Learner and teacher beliefs about motivational strategies in Chinese EFL classrooms: A social cognitive theory perspective

Xuejun Ye
Chengdu University of Technology, China; The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
Guangwei Hu*
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong

Abstract

Motivation is essential for second language (L2) learning, and teachers are primary influencers of learner motivation through their use of motivational strategies (MSs). Research indicates that learners' perceptions of the effectiveness of MSs are linked to their motivation. However, significant misalignments may exist between learner and teacher beliefs about the importance of these strategies, often due to teachers' insufficient understanding of learner expectations. Such misalignments can potentially undermine the effectiveness of motivational teaching. To better understand and address these issues, this survey-based study compared how Chinese junior secondary students (n = 1489) and teachers (n = 210) perceived the importance of 10 traditional and seven vision-based macro L2 MSs. Results revealed that both students and teachers considered the macro MSs important, with the traditional MSs rated higher than the vision-based ones. Teachers rated all strategies higher than students, with significant differences found for 12 macro MSs. The largest differences were observed for "promote learners' self-confidence" (d = 0.466), "proper teacher behavior" (d = 0.401), and "recognize students' effort" (d = 0.387). Notable gaps were also found in strategy priorities between the two groups. Drawing on social cognitive theory, we interpret students' highest-ranked strategies by examining their alignment with key personal factors, particularly sources of self-efficacy. This study extends social cognitive theory by using theoretical grounding to validate student strategy preferences and bridge the gap between learner beliefs and pedagogical legitimacy. The findings offer implications for enhancing L2 motivational teaching practices and teacher professional development.

Keywords: learner beliefs, teacher beliefs, L2 motivational strategies, social cognitive theory, L2 motivation, self-efficacy

1. Introduction

The pivotal role of motivation in second language (L2) learning is well-established in the literature (e.g., Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Papi & Hiver, 2022). Students with sufficient motivation can achieve optimal L2 outcomes even when faced with limitations in language aptitude or L2 learning conditions (Dörnyei, 1998). Teachers exert the most prominent influence on L2 motivation (Lamb, 2017) through motivational strategies (MSs), defined as "motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 28). Empirical research demonstrates that teachers' motivational teaching practices can yield a wide range of positive effects, including reduced L2 anxiety (Alrabai, 2015, 2025), increased L2 willingness to communicate (e.g., Al-Murtadha, 2019; Munezane, 2015), strengthened L2 self-confidence (e.g., Al-Murtadha, 2019; Alrabai, 2015), improved L2 learning experiences (e.g., Ye & Hu, 2025a; Rad & Alipour, 2023), enhanced L2 motivation (e.g., Al-Murtadha, 2025; Moskovsky et al., 2013), and heightened L2 achievement (e.g., Alrabai, 2016; Alrabai & Alamer, 2024). The effective implementation of MSs is particularly crucial in China's educational milieu, where English proficiency profoundly influences academic and social mobility. For example, English is a compulsory component of *Gaokao* (national college entrance examination), and passing the College English Test (CET) is commonly required for degree conferment (Shao & Gao, 2017). As research shows that L2 motivation and achievement mutually reinforce each other (Alamer & Alrabai, 2023), optimizing motivational teaching practices is essential for student success in this high-stakes context.

Despite the recognized importance of MSs, considerable misalignments exist between learner and teacher beliefs about MSs (Ruesch et al., 2012; Wong, 2014), as well as between learner beliefs and teacher practices (Deniz, 2010; Wong & Wong, 2017). For example, Wong (2014) found disagreement in 80% of the examined MSs, with only five strategies achieving consensus among all participants. Ruesch et al. (2012) documented significant differences in perceptions across three macro MSs. These mismatches may undermine the effectiveness of teachers' motivational efforts, as only MSs that students perceive as important directly influence their motivation and attitudes (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). To optimize motivational teaching practices, researchers and practitioners need empirical evidence regarding whether student and teacher beliefs align and which MSs students prioritize, as well as a theory-based understanding

of these prioritized MSs. Although research on beliefs about L2 MSs is growing, several gaps remain. First, few studies have examined these beliefs through established theoretical frameworks that could validate student preferences beyond subjective opinions. Second, vision-based MSs, which have shown promise in recent intervention studies (e.g., Ye & Hu, 2025a; Le-Thi et al., 2022), are seriously under-explored in existing belief research. Third, there is limited understanding of beliefs about L2 MSs among Chinese EFL learners and teachers, despite the crucial role of L2 English in this high-stakes context. This line of inquiry can contribute to evidence-based pedagogical recommendations and inform teacher professional development programs, given that teacher beliefs are malleable (Buehl & Beck, 2015). This study addresses these needs and gaps by examining Chinese junior secondary school students' and teachers' beliefs about the importance of L2 MSs and by providing an in-depth understanding of student preferences through the lens of social cognitive theory, particularly in relation to self-efficacy, a key construct of the theory.

2. Theoretical framework and literature review

2.1. Social cognitive theory as the conceptual lens

2.1.1. The triadic model

The theoretical framework guiding the present study is social cognitive theory (SCT), proposed by Bandura (1986). This triadic model posits that interactions among personal factors, environmental factors, and behaviors shape human functioning. In other words, learning is the outcome of the complex interplay among these factors. Central to this model is reciprocal determinism among behavior, environment, and personal factors, whereby each can both influence and be influenced by the other two (Bandura, 2009). Behavioral factors encompass learners' choices of activities, effort, persistence, achievement, and regulation of their environment (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Environmental influences comprise social-cultural factors that can affect learners' motivational processes and outcomes, such as instruction, feedback, rewards, and social models (Schunk, 2012; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Personal factors encompass learners' beliefs, thoughts, preferences, self-efficacy, social comparisons, values, attributions, outcome expectations, goals, and self-evaluations of progress (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020; Schunk & Usher, 2019). The framework provides a useful lens for examining how motivational teaching practices influence EFL learning motivation.

2.1.2. Self-efficacy

Perceived self-efficacy, a key personal factor in the triadic model (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020), refers to the extent to which individuals believe they can perform certain behaviors or achieve particular goals through personal effort (Bandura, 1997). Four sources of information contribute to the development of self-efficacy: performance accomplishments (mastery experiences), modeling (vicarious experiences or observational learning), social persuasion, and physiological/emotional states (Bandura, 1997, 2009; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020; Schunk & Usher, 2019). Previous studies indicate that performance accomplishments are the most influential source of self-efficacy across academic domains (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Self-efficacy can also be shaped by observing others, particularly respected models such as teachers (Bandura, 1997, 2009). Social persuasion from significant others, such as teachers' positive verbal feedback, can further enhance self-efficacy. Finally, learners' emotional states, such as anxiety and enjoyment, can influence their perceived self-efficacy in specific learning situations. Self-efficacy is also associated with other important personal factors, such as attributions, outcome expectations, and goals and self-evaluations of progress (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Improvements in these areas can enhance self-efficacy. Furthermore, research shows that self-efficacy is linked to motivation and achievement (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016; Usher, 2015), making it a central construct for understanding the potential effectiveness of L2 MSs.

