towards learning the language. See the figure below for a clear overview of the different parts.

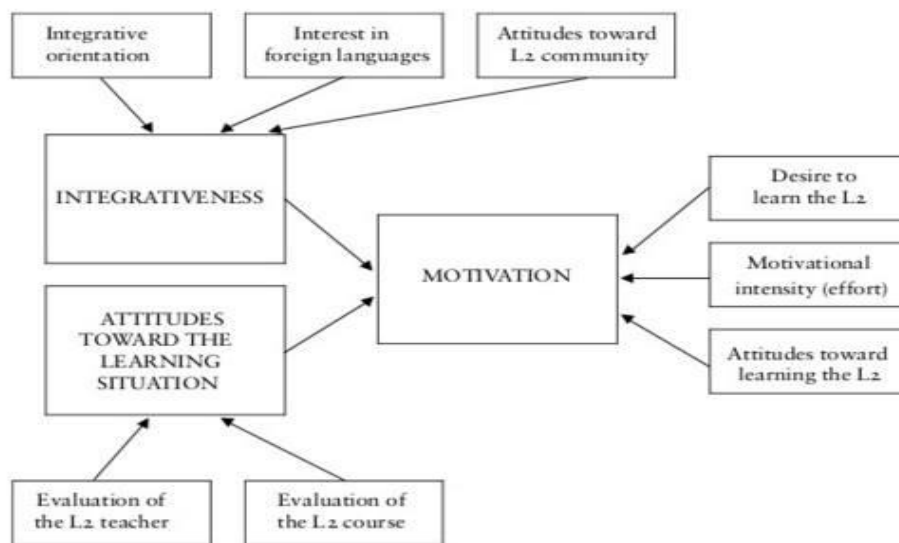


Figure 2. “Gardner’s conceptualisation of the integrative motive” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 17).

Integrative motivation has time after time proven its importance in connection to achievement in the L2. Research has shown that integratively motivated students “capitalize on all practice opportunities, volunteer more answers in the classroom, are more precise in response, and are satisfied and rewarded for participation (Gardner, 1985, as cited in Oxford, 1996, p. 3).

Gardner (as cited in Dörnyei, 2001) continues to argue for taking into consideration the complexity of learning a foreign language in a classroom. Language represents the whole

culture and heritage of the native speakers, besides being a school subject. In order to learn the language, learners need to take on a new identity and Dörnyei (2001) claims that it may represent an imposition on the learners' own "lifespace" (p. 14).

Gardner and Smythe's (1981, as cited in Hedge, 2000, p. 25) continual development of this social-educational model of motivation was the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) that was made to investigate four complex areas:

- Motivation, desire to learn a language, intensity of effort to achieve this, and attitudes towards learning the language.
- Integrativeness
- Attitudes towards the language teacher and course
- Measures of anxiety in classroom situations and in using the language

It has been highlighted in later research that Gardner's research did not look at motivation with the classroom perspective in mind and that L2 motivation needed a more educational-centred approach. However, this statement has been stressed as a clear misinterpretation (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). In fact, the description above, of the integrative motive concept, illustrates that the social-psychological approach does include factors that involve the learning situation. Attitudes towards the teacher and the L2 course are very relevant in that perspective. Yet, it is fair to say that the aim of the social-psychological theory was not to help teachers with motivational techniques to help increasing student motivation. Instead, the purpose was to gather knowledge about the role of attitudes and motivation in L2 learning (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

### **3 Review of motivational strategies for teachers**

This chapter will begin by introducing the new interest for motivational strategies by going through some important theories. Then, the chapter continues with an overview of the empirical research to discover what research says about motivational strategies and what teachers' believe increases motivation.

### 3.1 A new interest developed: motivational strategies

In the early 90s, a new interest developed and there is a clear change of direction in the topics researched. The interest deals with the great expansion of knowledge for how to *motivate* students instead of adding more to the abundant amount of research regarding the role of motivation in the L2 learning process. Many influential researchers in the field of motivation in language learning highlight the change with a positive spirit (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford, 1996). Oxford (1996) titles the great change as “pathways to the new century” and Gardner and Tremblay (1994) suggest that it opens up for a “greater understanding of this fascinating topic” (p. 359).

