

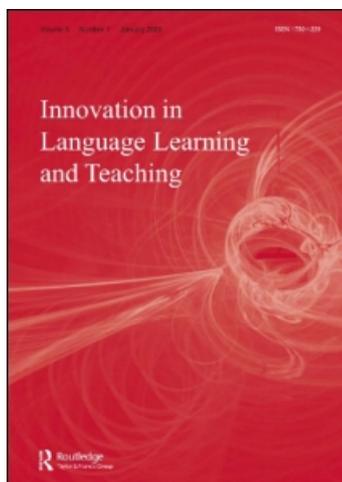
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Student and teacher perceptions of motivational strategies in the foreign language classroom

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The present paper reports on a study that builds upon Dörnyei and Csizér's and Cheng and Dörnyei's research on the teaching practices foreign language instructors consider most motivational. The study utilized an instrument based on that of Dörnyei and Csizér, but changed the cultural context in which the survey was administered (North America) and added the perspective of foreign language students. The results of the study offer further support to the findings of the earlier studies. Findings also suggest additional cross-cultural differences in perceptions of motivational teaching practices. Furthermore, the present study underscores the importance of including students' perspectives on classroom practices, as some significant differences were found between teachers' and students' responses.

Keywords: motivation; motivational strategies; foreign language learning; foreign language teaching; classroom practices

Introduction

In any discussion of success or lack thereof in L2 learning, the issue of motivation arises. Indeed, Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) assert that motivation is one of the key factors that determine the rate and success of L2 attainment – overriding learners' innate aptitudes for language learning (see also Gardner and Lambert 1972; Good and Brophy 1994; Sternberg 2002).

Given the importance attributed to motivation, it has garnered attention from scholars in Second Language Acquisition for four decades. Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) were among the first to propose a theory of motivation, known as the social–psychological approach. One of the most enduring and influential theoretical constructs to arise from Gardner and Lambert's models of motivation was that of integrative orientation, defined as a desire to integrate with members of a target language community.

In recent years, scholars have reframed the notion of integrativeness in various ways. Some have expanded the concept to refer to attitudes toward the international community at large, such as Yashima's (2002) concept of international posture. Similar to the construct of international posture is Norton's (2001) notion of imagined communities, to which some learners hope to belong. Dörnyei and colleagues (Dörnyei 2009; Dörnyei and Ushioda 2009) suggest that integrativeness may be better explained as an internal process of identification with the individual's

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self-concept rather than identification with an external reference group. As Dörnyei (2005) suggests, imagining oneself as a proficient L2 speaker represents one aspect of a learner's ideal or possible future self (see Markus and Nurius 1987 for a discussion of possible selves). Identifying with this possible self may serve as the motivating factor for learning the L2 rather than identification with (or integrativeness toward) a particular target language community.

In addition to reframing the notion of integrativeness, recent models of motivation have taken a more process-oriented and situated view of motivation. Norton (2001), for instance, in her theory of investment, acknowledges that a learner's relationship with the L2 and the L2 community is 'socially and historically constructed' (10). Moreover, other factors, such as fear of being marginalized, can conflict with an individual's desire to speak the target language. Thus, a learner's investment in the target language is in a constant state of flux.

To account for the constant 'flux' in learners' motivation, Dörnyei and Otto (1998); see also Dörnyei 2000, 2001a, 2001b) proposed a process-oriented model of motivation that divides the motivational process into discrete temporal segments, from the preactional stage (the generation of motivation that leads to the learner's choice of goal), the actional stage (or the maintenance of motivation), and the postactional stage (or the retrospective evaluation of the learning process). A small number of empirical studies examining temporal changes in motivation (e.g. Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, and Shohamy 2001; Williams, Burden, and Lanvers 2002) have shown that motivation for language learning declines over time, particularly in situation-specific motives such as attitudes toward the learning situation (Gardner et al. 2004). Ushioda's (2001, 2006) qualitative study also revealed definite changes in the quality of motivation; the learners in her study eventually developed clearer L2-related goals and motives