2.1.3. Alignment between L2 MSs and SCT

Within SCT's triadic model, motivational strategies function as environmental factors that teachers deploy to influence students' personal factors, particularly self-efficacy, which in turn foster motivated behaviors such as increased effort, persistence, and achievement. By implementing specific motivational teaching practices, teachers can effectively address Bandura's four sources of self-efficacy development. For example, when teachers "design tasks within learners' abilities for experiencing regular success" and "teach various learning techniques," they enable students to accumulate direct evidence of their capabilities, thereby providing mastery experiences. Some MSs (e.g., "demonstrate enthusiasm for English" and "provide exposure to role models") can create observational learning opportunities where students witness successful language performance, fostering vicarious experiences. To address social persuasion, effective MSs include "noticing students' contributions and progress, and providing positive feedback" and "telling students they can succeed." These verbal cues deliver credible messages about student capability, which can bolster their self-efficacy. Additionally, teachers can cultivate positive emotional states

by “showing respect, acceptance and care for each student” and “establishing an environment free from embarrassment and ridicule.” These MSs help reduce anxiety and minimize negative physiological arousal that might otherwise undermine students’ confidence in their language learning capabilities.

2.1.4. Cultural contextualization of SCT

While SCT provides a robust framework for understanding MSs, its application in the Chinese educational context requires consideration of distinctive cultural factors that may moderate how these strategies function within the triadic model. Chinese education is profoundly influenced by its Confucian heritage, which emphasizes respect for authority, collectivism, modesty, and diligence (Hu, 2002; Bond et al., 2012; Hennebry-Leung & Gao, 2023). These cultural dimensions can significantly shape how sources of self-efficacy operate in Chinese classrooms. For instance, in the Confucian tradition, teachers are regarded as moral and intellectual authorities, suggesting that social persuasion and vicarious experiences may exert a heightened influence when provided by teachers. Additionally, the Chinese cultural emphasis on effort (Li et al., 2024) aligns well with SCT’s focus on attributional feedback that encourages learners to connect outcomes to controllable factors rather than fixed abilities. China’s exam-oriented environment (Shao & Gao, 2017) may also shape personal factors within the SCT framework, particularly influencing students’ outcome expectations, goals, and self-evaluations of progress as they pursue English proficiency for academic and career opportunities.

This cultural contextualization makes the SCT framework particularly valuable for analyzing student-preferred L2 MSs in the Chinese EFL context. When student-recommended MSs demonstrably address the four sources of self-efficacy development and related personal factors, there is compelling theoretical support for viewing these preferences as legitimate pedagogical recommendations rather than merely subjective opinions. Analyzing student preferences through the lens of SCT enables a systematic examination of how specific environmental factors (e.g., motivational teaching practices) mediate the development of personal factors (e.g., self-efficacy) to foster desirable behavioral outcomes (e.g., motivated behaviors) within this cultural-specific context.

2.2. L2 MSs and validity evidence

To equip English teachers with actionable techniques for overcoming challenges in motivating students, Dörnyei (2001) developed a taxonomy of 102 MSs organized within 35 broader

categories, which align with four sequential phases of motivational development: creating basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 29). These strategies are recognized as traditional MSs (Dörnyei, 2014a; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Numerous studies on traditional L2 MSs have been conducted across various contexts, including Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), North America (Ruesch et al., 2012), South Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013), Iran (Tavakoli et al., 2018), and Chinese Mainland (Ye & Hu, 2024). These investigations have yielded compelling evidence that while certain strategies demonstrate universal applicability across cultural boundaries, others exhibit considerable cultural specificity. For example, "proper teacher behavior" has consistently been ranked by teachers as the most important strategy across Hungary, Taiwan, South Korea, Iran, and Chinese Mainland. Conversely, "recognizing student efforts" was ranked second by teachers in Taiwan and third by teachers in Chinese Mainland, yet only twelfth by Hungarian teachers. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) attributed this discrepancy to the greater emphasis on effort in Asian educational culture compared to Western contexts.

The emergence of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS, Dörnyei, 2009) marked a paradigm shift in both conceptual frameworks and pedagogical applications for L2 motivation. This framework integrates the ideal L2 self (an envisioned identity as a competent L2 speaker), the ought-to L2 self (attributes required to satisfy external demands and prevent adverse consequences), and the L2 learning experience (contextual factors arising from the immediate environment, including instructor behavior and classroom atmosphere). The two self-dimensions are future self-guides whose motivational influence is triggered through vision—the cognitive rehearsal of successful language learning scenarios (Dörnyei, 2009). Research demonstrates that elaborate future self-representations increase motivation and promote concrete action planning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). To harness this motivational potential, Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014, p.32) formulated a vision-centered teaching framework with six elements: creating, strengthening, substantiating, operationalizing, maintaining, and counterbalancing the vision. Drawing on the principles and ideas in this book, Ye and Hu (2024) developed and validated 44 vision-based MSs. Dörnyei (2014a) argues that optimal motivation requires enhancing both self-guides and the L2 learning experience through vision-centered and traditional motivational teaching, respectively.

Empirical research across diverse contexts, including Saudi Arabia (Alrabai, 2016; Moskovsky et al., 2013), Iran (Mesgarshahr & Abdollahzadeh, 2014), Yemen (Al-Murtadha, 2019, 2020, 2025), Japan (Munezane, 2015), and China (Ye & Hu, 2025a, 2025b), has documented the effectiveness of both types of motivational teaching. Traditional MSs have led to significant improvements in students' motivational intensity (Moskovsky et al., 2013), language-related gains (Alrabai, 2016; Alrabai & Alamer, 2024; Le-Thi et al., 2022), willingness to communicate (Ye & Hu, 2025b; Mesgarshahr & Abdollahzadeh, 2014), L2 self-confidence (Alrabai, 2015; Ye & Hu, 2025b), and the three L2MSS components (Ye & Hu, 2025a), while also significantly reducing L2 anxiety (Ye & Hu, 2025b; Alrabai, 2015, 2025). Similarly, vision-based motivational interventions have yielded positive results, including enhanced motivational intensity (Al-Murtadha, 2025; Magid & Chan, 2012; Safdari, 2021), language-related improvements (Le-Thi et al., 2022; Rad & Alipour, 2023), greater willingness to communicate (Ye & Hu, 2025b; Al-Murtadha, 2019; Munezane, 2015), higher L2 self-confidence (Ye & Hu, 2025b; Magid & Chan, 2012; Al-Murtadha, 2020), enhanced ideal L2 self (Al-Murtadha, 2025; Ye & Hu, 2025a; Mackay, 2019; Magid & Chan, 2012; Safdari, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019; Rad & Alipour, 2023), improved L2 learning experience (Ye & Hu, 2025a; Al-Murtadha, 2025; Mackay, 2019; Sato & Lara, 2019; Rad & Alipour, 2023), and reduced L2 anxiety (Ye & Hu, 2025b). However, the interventions have produced mixed effects on the ought-to L2 self (Ye & Hu, 2025a; Mackay, 2019; Rad & Alipour, 2023; Safdari, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019). Collectively, these studies provide robust validation for both motivational frameworks while also highlighting the importance of cultural sensitivity in their implementation.