Dörnyei (1994) is known as one of the main researchers that opened up for this new perspective. He argues, with a quote from Crookes and Schmidt (1991), that Gardner’s approach in the social psychological framework appeared to be rather dominant which made it difficult for other theories to be seriously considered in the past. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) claimed that motivation for learning a second language was limited to two features at this point and consistently connected to “attitudes towards the community of speakers of the target language” and “self-identification with second language community” (p. 471). These comments came from the concern of overlooking other important components involved in motivation of the L2. Even though Gardner’s motivation theory did not go unchallenged, it was not until this era a remarkable shift occurred (Dörnyei, 1994).

The new approach looks at motivational components that are specific to the learning situation and takes into consideration different perspectives that are important for learning in a classroom, such as course-specific motivational components (teaching materials, learning tasks and method), teacher-specific motivational components (teacher’s personality, style, feedback and relationships with students) and group-specific motivational components (dynamics of the learning group) (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 277). The social dimension is, therefore, not the focus anymore as previous studies by Gardner and others. However, the social psychological constructions are not going to be excluded, on the contrary, they will be integrated in the practical guidelines of how to apply research to motivational practice (Dörnyei, 1994).

Dörnyei’s (1994) intentions was to take on the challenge of summarising additional theories that grew after the Gardnerian construct and combine them all into a L2 motivation construct that integrates these theories through their components. The components are: “intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and related theories such as self-determination theory,

intellectual curiosity, attribution about past successes/failures, need for achievement, self-confidence, classroom goal structures”. Other components related to the learning situation are also considered: “classroom events and tasks, classroom climate and group cohesion, course content and teaching materials, teacher feedback, and grades and rewards” (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 275).

This L2 motivation construction model by Dörnyei (1994) is divided into three levels. Firstly, the “Language Level” which involves the components of what a language represents, such as the culture and the community. Therefore, the theoretical aspects of integrativeness and instrumentality are considered. Secondly, the “Learner Level” which takes into consideration the individual’s characteristics such as past experiences, pre-knowledge, self-confidence for example, and what these individual differences bring to their learning process. Lastly, the “Learning Situation Level” encompasses aspects that are specific for the course, teacher and the group. See the table below for a full description of motivational components.

Table 1. Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 280).

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)

Other researchers, important to the field, have discussed the new idea and perspective that motivation in second language (L2) acquisition has taken in the 1990s. Williams and Burden (1997) are one of many, to suggest potential areas that are important for teachers in their motivational teaching practice. These suggestions are based on research, in the same manner as Dörnyei's (1994) L2 motivation construction. So far, unfortunately, no empirical research had been done to prove if the summaries of theories were actually true, even though there was much reason to believe so. Williams and Burden (1997) suggests 12 strategies that teachers should consider to increase internal feelings for learning a foreign language. These strategies involve, variation of tasks, initiating and sustaining motivation, discussing why the activities are important for the students, involve learners in making decisions related to learning the language, setting learning goals, recognise every individual, building up their confidence, develop internal beliefs, enhance intrinsic motivation, build up a supportive learning environment and feedback (pp. 141-142).

As previously mentioned, the new interest in finding techniques and researching *how* to motivate students through teachers and their teaching arrived in the early 90s and the first empirical study investigating this interest was made by Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998). It was the first study in the field with this point of view. The study was carried out in Hungary and was the first one to use Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation described above. A selection of 51 strategies were used based on this framework, and the purpose of the investigation was to find which set of 10 macro strategies were rated as the most important. They felt that, in order to find clarity in the large amounts of research regarding the role of motivation in the L2, it was necessary to aim for a smaller set of strategies that teachers could focus on. They wanted these strategies to be feasible to apply in the classroom (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