Taken together, these new models indicate the situated and dynamic nature of motivation. Further evidence of this situatedness is afforded by recent research into the impact on motivation of classroom variables such as the teacher, the curriculum, and the learning group (see, for example, Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar, and Shohamy 2004; Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, and Shohamy 2001; Nikolov 2001). These studies have found that variables related to the learning experience explain much of the variance in students' motivation. Nikolov (2001), for example, in a study of unsuccessful Hungarian language learners, concluded that the main reason for their lack of success was negative perceptions of classroom practices. Likewise, Donitsa-Schmidt, Inbar, and Shohamy (2004) and Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, and Shohamy (2001) found that the best predictor of Israeli students' willingness to continue studying Arabic was the quality of the teaching program. This finding suggests that situation-specific motives (classroom practices) can override a generally negative attitude toward the target culture (as one might surmise is the case between Israelis and Arabs). Other studies have demonstrated that learners' perceptions of autonomy-supporting versus controlling teacher behavior influence the extent of learners' intrinsic motivation (Noels 2001, 2003). Csizér and Kormos' (2009) study of secondary and university language students in Hungary also found the nature of language learning experiences to be an important determinant in the efforts students expend to learn their L2. In fact, for secondary learners, the authors conclude that the effects of classroom-related factors might be stronger than that of the ideal L2 self. Their findings emphasize the importance of motivational teaching practices (Dörnyei 2001c).

In recognition of the role that teaching practices play in motivating learners, a number of scholars and practitioners have designed and summarized motivational techniques for classroom application (see Cheng and Dörnyei 2007 for a brief summary of these publications). Gardner and Tremblay (1994) called for more empirical research justifying the use of such strategies. Among the first studies to answer that call was Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study, in which Hungarian teachers of English evaluated a list of 51 motivational strategies. The teachers indicated how important they considered each strategy and how frequently they used them in class. On the basis of the results, the authors produced a list of the 10 most important macrostrategies. In 2007, Cheng and Dörnyei conducted a modified replication of the original study, investigating the beliefs of Taiwanese teachers of English. Their study found that Taiwanese teachers largely agreed with their Hungarian counterparts; four of the top five macrostrategies in the two lists coincided. However, they found discrepancies in the results, suggesting that certain motivational strategies are culturally dependent. In particular, promoting learner autonomy was viewed as an effective motivational strategy in the Hungarian context, but was not so viewed in the Asian context.

These two articles provide important insights into techniques for motivating students, demonstrating that some strategies may be universal, while others are culturally dependent. However, both studies exclusively examined teachers' perceptions of motivational practices, and not those of the students. The findings of these studies could be enhanced by considering how learners view the techniques used by their teachers, particularly since research suggests frequent mismatches between the expectations of teachers and learners (Bell 2005; Brown 2009).

The present study seeks to build upon Dörnyei and Csizér's and Cheng and Dörnyei's previous studies of motivational strategies. The goal of the current study is to extend the findings of the original two studies by comparing student and teacher evaluations of motivational strategies used in the classroom. Moreover, this study will add further insight into the possible situatedness of motivation, as the research was carried out in a different cultural context.

The study

The current study closely followed the procedures used in Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), with some modifications to the instrument, which will be specified in the following sections. The 1998 study was designed to elicit a list of motivational strategies for language teaching based on the beliefs and practices of teachers, whereas Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) follow-up study sought to 'explore the range of motivational strategies that teachers can use to motivate their learners in an Asian context' (155). The current study adds yet another context, that of North American university language classes. In addition, the current study includes a group of student participants. Unlike the earlier studies, this one did not calculate the reported frequency of the use for teaching practices.

Methods

Participants

The total number of participants in this study was 156, including 126 students and 30 instructors. Student participants (45 male, 81 female, ages 18–28) were enrolled in

first- or second-year classes of the following foreign languages: Arabic, Chinese, French, Italian, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish. Teacher participants included 30 teachers (21 male, 9 female, ages 22–64) of Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish. See Table 1 for a breakdown of the languages and levels of all participants.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study consisted of two questionnaires, one administered to language instructors and the other to students enrolled in their classes. Teachers and students alike were asked to rank 49 individual strategies (comprising 17 macrostrategies) on a six-point likert scale according to the degree to which they found the particular strategy motivating. The 17 macrostrategies were taken directly from Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study: teaching, climate, task, self-confidence, personal relevance, interest, language, usefulness, autonomy, effort, comparison, goal, group, culture, reward, peer-modeling, finished product and rapport (see also 2001c). See Table 2 for an explanation of the macrostrategies.