2.3. Learner and teacher beliefs about L2 MSs

In addition to investigating the effects of L2 MSs, another line of inquiry focuses on learner and teacher beliefs about these strategies, and holds considerable practical value. Teacher beliefs, while sometimes unconscious, profoundly influence classroom decisions and instructional practices (Kagan, 1992). As the primary implementers of MSs, teachers' beliefs about the importance of specific strategies inevitably shape their motivational priorities. The malleable nature of these beliefs (Buehl & Beck, 2015) suggests that they can be reshaped through awareness of student perspectives, thereby transforming classroom practices to better serve student needs. Learner beliefs are equally significant in shaping educational outcomes, acting as driving forces behind learning behaviors (Kalaja et al., 2015) and influencing learning processes and outcomes

(Kartchava & Ammar, 2014). Consequently, investigating student perceptions of MS importance can provide valuable insights into how teachers might more effectively address their students' motivational needs. Simultaneous examination of both stakeholder groups' perspectives is crucial for identifying potential disconnects between student motivational needs and teacher priorities. When such misalignments occur, they can seriously compromise the effects of teachers' motivational efforts.

Extant research on teacher and learner beliefs about L2 MSs has taken three perspectives: (1) direct comparison of learner and teacher beliefs about MSs (Ruesch et al., 2012; Wong, 2014); (2) examination of learner beliefs alongside teacher MS practices (Deniz, 2010; Wong & Wong, 2017); (3) investigation of teacher beliefs in relation to their reported MS practices (Ye & Hu, 2024; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013; Tavakoli et al., 2018). Given the primary focus of the present study on learner beliefs, this review emphasizes research that has incorporated learner beliefs about MSs. Studies comparing learner beliefs with teacher practices have revealed patterns of misalignment. For example, Deniz (2010) surveyed 179 Turkish university students regarding their perceptions of the importance of 48 MSs and their perceived implementation frequency by their teachers. The analysis revealed that 22 micro MSs were perceived as significantly underused relative to students' importance ratings. Similarly, Wong and Wong's (2017) investigation in Hong Kong secondary schools compared 50 English teachers' reported use of 10 macro MSs with 150 students' evaluations of the usefulness of the same strategies. Their findings highlighted significant underuse of "create a pleasant classroom climate" and significant overuse of "familiarize learners with L2-related values," suggesting substantial gaps between teacher practices and student expectations. Studies focusing directly on learner and teacher beliefs have also documented striking discrepancies. Ruesch et al. (2012) analyzed perceptions of 17 macro MSs among 30 language teachers and 126 students in North America, finding significant differences in three macro MSs: presenting tasks properly, helping students realize that effort is needed for success, and avoiding any comparison of students to one another. Wong (2014) extended this investigation to Hong Kong by examining the ratings of 25 MSs across three participant groups: 10 English teachers, 90 students, and the researcher. Notably, consensus was found for only five MSs among all participants, indicating disagreement for 80% of the examined MSs.

2.4. Purpose of this study

The afore-mentioned misalignments between learner beliefs and teacher beliefs/practices may reflect teachers' insufficient understanding of student expectations, which can hinder the implementation of effective motivational teaching practices and student-centered pedagogy. Ha (2023) demonstrated that raising teacher awareness of student beliefs can effectively reshape their own beliefs to better align with student needs. This alignment is particularly crucial given the established connection between student motivation and their perceived effectiveness of MSs (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008).

Despite the valuable contributions of existing studies, critical gaps remain in the literature that might limit practical application. First, while previous studies have documented the discrepancies between student beliefs and teacher beliefs/practices (Deniz, 2010; Wong, 2014) and explored contributing factors such as teachers' workload constraints (Wong & Wong, 2017) and generational gap (Ruesch et al., 2012), no extant research has systematically examined student beliefs about MSs, particularly in relation to established theoretical frameworks. This absence of theoretical validation leaves practitioners uncertain whether student preferences reflect genuine pedagogical priorities or merely uninformed opinions, potentially undermining learner voices in pedagogical decision-making. As discussed earlier, applying SCT could provide the theoretically-informed validation needed to address this gap.

Second, previous studies have relied exclusively on traditional MSs, leaving vision-based MSs underexplored in learner belief research. Given the mounting evidence for the effectiveness of vision-related motivational teaching practice (e.g., Al-Murtadha, 2025; Ye & Hu, 2025a, 2025b; Le-Thi et al., 2022; Magid & Chan, 2012; Sato & Lara, 2019; Rad & Alipour, 2023), understanding students' perceived importance of vision-based MSs becomes essential. Such insights can inform and potentially transform teachers' beliefs about vision-based MSs and their corresponding practices.

Third, methodological limitations in previous research include relatively small sample sizes, with key studies featuring limited participant pools (e.g., 10 teachers in Wong, 2014; 30 teachers in Ruesch et al., 2012), which may restrict the generalizability of findings. Furthermore, there is a dearth of studies examining learner and teacher beliefs about MSs in Chinese Mainland, despite it having the largest EFL learning population. This gap is particularly concerning given the distinctive features of this context, including its exam-oriented culture and large class sizes. A theoretically-driven understanding of L2 MSs is especially valuable for Chinese secondary school

contexts, where teachers are key shapers of student motivation (Lamb, 2017), yet L2 motivation research at the secondary level remains underrepresented (Hennebry-Leung & Gao, 2023; You & Dörnyei, 2016).

To address these gaps, the present study set out to answer the following overarching research question:

Are there differences between student and teacher beliefs about the importance of traditional and vision-based MSs? If so, what are they?