The study was carried out through questionnaires where a group of 200 EFL teachers were divided into groups. Some teachers scaled the importance of the strategies and others the frequency of implementation in their current teaching. The results were based on teachers' self-reports and indirectly on their subjective teacher professionalism and experience. The outcome of the survey and final selection of ten motivational strategies involved ten different areas, listed in order of importance according to the Hungarian EFL teachers. The order was as follows: (1) set a personal example with your own behaviour, (2) create a pleasant classroom atmosphere, (3) present the tasks properly, (4) develop good relationships with the

learners, (5) increase learners' linguistic self-confidence, (6) make the language classes interesting, (7) promote learner autonomy, (8) make the L2 course personally relevant to the students, (9) increase learners goal-setting orientation, and lastly (10) familiarise learners with the target language culture (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 215).

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) were hoping to see similarities with recent motivational theories and as it turned out, the areas mentioned above that are part of the set of 10 strategies, did indeed reassure their expectations to some extent. However, the results raised some questions as they felt that an area was missing in the list: “consciously building a cohesive learner group” (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 224). They proposed that the results from this study designate a need of more awareness concerning group dynamics among teachers. They were also concerned by the potential universal use of the set of 10 motivational strategies as the learning contexts differ from place to place. There is no doubt that “the personality of the individual learners and the teacher, as well as the composition and structure of the learner group, will always interplay with the effectiveness of the strategy” (p. 224). Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) propose that these may only work in a European foreign language learning milieu and suggest with less confidence that the set of 10 strategies are valid in other cultural and institutional settings.

Looking at the development of studies after the Hungarian survey, it is evident that strategies to enhance student motivation are the dominant features of the research topic on how to motivate students. The term motivational strategies have been described as “instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation” (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 57). At the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, many researchers state that there is not enough research on the development of techniques to increase motivation. Furthermore, the first list of more than 100 concrete motivational techniques was written by Dörnyei in 2001 (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 154). Important to pinpoint is that the majority of the studies presented in the next section of recent research use the term motivational strategies, except one, and almost all studies base their investigation on this particular summary of motivational strategies that Dörnyei offered.

Dörnyei (2001) wanted to make sense of all the possibilities that twenty motivation theories give the field. He argues that there is a need of “pure” theories of motivation where only one theoretical perspective is presented. He suggests, based on research, that motivational strategies could be grouped into four categories: “basic conditions in the classroom”, “generating initial motivation”, “maintaining and protecting motivation” and

“encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation”. See the full figure with the four categories with subcomponents below.