In the present study, we modified Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) original questionnaire, measuring the importance and frequency of different motivational strategies used in Hungarian English classrooms. First, we eliminated motivational strategies from their 1998 study that are not consistently used at a college level in the USA. For example, 'encourage the learners to decorate the classroom and make it cozy in any way they can.'¹ In addition, we included the following strategies that are relevant to the college learning environment in the questionnaires: 'invite experienced students to talk about their positive learning experiences,' 'teach various learning strategies,' 'allow students real choice about as many aspects of learning as possible,' and 'act as a facilitator' (Dörnyei 2001b). The wording of each strategy was also slightly adapted for the student survey.

Another important difference between the survey instrument in this study and that of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) is the absence of questions related to the frequency with which teachers use particular motivational strategies. For practical purposes, we focused only on the extent to which each strategy was perceived as motivational.

Table 1. Foreign language class breakdown of student and teacher participants.

Foreign language class	Number of students	Number of teachers
Arabic	53 (1 student also enrolled in French, 1 student also enrolled Hebrew, 1 student also enrolled in Turkish, 1 student also enrolled in Russian, 3 students also enrolled in Spanish)	4
Japanese	16 (1 student also enrolled in Chinese)	4
Spanish	18	3
Italian	12	6
French	10	5
Russian	10	5
Chinese	6	1
German	0	2

Table 2. Macrostrategies explanation.

Macrostrategy	Explanation
Teacher	Set a personal example with your own behavior.
Climate	Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
Task	Present the tasks properly.
Self-confidence	Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence.
Interest	Make the language classes interesting.
Autonomy	Promote learner autonomy and allow students choices about learning.
Personal relevance	Personalize the learning process.
Goals	Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.
Culture	Familiarize the learners with the target culture.
Group	Include group work and activities inside and outside of class.
Effort	Help students realize that it is mainly effort that is needed for success.
Language usefulness	Emphasize the usefulness of the language.
Reward	Give the learners other rewards, besides grades.
Finished product	Allow students to create products that they can display or perform.
Comparison	Avoid any comparison of students to one another.
Peer-modeling	Invite experienced students to talk about their positive learning experiences.
Rapport	Develop a good relationship with the students.

Procedures

A link to the online survey was e-mailed to 84 teachers of Japanese, French, German, Arabic, Chinese, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Russian. Each teacher who participated in the study forwarded the online student survey link to the students in their class. Thirty teachers (35.7% response rate) completed the teacher survey, and 126 of their students completed the student survey. Response rates for the students could not be calculated, as the researchers had no information about the total numbers of students enrolled in each class.

Data analysis

Data from the study were submitted to a number of statistical analyses. First, researchers calculated the mean of each macrostrategy. This was accomplished by calculating the mean of each individual microstrategy within a particular category and then averaging these means. These averages were then used to rank-order macrostrategies.²

The students' results were calculated separately from those of the instructors, yielding two separate lists. A series of inferential statistical tests were performed to determine differences between students' and teachers' ratings of particular macrostrategies.

Results and discussion

In this study, we compared North American teachers' and students' perceptions of motivational teaching practices. In addition, we compared these perceptions with those of the Hungarian and Taiwanese teachers in the respective Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) studies. Comparisons with the latter study among teachers in Taiwan were complicated by the different clustering of strategies

in the second study. However, because all three surveys focused on similar broad motivational dimensions, the results of all three studies are comparable.

Student and teacher rank orders and mean scores for macrostrategies from our study are presented in Table 3, and combined teacher and student macrostrategy ratings are presented in Table 4. A mixed ANOVA was performed to determine whether there were significant group (teacher and student) and macrostrategy differences in macrostrategy ratings. Results showed a significant main effect for macrostrategy, $F(8.71, 1324.48) = 57.58, p < .001$, but not for group, $F(1, 152) = 1.30, p = .256$. We also found a significant group by macrostrategy interaction, $F(8.71, 1324.48) = 2.15, p = .024$, indicating that although there is no global pattern of differences in ratings between teachers and students (i.e. one group does not tend to rate all strategies higher or lower than the other), teachers do tend to rate particular strategies differently than do students.

In order to determine where statistically significant differences between teacher and student ratings for specific macrostrategies lie, a series of one-way ANOVAs were conducted to compare student and teacher means for each macrostrategy. Only three macrostrategies were found to be significantly different: *Task*, $F(1, 152) = 5.08, p = .026$, *Effort*, $F(1, 155) = 3.80, p = .049$, and *Comparison*, $F(1, 152) = 7.11, p = .008$. These findings and their implications will be discussed along with the comparisons across cultures in the text that follows.