3. Methodology

3.1. Context and participants

This study was conducted in a district of Chengdu, the capital city of Sichuan Province in southwestern China. It focused on the junior secondary school context, where English is a mandatory subject, with approximately five to seven English classes per week and typical class sizes of 40 to 50 students. Since English is learned as a foreign language in China, instruction occurs primarily within classroom settings, with limited exposure to authentic English-speaking environments outside of school. The educational context is characterized by significant academic pressure due to the senior secondary school entrance examination (*Zhongkao*), which is taken after three years of junior secondary education. Examination results determine students' placement in either vocational schools or academic senior secondary schools, with vocational pathways generally viewed less favorably due to limited prospects for social mobility. Among academic senior secondary schools, a small proportion are designated as "provincial demonstration schools," which offer highly competitive admission and provide greater opportunities for matriculation into top universities. This high-stakes testing environment creates intense focus on academic achievement among students, parents, teachers, and school administrators.

To ensure a representative sample, we employed criterion sampling to select four schools representing different achievement levels: three public schools with high, average, and low English performance based on city-wide examination results, and one private foreign language school. Both the high-achieving public school and the private foreign language school hold the "provincial demonstration school" status. Within each school, three classes from each grade level (Grades 7-9) were selected to represent varying English proficiency levels (i.e., high, average, and low). In total, 36 classes comprising 1,489 students (female = 728, male = 761; aged 12-15 years) completed paper-and-pencil questionnaires during class time with assistance from their English

teachers. For teacher participants, convenience sampling was employed due to the relatively small population of English teachers in the district. All English teachers attending a professional development session were invited to complete an online questionnaire, resulting in 210 returned questionnaires (female = 188, male = 22). Before data collection, all procedures received institutional approval, and informed consent was obtained from all schools, teachers, students, and their parents/guardians.

3.2. Instruments

A student and a teacher questionnaire featuring identical items with different salutations were used for data collection (see Appendix 1). Both questionnaires employed a 6-point Likert scale, with anchors ranging from 1 (very unimportant) to 6 (very important) to assess participants' perceived importance of specific L2 MSs. Each questionnaire was structured into three sections. The first section included 48 traditional L2 MSs organized into 10 subscales (i.e., macro MSs), adapted from Cheng and Dörnyei (2007). The second section comprised 44 vision-based L2 MSs forming seven subscales, constructed by Ye and Hu (2024) based on the principles and suggestions for vision-centered teaching practice outlined by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014). The final section collected participants' background information, such as teachers' years of teaching experience, teachers' and students' gender, their age, etc.

To establish content validity, we conducted initial piloting following Dörnyei and Taguchi's (2010) recommendations. This process involved gathering feedback from multiple stakeholder groups. Subject matter experts, including doctoral students in applied linguistics and practicing English teachers in secondary schools, evaluated items for construct representation. Members of the target population (e.g., junior secondary school students representing different achievement levels) were invited to assess item comprehensibility and relevance. Additionally, individuals without specialized knowledge in the field helped identify potentially unclear wording or unnecessary jargon. Feedback from this diverse panel allowed us to refine the questionnaires.

The refined instruments were then subjected to further validation through a pilot study with 517 students and 173 teachers. Principal component analyses using direct oblimin rotation were conducted to examine the factor structures of the 17 subscales. The obtained factor structures generally confirmed those originally expected, indicating good construct validity across subscales. However, the "present tasks properly" dimension adopted from Cheng and Dörnyei's original

questionnaire yielded a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of only .500, due to its restricted item pool (n = 2). To address this limitation, two additional items were incorporated into this subscale for the main study, resulting in acceptable validity statistics. Internal consistency statistics for both questionnaires derived from the main study data are presented in Tables 1 and 2 (see Appendices 2 and 3 for the correlational matrices among the subscales).

Table 1. Subscales of the traditional MSs and their internal consistency estimates

		Cronbach's alpha	
Subscale	Item	Student	Teacher
Proper teacher behavior	5	0.798	0.800
Recognize students' effort	4	0.737	0.742
Promote learners' self-confidence	5	0.834	0.839
Create a pleasant classroom atmosphere	4	0.640	0.643
Present tasks properly	4	0.742	0.747
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	4	0.769	0.769
Make the learning tasks stimulating	6	0.806	0.812
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	7	0.827	0.817
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	5	0.785	0.790
Promote learner autonomy	6	0.856	0.853

Table 2. Subscales of the vision-based MSs and their internal consistency estimates

		Cronbach's alpha	
Subscale	Item	Student	Teacher
Show care for and trust in students	6	0.852	0.855
Provide guidance on achieving an ideal L2 self-image	7	0.897	0.899
Establish realistic beliefs about L2 learning	7	0.882	0.884
Provide exposure to role models	5	0.830	0.827
Provide tasters of desired L2 future states	6	0.871	0.875
Incorporate the ought-to L2 self-image	7	0.902	0.901
Establish feared L2 self-image	7	0.894	0.890

3.3. Data analysis

To answer our research question, we performed both inferential and descriptive statistical analyses on the questionnaire data. We first tested the assumptions for the planned parametric tests. Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests indicated that the data significantly departed from normality for all subscales (p < .05). However, given our large sample sizes (n = 1,489 students; n = 210 teachers),

we proceeded with parametric testing, as the independent-samples *t*-test is robust to violations of normality with large samples (Lumley et al., 2002). Levene's tests revealed significant heterogeneity of variance between the groups for all subscales ($p < .05$). Therefore, we used Welch's adjusted *t*-test values and degrees of freedom for all comparisons (Delacre et al., 2017). Welch's independent-samples *t*-tests were conducted on all questionnaire subscales (i.e., ten subscales from traditional MSs and seven subscales from vision-based MSs) to identify specific macro MSs where significant perception gaps existed. The alpha level was set at 0.05 (two-tailed). Since multiple *t*-tests were performed, the Bonferroni correction was applied to control for Type I error inflation, resulting in adjusted significance levels of $\alpha = .005$ (.05/10) for traditional MSs and $\alpha = .007$ (.05/7) for vision-based MSs. Effect sizes were measured by Cohen's *d*, with criteria of 0.2, 0.5, and 0.8 representing small, medium, and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). Descriptive analyses were performed by calculating mean scores for each subscale to establish the rank orderings of both traditional and vision-based MSs as perceived by students and teachers. This revealed prioritization patterns between the two groups.

4. Findings

4.1. Traditional motivational strategies

Welch's *t*-tests revealed statistically significant differences between student and teacher beliefs across all 10 macro strategies (see Table 3). Teachers consistently rated the importance of traditional MSs significantly higher than students for every macro strategy, with effect sizes ranging from small ($d = 0.255$) to approaching medium ($d = 0.466$), indicating their greater recognition of these macro strategies. The largest differences emerged for "promote learners' self-confidence" ($d = 0.466$), followed by "proper teacher behavior" ($d = 0.401$) and "recognize students' effort" ($d = 0.387$). The last column in Table 3 provides the eta squared values, which measure the proportion of variance in the outcome explained by the differences between students and teachers. Despite these differences, both groups demonstrated strong endorsement of traditional MSs, with mean scores predominantly exceeding 5 on the 6-point scale, indicating that both students and teachers viewed these macro strategies as highly important for L2 motivation.