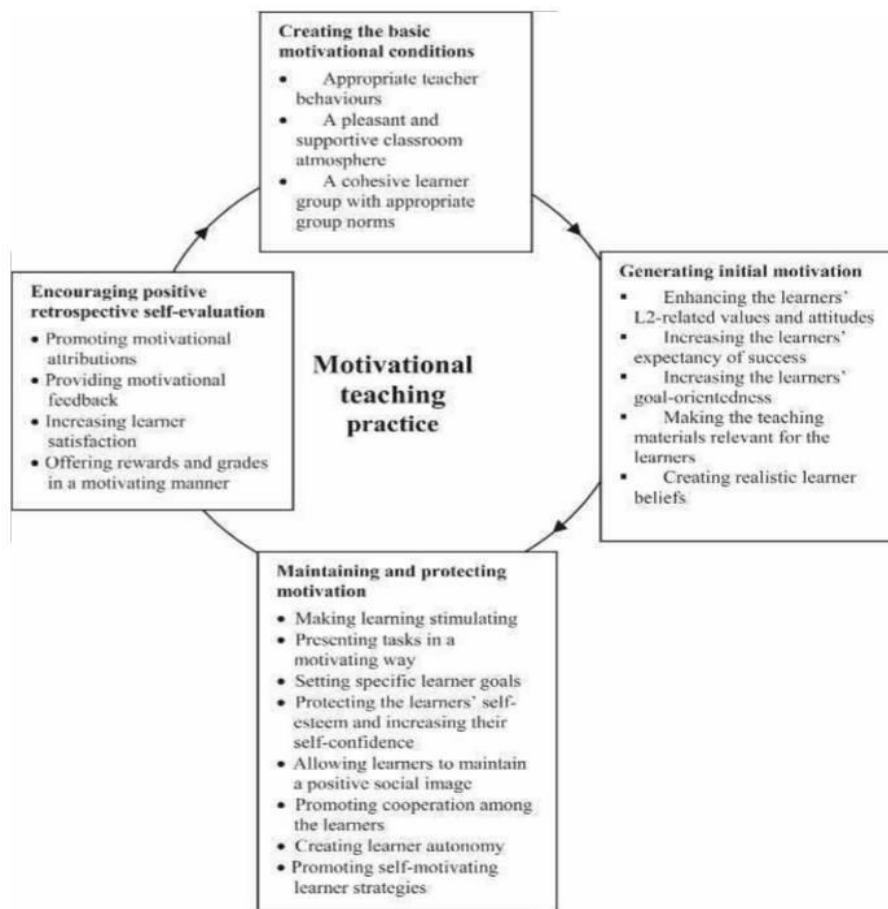


Figure 3. Motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 29).

### 3.2 Recent research: 2000 and onwards

The study by Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) in Hungary initiated this new interest for motivational strategies, since then other studies grew and developed in the field with the same standing point. One of the studies, carried out in Taiwan, wanted to investigate motivational strategies in another cultural setting. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) did a modified replication of the Hungarian survey and continuously compared the results to one another to discover similarities and differences. More specifically, their intentions, as expressed in the study, were to investigate if the motivational strategies were applicable in an Asian as well as Western context. This was one of the main purposes along with finding the most important



motivational strategies and how often they were implemented in the Taiwanese EFL classroom.

In the study, they found that the teacher's behaviour in the classroom was also the highest ranked strategy within the importance category (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). It showed that students need a role model to follow and look up to. In other words, set a personal example in areas such as enthusiasm, commitment, motivation and lesson preparation was what this study and the previous study meant by "set a personal example with your own behaviour" (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

Furthermore, there were only two strategies that were different and "new" in comparison to the Hungarian results. In the Taiwanese survey, "develop a good relationship with the learners" and "personalize the learning process" were not part of final top 10 macro strategies. Instead, "recognise students' effort and celebrate their success" and "promote group cohesiveness and set group norms" were rated as top two and the latter top nine (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 161). All the other strategies were the same, although with slightly different rating positions. Some extra attention was drawn to the fact that learner autonomy was placed in 10<sup>th</sup> place out of 10 strategies in the Taiwanese survey. It was highlighted because Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) noticed that it was the least frequent strategy used by teachers in Taiwan. A suggestion was made that learner autonomy was interpreted differently because of culture differences and they realized that the learner autonomy expressed in the questionnaires might have been demanding a radical change of roles in the classroom, both for learners and teachers. One of the micro strategies that was at the bottom was formulated as "Involve students in designing and running the English course" which illustrates their concern and perhaps the low rating (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 159).

However, they concluded that the results of the Taiwanese study meant a lot for the universal use of motivational strategies in teaching practice as it was revealed that "displaying motivating teacher behaviour, promoting learners' self-confidence, creating a pleasant classroom climate, and, presenting tasks properly" were placed in the top five in both the Hungarian and Taiwanese surveys. In addition, the absence of testing these motivational strategies on students in the EFL classroom meant that the present studies could offer only a hypothetical ranking of the various motivational strategies. Hence, it is not certain that teacher beliefs would coincide with the actual learning benefits of the strategies and was, therefore, suggested for further research (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 155).