Differences across cultures

Table 5 displays the rankings from our study and the rankings from the previous studies, comparing the responses of North American teachers and students with the

Table 3. Student and teacher macrostrategy ratings (ordered from most motivational to least).

Student mean (SD)	Student perception (Ranked)	Teacher perception (Ranked)	Teacher mean (SD)
5.32 (0.60)	Teacher	Rapport	5.33 (0.80)
5.31 (0.85)	Rapport	Teacher	5.31 (0.44)
5.03 (0.87)	Climate	Comparison	5.27 (0.94)
4.95 (0.77)	Task	Climate	5.00 (0.75)
4.78 (0.83)	Self-confidence	Effort	4.90 (0.84)
4.69 (1.31)	Personal relevance	Self-confidence	4.84 (0.71)
4.67 (0.90)	Interest	Language usefulness	4.70 (1.15)
4.48 (1.49)	Language usefulness	Autonomy	4.65 (0.72)
4.45 (1.01)	Autonomy	Interest	4.63 (0.53)
4.38 (1.37)	Effort	Task	4.61 (0.73)
4.37 (1.71)	Comparison	Personal relevance	4.60 (1.13)
4.04 (1.13)	Goal	Group	4.11 (0.97)
3.75 (1.19)	Group	Goal	4.10 (0.90)
3.70 (1.02)	Culture	Reward	3.80 (1.63)
3.22 (1.84)	Reward	Culture	3.73 (0.93)
2.73 (1.87)	Peer modeling	Finished product	3.00 (1.46)
2.48 (1.70)	Finished product	Peer modeling	2.83 (1.88)
4.26 (1.50)	Average overall	Average overall	4.44 (1.25)

Note: Bold-faced categories are those whose ratings by the students were statistically different than their ratings by instructors.

Table 4. Combined student and teacher motivational macrostrategies ratings, ordered from most motivational to least.

Rank	Macrostrategy	Group mean
1	Teacher	5.32
2	Rapport	5.31
3	Climate	5.02
4	Task	4.89
5	Self-confidence	4.84
6	Personal relevance	4.67
7	Interest	4.65
8	Comparison	4.54
9	Language usefulness	4.52
10	Autonomy	4.48
11	Effort	4.48
12	Goals	4.05
13	Group	3.82
14	Culture	3.7
15	Reward	3.33
16	Peer-modeling	2.74
17	Finished product	2.58

responses of teachers in Hungary and Taiwan. Findings suggest some similarities among the various groups of teachers and between all three groups of teachers and the North American students. Among the most important strategies for all four groups were strategies related to teacher behavior and rapport, climate, and building learner’s self-confidence. *Task* was also highly ranked by all four groups. These findings further strengthen Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) original ‘list of ten commandments,’ suggesting that these strategies are universally motivating.

Other strategies, however, appear to be more culturally dependent. Perhaps the most striking difference between the North American and Hungarian data is the question of *Comparison*, for example avoiding social comparisons. Teachers in the USA attach great importance to avoidance of comparisons, ranking it third. Hungarian teachers ranked *Comparison* as 18th – or dead last. Similarly, this microstrategy ‘avoid social comparison’ was ranked 41st out of 47 individual strategies in the Taiwanese data.³ This suggests different teaching practices among the three countries. In the USA, privacy laws and a focus on the individual may lead teachers to avoid openly comparing students. In other countries, such comparisons may be considered motivating to weaker students, encouraging them to work harder.

Given such differences, cross-cultural awareness seems an important issue. If students go abroad or are taught at home by non-native teachers less familiar with ways of motivating students from the culture they are teaching in, motivation in the classroom can decrease because of these cross-cultural differences. Preparing both students and teachers for cross-cultural differences could reduce motivational challenges in the language classroom. Such challenges might be further decreased by addressing issues of classroom motivation in student and/or teacher orientations.

Another teaching practice that may be culturally dependent is a focus on learners’ efforts. Notably, *Effort* was ranked very high (2nd) by teachers in Taiwan, and rather low (12th) by teachers in Hungary. Teachers in the USA ranked *Effort* 6th. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) cite research in educational psychology asserting that Asian students place more value on effort than do their Western counterparts. The

Table 5. Comparison of US teachers' rank order of the macrostrategies with Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study, Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study, and US student survey results.