Table 4 presents the comparative rankings of traditional MSs by students and teachers. The two groups demonstrated strong agreement regarding the top three MSs. Specifically, students prioritized "proper teacher behavior" as the most important strategy, followed by "recognize students' effort" (2nd) and "promote learners' self-confidence" (3rd). Teachers shared the same

top priority, also ranking "proper teacher behavior" first, while reversing the order of the latter two strategies. Differences also emerged in mid-range rankings. Students ranked "present tasks properly" (4th vs. 5th), "make the learning tasks stimulating" (6th vs. 7th), and "create a pleasant classroom atmosphere" (7th vs. 8th) higher than teachers. Conversely, teachers viewed "promote group cohesiveness and group norms" (4th vs. 5th) and "increase learners' goal-orientedness" (6th vs. 8th) as more important than students did. Both groups concurred on the least prioritized strategies, with "promote learner autonomy" and "familiarize learners with L2-related values" ranking ninth and tenth, respectively. This consensus suggests that these strategies were perceived as less central to effective motivational teaching practices by both groups.

4.2. Vision-based motivational strategies

Table 5 summarizes the results of Welch's *t*-tests conducted to determine differences between student and teacher beliefs about seven vision-based macro MSs. After adjusting the alpha level for multiple comparisons ($\alpha = .007$), significant between-group differences were found for only two macro strategies: "show care for and trust in students" and "establish realistic beliefs about L2 learning," both with small effect sizes ($d = 0.279$; $d = 0.219$). Teachers attached greater importance to these macro strategies than students did, suggesting greater cognizance of their motivational value. No significant differences were detected for the remaining five macro strategies. Consistent with the findings for traditional MSs, the relatively high mean scores given by both groups (ranging from 4.64 to 5.23) evidenced widespread positive attitudes toward vision-based MSs.

The rankings of vision-based MSs revealed alignment between the two groups on three macro strategies. Specifically, students and teachers unanimously ranked "show care for and trust in students" as the most important vision-based strategy (see Table 6). In addition, the two groups showed perfect agreement on the least prioritized strategies: "incorporate the ought-to L2 self-image" (6th) and "establish feared L2 self-image" (7th). Divergent perspectives were observed for the mid-range rankings, mirroring patterns found for traditional MSs. Students prioritized "provide guidance on achieving an ideal L2 self-image" considerably more than teachers did (2nd vs. 5th), reflecting the higher value students placed on practical support for realizing their ideal L2 self-images. Despite ranking "provide tasters of desired L2 future states" slightly lower than teachers did (3rd vs. 2nd), the relatively high rating students gave to this macro strategy indicated their appreciation for opportunities to experience their envisioned L2 identities. Meanwhile, teachers

attached greater importance to “establish realistic beliefs about L2 learning” (3rd vs. 4th) and “provide exposure to role models” (4th vs. 5th) than students did.

Table 3. Results of Welch's *t*-tests on student and teacher beliefs about traditional MSs

Macro strategy	Student *M* (*SD*)	Teacher *M* (*SD*)	*t*	*df*	*p*	*d* [95% CI]	η^2
Proper teacher behavior	5.25 (0.74)	5.50 (0.51)	-6.324	344	.000	0.401 [0.212, 0.502]	0.104
Recognize students' effort	5.15 (0.80)	5.41 (0.55)	-6.122	345	.000	0.387 [0.120, 0.489]	0.098
Promote learners' self-confidence	5.11 (0.81)	5.43 (0.54)	-7.488	357	.000	0.466 [0.265, 0.555]	0.136
Create a pleasant classroom atmosphere	5.00 (0.83)	5.19 (0.59)	-4.028	336	.000	0.258 [0.087, 0.376]	0.046
Present tasks properly	5.08 (0.80)	5.30 (0.60)	-4.948	322	.000	0.325 [0.151, 0.441]	0.071
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	4.98 (0.85)	5.25 (0.61)	-5.781	335	.000	0.372 [0.189, 0.479]	0.091
Make the learning tasks stimulating	5.01 (0.86)	5.22 (0.61)	-4.259	341	.000	0.271 [0.097, 0.387]	0.050
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	4.83 (0.85)	5.09 (0.60)	-5.554	343	.000	0.353 [0.169, 0.459]	0.083
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	5.04 (0.85)	5.31 (0.58)	-6.024	354	.000	0.376 [0.187, 0.477]	0.093
Promote learner autonomy	4.95 (0.86)	5.14 (0.63)	-3.928	330	.000	0.255 [0.085, 0.374]	0.045

Table 4. Student and teacher rankings of traditional MSs

Macro strategy	Student beliefs	Teacher beliefs
Proper teacher behavior	1	1
Recognize students' effort	2	3
Promote learners' self-confidence	3	2
Present tasks properly	4	5
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	5	4
Make the learning tasks stimulating	6	7
Create a pleasant classroom atmosphere	7	8
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	8	6
Promote learner autonomy	9	9
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	10	10

Table 5. Results of Welch's *t*-tests on student and teacher beliefs about vision-based MSs

Macro strategy	Student *M* (*SD*)	Teacher *M* (*SD*)	*t*	*df*	*p*	*d* [95% CI]	η^2
Show care for and trust in students	5.02 (0.86)	5.23 (0.64)	-4.271	327	.000	0.279 [0.108, 0.397]	0.053
Provide guidance on achieving an ideal L2 self-image	4.99 (0.88)	5.13 (0.70)	-2.667	310	.008	0.180 [0.021, 0.311]	0.022
Establish realistic beliefs about L2 learning	4.96 (0.87)	5.13 (0.67)	-3.303	317	.001	0.219 [0.056, 0.346]	0.033
Provide exposure to role models	4.87 (0.95)	5.02 (0.73)	-2.589	319	.010	0.171 [0.012, 0.301]	0.021
Provide tasters of desired L2 future states	5.00 (0.89)	5.12 (0.75)	-2.245	299	.025	0.155 [0.001, 0.290]	0.017
Incorporate the ought-to L2 self-image	4.82 (0.99)	4.92 (0.81)	-1.653	304	.099	0.113 [0.040, 0.249]	0.009
Establish feared L2 self-image	4.64 (1.09)	4.68 (0.91)	-0.585	300	.559	0.040 [0.107, 0.182]	0.001