Another study, performed in a Korean secondary school (Guilloteaux, 2013), completed in the same manner as Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), discovered some captivating differences in comparison to the other studies in the field. The study made a continuous comparison to the Taiwanese study as Guilloteaux (2013) was hoping to see similarities because of similar cultural settings. There were only seven macro motivational strategies that made it into the final set. In addition, five strategies were treated as separate strategies and treated as individual items, as they could neither be included in any of the other categories chosen nor treated as a full macro strategy of their own because the score of importance was not big enough. A closer look at the joint of twelve strategies (seven macro strategies and five single items), in the order of importance to the Korean teachers, is necessary in order to understand their rather different results from the Hungarian and Taiwanese studies. The highest ranked strategy of importance in the Korean survey was also “display appropriate teacher behaviours” which involved being committed to student’s progress, projecting enthusiasm for teaching, and developing positive relationships with the students. The second highest ranked strategy was “encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation” such as providing motivational feedback and offering rewards and grades in a motivating matter. The third strategy was a single-item strategy, “encourage students to try harder” and, suggests that teachers believe learning depend on student effort and that everybody can benefit from trying harder. The fourth strategy presented in this study was “present task properly” and highlighted the importance of selecting tasks that “are challenging but within the learner’s reach” (Guilloteaux, 2013, p. 10). Another single-item strategy showed the importance of being passionate about your subject, “model enthusiasm for English” was ranked in fifth place. The next single-item strategy was “act naturally in front of students” and is related to the top ranked strategy of appropriate teaching behaviours. However, this study showed that teachers differentiated between two kinds of teacher behaviours in class. Showing students your private persona also helps motivating students to, in a less academic level, connect with the students. The seventh ranked strategy, also a single-item, “teach students learning strategies”, was selected not only for motivation but for students’ learning process of the L2. They believed learning strategies could help students’ self-confidence in the classroom. The last single-item strategy came in eight place, “help students design individual study plans” which was considered fairly low ranked as the researchers believed it was difficult to implement in the context of the Korean classroom with 32 students. The strategy with surprisingly low ranking, according to Guilloteaux (2013), in ninth place was “create an accepting, friendly

classroom climate and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms". It suggests that beliefs about positive climate in the classroom, promoting learner group cohesiveness and establishing group norms "may be more dependent on the local context than previously thought". They were also the least used strategies in the Korean classroom (Guilloteaux, 2013, p. 13). The last three strategies with the lowest ranking were "enhance the learner's awareness of the values associated with the knowledge of the L2", "make learning stimulating and enjoyable" and lastly "promote learner autonomy". Concluding the results, this study found five single-item strategies that were not found in any other study and some surprisingly low ranked strategies were detected. In addition, it is also found that motivational beliefs in the Korean environment differ greatly in comparison to teachers' of Taiwan, even though they share similar cultural heritage. Korean teachers "attached very little importance and hardly ever used these strategies" (Guilloteaux, 2013, p. 13).

Three years later, another survey was made in the same manner in a Saudi context, by Saleh Alqahtani (2016). This study also investigated the most important motivational strategies according to EFL teachers' perceptions. Interestingly, the great importance of proper teacher behaviour was found once again as the most important macro strategy. It is described through micro strategies what proper teacher behaviour means. They imply teachers should show love and care for the students as individuals and their learning progress. Having informal conversations and sharing information about yourself were also part of the strategy. Another interesting micro strategy in this top strategy involved teacher enthusiasm towards the language English as it is believed to show value to the experience of English lessons. These coincide with what Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) found, and, they elaborate in greater detail that learners need a teacher that is motivated because it will reflect on the learners. This supports the statement Dörnyei (2001) makes that "almost everything a teacher does in the classroom has a motivational influence on students, which makes teacher behaviour the most powerful tool" (p. 120). The results from all four studies described so far also imply that relationships with the students are necessary for student motivation and is considered as "proper teacher behaviour" (Alqahtani, 2016; Guilloteaux, 2013; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Alqahtani's (2016) study reveals that "teaching L2 culture and L2-related values" was the second most important motivational strategy, which neither the Hungarian, Taiwanese nor Korean studies show. In contrast, the same motivational strategy ended up at the bottom in the Hungarian survey, in 8<sup>th</sup> place in the Taiwanese survey and 10<sup>th</sup> place in the Korean.