US teacher rank	Macrostrategy	Hungarian survey	Taiwanese survey	Student survey
1	Rapport	4	1	2
2	Teacher	1	1	1
3	Comparison	18	(4) ^a	11
4	Climate	2	2	3
5	Self-confidence	5	3	5
6	Effort	12	2	10
7	Language usefulness	13	(8) ^b	8
8	Autonomy	7	10	9
9	Task	3	5, 7 ^c	4
10	Personal relevance	8	–	6
11	Interest	6	–	7
12	Goal	9	6	12
13	Group	11	9	13
14	Reward	14	–	15
15	Culture	10	(8)	14
16	Finished product	16	–	17
17	Peer modeling	–	–	16

^aOne microstrategy within 'create a pleasant classroom climate' is 'avoid social comparisons.'

^bThis 'macrostrategy' is referred to as 'familiarize learners with L2-related values' in the 2007 study. One of the microstrategies within this category is 'remind students of the benefits of mastering [their foreign language].' Many of the other microstrategies, however, are not related to the original category, 'reminding students of the usefulness of language learning.'

^cCheng and Dörnyei (2007) have two categories related to task, the fifth ranked category is 'present tasks properly,' and the seventh is 'make the learning tasks stimulating.' The latter category also overlaps with 'make the language classes interesting.'

discrepancy between the Hungarian and North American teachers' perceptions is more surprising and deserves further research.

Differences in teacher and student perceptions

As noted earlier, students and teachers in the current study generally agreed about the practices that they considered most and least motivating. However, in the case of three macrostrategies, we found significant differences: *Effort*, *Task*, and *Comparisons*.

In terms of effort, we found that teachers in the USA rated practices related to *Effort* as the 6th most motivational practice, whereas students rated *Effort* significantly lower – 10th overall. Further research is required to explain this discrepancy, but earlier research in educational psychology may provide some insights into this question. Studies conducted in the 1980s suggest that most Americans perceive ability and effort as inversely related, that is, they believe that effort compensates for low ability (Barker and Graham 1987; Covington and Omelich 1981, 1985). Because adults in the USA believe in a compensatory relationship between effort and ability, Covington and Omelich (1985) assert that encouraging learners to exert more effort is tantamount to disparaging their abilities. Indeed, Marsh's (1984) classroom study found that attributing failure to lack of effort, rather than lack of ability, had a negative effect on learners' motivation.

'Millennials,' or individuals born after 1982, (Strauss and Howe 2000), may be even more sensitive to issues of effort and ability. Strauss and Howe (2000) find that

Millennials tend to be more confident and assertive than previous generations, possessing a heightened sense of their own abilities and talents. Current university students may perceive less need for effort and may find their teachers' focus on effort to be demotivating.

Little is known of teachers' perceptions of effort and ability in Western countries. However, that teachers regularly reward effort in their grading is well documented (Brookhart 1993; Kelly 2008; Popkewitz, Tabachnick, and Wehlage 1982), suggesting that teachers attach greater importance to effort than do their students. Further research is needed to verify differences in the value of effort. Practices related to *Task*, which Cheng and Dörnyei considered a 'universally endorsed' (171) strategy, were also perceived differently by North American teachers and their students. Teachers ranked *Task* number 9, whereas students ranked it at number 4, significantly higher.

This discrepancy may be due to the relatively small number of teachers surveyed in the present study. A broader sample size may yield different results. Nevertheless, the divergent perceptions of variables related to task are in line with Urdan's (2001) qualitative study of teachers' and students' perceptions of classroom practices and tasks. Urdan observed that teachers seldom tell students why they should spend effort on a particular task, in spite of the fact that the teachers reported doing so frequently. By contrast, he found that students were particularly attuned to the utility of the tasks in which they were engaged. In other words, Urdan's data reveal a mismatch between teachers' and students' expectations in the classroom that parallels the mismatch in the current study.

These differences in perceptions of task-related variables may also be explained by generational gaps. Howe, Strauss, and LifeCourse Associates (2007) and Strauss and Howe (2000) have found that Millennials tend toward opportunities that involve objective measures of success. Current college students generally favor the hard sciences in their career pursuits, since success in these areas can be readily measured. Students in this study valued clarity of classroom tasks, which allows for more objective assessment of success. Their instructors, raised in a different era, may not place so much emphasis on indicators of success. However, additional research is needed before these or other possible explanations can be verified.