Table 6. Student and teacher rankings of vision-based MSs

Macro strategy	Student beliefs	Teacher beliefs
Show care for and trust in students	1	1
Provide guidance on achieving an ideal L2 self-image	2	5
Provide tasters of desired L2 future states	3	2
Establish realistic beliefs about L2 learning	4	3
Provide exposure to role models	5	4
Incorporate the ought-to L2 self-image	6	6
Establish feared L2 self-image	7	7

5. Discussion

This study examined Chinese junior secondary school students' and teachers' perceived importance of both traditional and vision-based L2 MSs. The findings reveal that both groups attributed high importance to both types of MSs, as evidenced by their consistently high mean scores. These results align with previous studies, which have similarly documented widespread endorsement of L2 MSs among teachers (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013; Tavakoli et al., 2018) and students (Deniz, 2010; Ruesch et al., 2012) across various L2 contexts. Notably, both groups gave higher scores to traditional MSs than to vision-based MSs, indicating greater perceived importance of the former and underscoring the continued need to utilize these macro strategies in motivating students to learn English. This finding corroborates Dörnyei's (2014b) argument that vision-based teaching practices should not invalidate traditional MSs, as they remain fundamental to shaping L2 learning experiences by bridging the gap between visualized and actual experiences.

Another major finding is that teachers consistently rated all macro strategies higher than students did, with significant differences observed for all 10 traditional and two vision-based macro MSs. Teachers' consistently higher ratings may have stemmed from several factors. First, they possess professional knowledge about pedagogical practices that students lack, which may allow them to better recognize the motivational potential of various macro strategies. Second, social desirability bias might influence teachers to rate strategies more positively, as acknowledging their importance aligns with professional expectations. Third, within traditional Confucian values, where teachers occupy positions of high respect and moral authority (Hu, 2002), teachers may feel a greater responsibility to recognize and implement MSs. This heightened recognition of the importance of MSs by teachers likely establishes essential prerequisites for implementing effective motivational teaching practices.

Based on SCT's triadic model, we predicted that effective MSs would function as environmental factors capable of enhancing students' personal factors, particularly self-efficacy, which would in turn foster students' motivated behaviors. Our findings provide empirical support for this theoretical framework. Analysis of students' top-ranked strategy, "proper teacher behavior," suggests its operation within the triadic model, where it can exert motivational influence through two critical personal factors (i.e., perceived self-efficacy and outcome expectations). Specifically, this macro strategy may enhance self-efficacy mainly through emotional states and modeling. Its

two constituent micro strategies (i.e., *establishing good relationships* and *demonstrating respect, acceptance, and care*) can create emotionally safe environments wherein students develop enhanced perceptions of their capability to achieve success (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). The micro strategy of *authentic self-representation* helps establish teacher credibility, which is essential for observational learning, since students tend to model behaviors exhibited by respected and trusted sources (Bandura, 1997, 2009). Furthermore, two additional micro strategies arguably provide opportunities for observational learning. When teachers *demonstrate enthusiasm for teaching English* and *communicate personal beliefs about the meaningful and enriching nature of English learning*, they are likely to create conditions in which their motivation may ignite similar motivation in their students (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Through these deliberate behaviors, teachers can model passion for English learning while illustrating that meaningful engagement is both attainable and rewarding, thereby enhancing students' perceived self-efficacy and fostering positive outcome expectations regarding English learning (Bandura, 2009; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Such enthusiasm can also evoke positive emotions and increase classroom engagement among students (Dewaele & Li, 2021).

Our SCT-based prediction that effective strategies would enhance personal factors is further supported by the high ranking of "recognize students' effort" and "promote learners' self-confidence." A close look at these MSs suggests they can function synergistically to enhance student motivation by targeting self-efficacy development, primarily through three sources: mastery experiences, social persuasion, and emotional states. As the most reliable predictor of self-efficacy (Usher & Pajares, 2008), mastery experiences may be accumulated through three micro strategies. *Teaching students various learning techniques* is likely to help them navigate difficulties and experience success through enhanced strategic capability, ultimately boosting their L2 self-confidence (Dörnyei, 2001). By *ensuring grades reflect both achievement and effort*, students can gain tangible evidence of competence development. When coupled with *designing tasks within learners' abilities for experiencing regular success*, students may link their achievements to growing competence and strategic knowledge. Such consistent positive performance outcomes likely help students continuously build their academic achievement history, which constitutes the most common mastery experience connected to self-efficacy (Li et al., 2025). These performance accomplishments may gain additional potency when paired with social persuasion through teacher recognition, which transforms achievements into validated evidence of

competence. As the most credible sources of social persuasion (Ahn et al., 2017), teachers can demonstrate attention to student progress and provide ongoing persuasive messages about student capability through three micro MSs: *recognize students' effort and achievement, notice students' contributions and progress with positive feedback,* and *express clear belief in students' task capabilities*. The persuasiveness may increase when affirmative feedback is provided frequently (Schunk & Usher, 2019) through *monitoring accomplishments and celebrating any success*. Perceived self-efficacy could be further strengthened through attributional feedback that *encourages learners to attribute failure to effort rather than ability*. Such positive retrospective self-evaluation is likely to contribute significantly to motivation (Hennebry-Leung & Hu, 2023), as learners who attribute poor outcomes to manageable factors show better performance and sustained efficacy beliefs (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Finally, self-efficacy beliefs can be cultivated through the emotional dimension by *emphasizing meaningful communication over pronunciation and grammatical accuracy*. This classroom norm nurtures supportive classroom climates (Dörnyei & Muir, 2019), which can reduce L2 anxiety and increase self-confidence (Ye & Hu, 2025b).

Close examination of the most important vision-based macro strategy perceived by students (i.e., "show care for and trust in students") also supported our theoretical prediction. This strategy likely enhances motivation by strengthening self-efficacy through two sources: emotional states and social persuasion. Given that students' possible self-images stem from developmental and contextual concerns (Oyserman & James, 2009), *understanding students' past experiences and future goals* may allow teachers to facilitate meaningful vision-construction grounded in learners' current realities. Such a thorough understanding may set the groundwork for a vision-centered motivational program (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). When teachers *care about students' emotional experiences with English learning*, they can create positive emotional states that support self-efficacy development while establishing the trust necessary for successful social persuasion (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Building on this foundation, by *consistently telling students they can succeed* and *showing confidence in their perseverance and triumph,* teachers can deliver persuasive messages that may directly shape learners' self-efficacy beliefs. Since students' self-efficacy is dynamic (Li et al., 2025; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020) and they often develop progressively pessimistic views of their abilities due to increasingly demanding academic standards (Lee & Seo, 2021), *encouraging students who face obstacles* becomes indispensable.