Reminding students of why learning English is beneficial or introducing different cultural backgrounds of the target language to encourage students to explore the English language community even outside the classroom, through the internet for example, was mainly what was considered most important within that strategy in the Saudi context (Alqahtani, 2016). Teaching students how to get in touch with the English community and language speakers to increase their language input and knowledge of L2 culture was also included. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) argue that “there is a need of making the L2 real” (p. 218) which explains why culture becomes an important area in the L2 classroom. Even Gardner (1985, as cited in Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) has for a long period of time argued for teaching culture as it is part of language, and, therefore, a necessary component in teaching language. He believes that learners’ disposition towards the target culture is a determinant for their learning achievement.

In conclusion, more similarities than differences were found in comparison to previous studies because the study in a Saudi context ended up with the same important motivational areas that involve the teacher’s behaviour, L2 culture, enhancing learners’ self-confidence, feedback and celebrating students’ progress, presenting tasks properly, learner autonomy, making tasks stimulating and relevant for the students’ lives, pleasant classroom atmosphere, goal setting and group norms (Alqahtani, 2016). This meant good news for the universal use of motivational strategies as the same strategies keep coming through as most important, although, with different ranking positions.

Another study, with a slightly different angle, took place in Catalonia, Spain and investigated the effect of *teaching strategies* on students’ motivation and English achievement (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). Interestingly, there is a clear difference of terminology in this study in comparison to other studies in this review that have used “motivational strategies” rather than “teaching strategies”. They appear, however, to refer to the same construct as Bernaus and Gardner (2008), the authors and researchers of this study, start by discussing that there is an absence of research within the field of student motivation which involves *the teacher role* and its importance as well as contribution for the learning process. They argue for a need of a more education-friendly approach to increase focus on “variables that would help the teacher understand motivation and encourage its development and maintenance” (p. 387).

The study consisted of 31 English teachers and their students which were a total of 694. The 26 strategies involved in the study are more or less the same, yet not based on the

dominant model made by Dörnyei (2001), even though his model is mentioned. The strategies are, therefore, not expressed in the same manner as previously seen and focus a lot more on teaching. However, the purpose of the studies was essentially the same, i.e. to see what teachers can do for student motivation. In addition, this study does also investigate and experiment the use of strategies to see if they led to English achievement, which has not been seen until this point. As a result, the method of this study incorporated both teacher and student questionnaires where they rated the frequency with which the teachers use each strategy on a 7-point scale. The student questionnaire was slightly different, as it was two parts to the student questionnaire, and the second part was a mini-Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) and asked questions about (1) Integrativeness, consisting of, attitudes towards the target language group, interest in foreign languages and integrative orientation, (2) Attitudes towards the learning situation, which included the English teacher and the English course, (3) Motivation, which included motivational intensity and desire to learn English and attitudes towards learning English, (4) Language anxiety, which included English class anxiety and English use anxiety, (5) Instrumental orientation and (6) Parental encouragement (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, p. 390).

The strategies used involved both traditional strategies (teacher-centred) and innovative strategies (student-centred). The major difference between these strategies were whether the students were passively listening and learning the elements and structure of the language or involved in the activities through interaction with their fellow classmates and teacher. For example, “my students do listening activities through audio or video”, “I make students do grammar exercises”, “I make my students translate English into Catalan” and “I make my students do dictations” are four examples of traditional strategies where the learner is practicing the structural aspects of the language. In contrast, the innovative strategies put more focus on communication and interaction between the learners and stresses learner autonomy, for example “I make my students do pair work conversations”, “Students work in small groups”, “I put more emphasis on my students’ communicative competence than on their discourse competence” and “I give questionnaires to my students to evaluate my teaching” (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, p. 391).

Before presenting the results, Bernaus and Gardner (2008) highlight the importance of including the students’ perception of strategy use in the classroom in the study, and not only what the teachers believe. Because of the indication that “there may be disagreement between

students and teachers about the value of some strategies” (p. 389). This implies that students may not perceive the same information that teachers are trying to present in the classroom.