Although the present study does not provide enough data to answer the question about the different emphasis on practices related to *Task*, it does suggest that students, at least, perceive these practices as motivating. Thus, Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007, 169) assertion that *Task* may indeed be a 'central tenet for any sound teaching practices' appears to be justified.

Overall, the biggest difference between teacher and student ratings involved *Comparison*. 'Avoiding social comparison' was ranked significantly lower by American students than by their teachers. On the basis of this data, one might conclude that North American learners indeed find comparisons motivating, but literature on study abroad suggests otherwise. Davidson (personal communication, 27 September 2009) notes that data collected and analyzed in studies by Polanyi (1995) and Brecht and Robinson (1995) indicated that learners from the USA studying abroad in Russia strongly disliked the tendency of their Russian teachers to openly compare students. This practice, reportedly, decreased the learners' motivation. Similar patterns were found by the third author in unpublished data from study abroad participants in Egypt. In light of these findings, it seems likely that students in the USA are rarely exposed to social comparison (especially because

avoiding such comparison is extremely important to teachers) and, thus, may be unaware of the possible effects of comparison on their motivation.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

The current study involved only one university and a small number of language teachers. In addition, since the survey was voluntary, the sample was self-selected and may represent the viewpoints of the most motivated student and teacher populations. Future research could include additional institutions and larger numbers of students and teachers. By expanding the number of participants, analyses could also take into consideration variables such as language of instruction, language level, and native versus non-native instructor.

Considering differences between student and teacher ratings, future research should give particular attention to questions of *Task*, *Effort*, and *Comparison*. Qualitative studies may provide greater insights into why students find teaching practices related to *Task* and *Effort* more motivating than do teachers. Based on the difference in ranking between this study and the Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) study on the macrostrategy *Comparison*, it would also be interesting to find out why teachers from each country ranked that same macrostrategy so differently. Ethnographic methods, diary studies, or discourse analysis may yield important information about the role that interstudent comparisons play (or do not play) in various cultures (cf. Brecht and Robinson 1995; Polanyi 1995).

Conclusion

The results of this study further support Cheng and Dörnyei's assertion that the relationships between teachers and students and the classroom climate strongly influence learners' motivations. Not only do teachers in three different contexts agree that these practices are important for motivating learners, the results of this study suggest that learners concur.

Similarly, just as Cheng and Dörnyei claim, our results suggest that not all teaching practices are perceived as motivational in every context. In particular, practices related to *Comparison* and *Effort* are viewed differently depending on the sociocultural milieu in which teachers and students are located.

The addition of students' perceptions to the survey data represents an important contribution to our understanding of the subject. If researchers want to know how teachers can motivate students, it is important to gather data from everyone participating in the classroom environment. The results of this study indicate that students and teachers may have strikingly different perceptions of certain practices – especially those that are culturally dependent. As this study demonstrates, North American teachers could benefit from placing more emphasis on strategies related to *Task*. Students indicate that they are more motivated when they know why they are engaging in the tasks that the teacher assigns and how the task contributes to their learning. Also, if teachers in the USA are concerned about fostering student motivation, it appears they do not need to emphasize the importance of student effort as much as developing a relationship with the students and setting an example with their own positive behavior.

Overall, the results of this study, taken together with Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), indicate that language teachers should focus on

setting a positive example (*Teacher*), building a solid rapport with students (*Rapport*), creating a pleasant relaxed atmosphere in the classroom (*Climate*), and making sure that students understand the tasks in which they are engaging (*Task*). As teachers concentrate on teaching practices related to these macrostrategies, students will feel more motivated in the foreign language classroom.

Notes

1. Other strategies that were eliminated include 'help maintain the set of classroom rules that students accepted,' 'involve students in creating their own classroom rules,' and 'regularly review the classroom rules with your students.'
2. In the original studies, Dörnyei and colleagues used various statistical procedures to cluster the microstrategies. For purposes of this study, we used Dörnyei and Csizer's original categories.
3. 'Avoiding social comparisons' was not grouped with any other strategies in the 1998 Hungarian study nor in the present study. In the Taiwanese study, this strategy was included under the macrostrategy of 'create a pleasant classroom climate,' but data are available on its individual ranking.

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