This form of social persuasion likely helps discouraged learners continue pursuing their ideal L2 selves during critical moments when motivation may fluctuate.

The highly-ranked macro strategy "provide guidance on achieving an ideal L2 self-image" is similarly consistent with our theoretical prediction. Within SCT, this strategy can promote motivated behaviors by primarily addressing two personal factors: goals and self-evaluation of progress, and outcome expectations. The micro strategy of *helping students construct future ideal L2-related selves* may enable them to develop long-term goals that provide motivational direction for daily learning activities (Bandura, 1986, 1997). To make these broader goals actionable, teachers can *help students identify step-by-step small goals*. This goal decomposition process can activate students' self-evaluation of progress (Zimmerman et al., 2015). When students perceive discrepancies between their intended goals and actual progress, they are likely to respond by investing greater effort and showing increased persistence (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Conversely, when students recognize tangible progress, their self-efficacy may also grow (Locke, 2018; Schunk, 2012; Schunk & Usher, 2019). By *offering one-on-one guidance on action plans*, teachers may create emotional safety for students to share personal aspirations while ensuring they develop realistic and tailored implementation plans. This individualized attention can communicate to students that they are valued, possibly leading to greater engagement in English class (Ye & Hu, 2024). This supportive process can be conducive to constructing detailed visions of successful English use alongside corresponding goals and action plans, which may empower students to develop clear expectations about their potential accomplishments. To reinforce these positive outcome expectations, teachers can *help students develop achievement strategies* that demonstrate concrete pathways forward. Moreover, when potential setbacks arise, teachers can *help students develop strategies for overcoming obstacles* and *encourage them to re-imagine their future images* to preserve positive expectations.

Another macro strategy, "provide tasters of desired future states," also aligns with our SCT framework. Within the triadic model, this strategy likely builds learner motivational capacity by bridging current abilities with desired outcomes through two personal factors: self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Specifically, this macro strategy offers experiential learning opportunities for students to *practice their ideal self-images as competent English users both in the classroom* and *in authentic L2 environments*, potentially providing direct mastery experiences in meaningful contexts where students may witness their actual performance and capability development. These

successful encounters are likely reinforced when teachers *encourage students' authentic self-expression in language tasks,* which may create favorable physiological and emotional conditions that reduce performance anxiety and thus support continued self-efficacy development (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Simultaneously, by *encouraging visualization of competent English use* and *feelings associated with achieving successful outcomes*, teachers may allow learners to mentally rehearse positive scenarios and develop positive outcome expectations that their learning efforts will yield valuable results. When teachers *create scenarios to experience L2 cultural knowledge*, they can demonstrate the broader cultural and intellectual rewards of language learning. Through these combined experiences, both actual and envisioned success, students may develop stronger beliefs that sustained effort will produce desired outcomes, enabling motivated behaviors to persist even during phases of slow progress (Schunk & Usher, 2019).

6. Conclusion

This study investigated the beliefs of 1,489 Chinese secondary school students and 210 teachers regarding traditional and vision-based L2 macro MSs. Questionnaire responses revealed that both participant groups perceived MSs as important, though they favored traditional MSs over vision-based MSs. Teachers gave higher importance ratings to all strategies compared to students, with significant differences observed for 12 of the 17 macro MSs examined. Perception gaps also emerged between the two groups regarding strategy priorities. Examination of the top-ranked MSs by students through an SCT lens suggests that these strategies target all four sources essential for developing students' perceived self-efficacy and other personal factors connected to self-efficacy.

These findings have important implications for L2 motivational teaching. First, the prioritization of "proper teacher behavior" by both students and teachers echoes previous research that highlights teacher modeling as fundamental to L2 acquisition (Muir et al., 2021), suggesting this macro strategy may warrant primary attention from practitioners. Teachers could benefit from developing an awareness that their enthusiasm for English can greatly shape their students' learning motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). This influence carries particular weight in the Chinese cultural context, where teachers traditionally serve as role models (Hu, 2002). Second, our findings revealed that teachers prioritized "promote learners' self-confidence," whereas students placed greater value on "recognize students' effort." This perception gap is noteworthy given that junior secondary students often lack sufficient developmental maturity for accurate self-evaluation and may rely more on external feedback regarding their academic performance (Usher

& Pajares, 2008). In response, teachers may consider affirming students' effort and achievement regularly to help develop their self-efficacy. The focus on effort recognition would also align with non-Western cultural values that emphasize diligence as a pathway to achievement (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Third, our results showed that teachers appeared to undervalue the vision-based macro strategy "provide guidance on achieving an ideal L2 self-image" compared to students (5th vs. 2nd). This difference likely stems from the exam-oriented culture prevalent in China, which often emphasizes immediate academic outcomes over the development of long-term ideal selves. Since the fundamental purpose of education transcends mere productivity to encompass whole-person development (Hennebry-Leung & Hu, 2023), teachers should consider complementing exam-centered teaching with practices that nurture students' ideal selves and support meaningful goal attainment.

Fourth, looking more broadly at our findings through an SCT perspective suggests that the highest-rated strategies identified by students share a common focus on enhancing perceived self-efficacy. Given that students with high perceived self-efficacy set more ambitious goals, employ more effective learning strategies, demonstrate greater resilience, and attain better academic performance (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016), teachers may need to strategically prioritize these high-ranking strategies in their motivational practices. Such emphasis appears particularly relevant in the Chinese context, where studies suggest that Chinese EFL learners often exhibit low self-efficacy (Ma et al., 2024; Min et al., 2016), a tendency possibly influenced by traditional Confucian emphasis on humility and modest behaviors (Bond et al., 2012) and the prioritization of hard work over self-confidence (Li et al., 2024). These cultural tendencies may be intensified at the secondary level, where students often face increasingly challenging academic demands that might further erode their self-efficacy (Lee & Seo, 2021). Furthermore, the micro strategies subsumed under the top-ranked macro MSs address all four sources of self-efficacy development. This observation suggests that motivational teaching may benefit from combining these micro MSs to enhance student self-efficacy. The value of such an integrated approach is supported by research showing that students often demonstrate improved self-efficacy trajectories when exposed to multiple sources (Li et al., 2025). As these sources correlate with each other (Usher & Pajares, 2008), an integrated practice potentially creates synergistic effects that could enhance motivational outcomes.