As they expected, they found a disagreement of the perception of strategy use between teachers and students. The reason why was not inspected in the study. However, they found that there was an important “negative correlation between students’ ratings on traditional strategies and their English scores” (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, p. 393). These students did poorly on the English test, which was not the case for the students with a higher rating on innovative strategies in the classroom. Moreover, the students that perceived that their teacher used both traditional and innovative strategies had more positive attitudes toward the learning situation and higher levels of motivation, according to the mini-Attitude Motivation Test Battery questionnaire that was answered after the classroom activities (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008).

## 4 Discussion

The role of motivation for L2 learning has been the main focus for many years before motivational strategies became of great interest. There is a general agreement in the studies reviewed on the importance of motivation for the learning process. Researchers define motivation as “energising” human behaviour and that it tries to describe what a person *wants, thinks or feels*. It also explains why a person wants to do something, how hard they are going to work towards their goal and how long they are willing to sustain the activity (Dörnyei, 2001). Motivation, however, can be looked at from different stages, which are defined as initiating, sustaining and maintaining motivation (Williams & Burden, 1997). Three stages with great relevance to the learning process and important when speaking of strategies to *motivate* students.

The findings in this review indicate that although about two decades have passed since the first study took place in 1998 to investigate motivational strategies, the research area is rather under-researched. In consequence, the field is in need of more perspectives as the research topic is somewhat dominated by Zoltán Dörnyei, as he was one of the main initiators to further investigate motivational strategies. Therefore, a lot of theory in this review comes from his work as he was the first person to summarize a large number of theories and wrote 100 strategies based on them. He also participates in the first two studies which initiated the method for studying what motivational strategies teachers believe to increase student

motivation. As this research topic is relatively new and is under-researched, his work within the topic was bound to be dominating.

However, his L2 motivation construct has gained a lot of attention and he impressively tries to summarise various theories important to the field. Most of these theories grew after the Gardnerian construct and became equally considered as one another. The L2 motivation construct by Dörnyei (2001) incorporated components such as: “intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and related theories such as self-determination theory, intellectual curiosity, attribution about past successes/failures, need for achievement, self-confidence, classroom goal structures”. Other components related to the learning situation are also considered: “classroom events and tasks, classroom climate and group cohesion, course content and teaching materials, teacher feedback, and grades and rewards” (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 275). As a result of Dörnyei’s (2001) new L2 motivation construct, it became dominating in all the studies reviewed, except one (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013; Alqahtani, 2016).

Furthermore, these studies reviewed that shared the same theoretical background showed an agreement of important areas. The most remarkable finding was the general agreement on the importance of *teacher behaviours in the EFL classroom* as it was considered the top rated strategy in the studies performed in a Hungarian, Taiwanese, Korean and Saudi context. This strategy involves behaviours that will set a personal example in areas such as “enthusiasm, commitment, motivation and lesson preparation” as it is believed that the same behaviours can in this matter be projected on the students (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013; Alqahtani, 2016). *Showing students your personality and real persona* was considered different behaviour by the Korean teachers (Guilloteaux, 2013) but also considered motivating by them and teachers of the other studies. Other motivational strategies that were coherent, with slightly different rating positions, were “*present tasks properly, promoting learners self-confidence and creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere*” which indicates that they embody fundamentally important beliefs in teaching pedagogy (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). Although Korean teachers showed a poor frequency of use of most of the strategies, they still thought they were important. In addition, other similarities were found such as “*promote learner autonomy and familiarise learners with L2 related values and L2 culture*”, however, some considered these two strategies more important than others for various reasons. For example, the study made by Alqahtani (2016) discovered that L2 culture and L2 related values was greatly important and was rated the

second highest strategy as the teachers in Saudi believed students' needed to come in contact with English even outside the classroom in order to increase motivation for learning L2.

The review also found motivational strategies that were particular for the country where the study took place. For example, in the Hungarian survey teachers' believed that *developing relationships with the students* and *making the L2 course personally relevant to the students' lives* were important to enhance student motivation in class. Also, a rather surprising result was detected in the Korean survey, where 5 single-item strategies arose as they could neither be included in any of the other categories chosen nor treated as a full macro strategy of their own because the score of importance was not big enough. These single-item strategies were "*encourage students to try harder*", "*model enthusiasm for English*", "*act naturally in front of students*", "*teach students learning strategies*", and, "*help students design individual study topics*" (Guilloteaux, 2013, p. 7).

Additionally, no major differences between teachers' beliefs from different countries were detected. This indicates that teachers share similar beliefs' of what could motivate students even though they come from different cultural backgrounds. Dörnyei (1998) suggested in his first study with some confidence that a set of motivational strategies could be for universal use. Yet, he was concerned that the set of strategies would be too context-dependent as teacher personality and learner groups look different which could interplay with its effectiveness (Dörnyei, 1998). Nevertheless, as a result of the similarities and diverse areas of agreement in the surveys reviewed one could argue for the universal use. However, the little differences cannot be ignored. Especially when we speak of language which involve more than just straight forward answers (Dörnyei, 2001). Also, the purpose of language in the world changes depending on time and place which plays a factor in whether the set of motivational strategies will work everywhere. One example, is the great importance of communication that emerged in Europe, according to the Common European Framework of References (CEFR), which made a significant impact on the school curriculum in Sweden (Skolverket, 2011). Besides, motivational strategies that are incorporated in the classroom depend on research of teaching methods. Motivational strategies would have to develop and update themselves in the same pace.

As mentioned earlier, one of the studies did not use the same L2 motivation construct made by Dörnyei (2001) as the rest of the studies reviewed. The study that differentiated itself from the others was made by Bernaus and Gardner (2008) and used different types of strategies as well as method. However, the purpose of the study was to some extent the same



as the other studies. In addition, it was the only investigation that studied if these teaching strategies were connected to the students' English achievements. Additionally, they considered students' perception of teaching strategies and these results were compared with the teachers' beliefs. Because the study gives another perspective to the field it may be considered important and was, therefore, chosen in this overview.

The results (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008) reveal a disagreement between students' and teachers' perception of teaching strategies, which suggest that teachers behaviour and choice of methods in the classroom are not perceived the same way by their students. Students' perception of these strategies tended to show correlation with their English achievements and special attention was drawn to the negative correlation between students who reported that their teachers used more traditional strategies that focus less on communication and more on the language structure as these students showed poor results on the English test which was not the case for students that perceived that their teachers used innovative strategies that focused on interaction in English such as "I make my students do pair work conversations" in the classroom. Students had also more positive attitudes towards the learning situation when their teachers used both traditional and innovative strategies (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008).

As a result of the studies reviewed in this paper, it is established that many areas of ordinary teaching practice have been mentioned. For example, task-presentation, classroom atmosphere, developing relationships with the students, teaching students to take responsibility for their own learning, making English lessons interesting through culture and tasks that are stimulating, working with communication, working with grammar. Through these studies, one can see what agreements there are on teaching in general in the world and which areas are more universal than others. It would be interesting to investigate what affected teachers' answers and if the school curriculum of their school had an impact on what they believed was motivating in their own context.

Other suggestions for future research is to investigate this topic in countries that we know do well in English, through PISA for example, and compare the results with a country that is doing worse. In order to identify if learners' success is affected by teaching methods and strategies such as proper teacher behaviour, stimulating tasks, teaching students to take responsibility for their own learning or working with communication in the classroom, for example, a comparison need to take place where a dissimilarity of student motivation is found. The matter of fact that motivation is considered necessary in the L2 classroom in order to succeed, it should not be difficult to detect motivation in those classrooms.

Lastly, as few studies reviewed to this date have tested whether the motivational strategies are actually useful or not it is important to proceed with such investigation in the areas already studied as well as new ones. It would be interesting to ask teachers and students' beliefs of motivational strategies and then, incorporate a few strategies that the teacher usually never use to change the teaching methods in that classroom for a longer period of time to see if the student motivation increase. I believe it is important to contrast one classroom with another or focus on a few particular learners with different attitudes and levels of English to see a more specific development.

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