The SCT-grounded analysis also offers important implications for teacher professional development programs. Rather than merely providing English teachers with an array of MSs to

draw on and prioritize in spontaneous and unplanned practices, professional development initiatives could benefit from incorporating theoretical frameworks that support more systematic approaches to motivational teaching (Hennebry-Leung & Gao, 2023). For instance, there may be a need to develop teachers' understanding of how top-ranking MSs connect to SCT and the four sources of self-efficacy, as well as the relationship between self-efficacy and motivation or academic achievement. Professional development programs may also introduce teachers to other personal factors that are linked to self-efficacy, such as outcome expectations, attributions, goals, and self-evaluation of progress, along with MSs that address these theoretical constructs. Such theoretical grounding would empower teachers to exercise informed agency in selecting and adapting MSs that best serve their students' needs.

Several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the applicability of our findings may be restricted to Chinese secondary EFL learners and might not generalize to other cultural settings, given that non-Western students typically demonstrate a stronger alignment between self-efficacy and performance compared to their Western counterparts (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2020). Readers should interpret the findings with this cultural specificity in mind. Second, the exclusive use of student and teacher self-reports regarding their perceived importance of L2 MSs could have introduced social desirability bias. Future research should examine the effectiveness of the highly-rated MSs through experimental designs before making strong recommendations to English teachers. Third, while our instruments demonstrated adequate content validity through expert review, our study lacked additional measures of related and distinct constructs necessary for establishing convergent and discriminant validity. This methodological limitation prevents us from conclusively determining how our constructs correlate with other theoretically related constructs or how effectively they differentiate from conceptually distinct variables. Future research focused on instrument development would benefit from incorporating such measures to address this limitation. Fourth, this study lacked composite reliability estimates for the questionnaire scales, which might affect the precision of the internal consistency assessment. Further research should incorporate composite reliability to provide a more robust evaluation of scale reliability based on confirmatory factor analysis. Finally, our investigation did not account for individual differences among learners when exploring their beliefs about L2 MSs. Nevertheless, previous research indicates that individual factors, such as language proficiency, significantly influence Chinese secondary students' motivation (Ye, 2021) and beliefs about language learning (Ye & Hu, 2025c).

Future studies could include additional variables (e.g., proficiency, gender, academic background) to develop a more nuanced understanding of learner beliefs about MSs, which would allow practitioners to tailor motivational practices to specific learner profiles and thus maximize their pedagogical effectiveness.

References

Ahn, H. S., Bong, M., & Kim, S. I. (2017). Social models in the cognitive appraisal of self-efficacy information. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 48*, 149–166. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2016.08.002

Alamer, A., & Alrabai, F. (2023). The causal relationship between learner motivation and language achievement: New dynamic perspective. *Applied Linguistics, 44*, 148–168. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amac035

Al-Murtadha, M. (2019). Enhancing EFL learners' willingness to communicate with visualization and goal-setting activities. *TESOL Quarterly, 53*, 133–157. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.474

Al-Murtadha, M. (2020). Increasing EFL learner self-confidence with visualization. *ELT Journal, 74*, 166-174. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccaa009

Al-Murtadha, M. (2025). Motivating second language learners with a possible selves intervention program. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, *24*, 43–56. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2022.2075874

Alrabai, F. (2015). The influence of teachers' anxiety-reducing strategies on learners' foreign language anxiety. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *9*, 163–190. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2014.890203

Alrabai, F. (2016). The effects of teachers' in-class motivational intervention on learners' EFL achievement. *Applied Linguistics, 37*, 307-333. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu021

Alrabai, F. (2025). The predictive role of anxiety and motivation in L2 proficiency: An empirical causal model. *Language Teaching Research, 29,* 3104–3142. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688221136247

Alrabai, F., & Alamer, A. (2024). The effects of teacher motivational practice on learner L2 achievement: A self-determination theory perspective using structural equation modeling. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688241278625

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Prentice Hall.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* Freeman.

Bandura, A. (2009). Social-cognitive theory. In R.B. Ewen (Ed.), *An introduction to theories of personality* (7th ed., pp. 474–497). Taylor & Francis Group.

Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, student perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*, 387–401. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00753.x

Bond, M.H., Lun, V. M.C., Chan, J., Chan, W.W.Y., & Wong, D. (2012). Enacting modesty in Chinese culture: The joint contribution of personal characteristics and contextual features. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 15*, 14–25. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-839X.2011.01357.x

Buehl, M.M., & Beck, J.S. (2015). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and teachers' practices. In H. Fives & M.G. Gill (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teachers' beliefs* (pp. 66–84). Routledge.

Cheng, H., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*, 153–174. https://doi.org/10.2167/illt048.0

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Delacre, M., Lakens, D., & Leys, C. (2017). Why psychologists should by default use Welch's t-test instead of Student's t-test. *International Review of Social Psychology, 30*, 92–101. https://doi.org/10.5334/irsp.82

Dewaele, J.-M., & Li, C. (2021). Teacher enthusiasm and students' social-behavioral learning engagement: The mediating role of student enjoyment and boredom in Chinese EFL classes. *Language Teaching Research, 25*, 922–945. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211014538

Deniz, S. (2010). Student teachers' evaluation of the motivational strategies used in foreign language teaching. *Social Behavior and Personality, 38*, 1269–1286. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2010.38.9.1269

Dörnyei, Z. (1998, March). *Demotivation in foreign language learning* [paper presentation]. TESOL Convention 1998, Seattle, USA.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge University

Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9–42). Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z. (2014a). Motivation in second language learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 518–531). National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning.

Dörnyei, Z. (2014b). Future self-guides and vision. In K. Csizér & M. Magid (Eds.), *The impact of self-concept on language learning* (pp. 7–18). Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., & Kubanyiova, M. (2014). *Motivating learners, motivating teachers: Building vision in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research*, *2*, 203–229. https://doi.org/10.1177/136216889800200303

Dörnyei, Z., & Muir, C. (2019). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In X. Gao (Ed.), *Second handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719–736). Springer.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited.* Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z., & Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2021). *Teaching and researching motivation* (3rd ed.). Routledge.

Guilloteaux, M. (2013). Motivational strategies for the language classroom: Perceptions of Korean secondary school English teachers. *System, 41*, 3–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.12.002

Ha, X. V. (2023). Do students' oral corrective feedback beliefs matter to teachers? *ELT Journal, 77*, 227–236. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccac044

Hennebry-Leung, M., & Gao, X.A. (2023). *Language learning motivation in a multilingual Chinese context.* Routledge.

Hennebry-Leung, M., & Hu, X.A. (2023). Examining the role of the learner and the teacher in language learning motivation. *Language Teaching Research, 27*, 30–56. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820938810

Hu, G. (2002). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 15*, 93-105.

https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310208666636

Kagan, D.M. (1992). Professional growth among pre-service and beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research, 64*, 129–169. https://doi.org/10.2307/1170578

Kalaja, P., Barcelos, A.M.F., Aro, M., & Ruohotie-Lyhty, M. (2015). *Beliefs, agency and identity in foreign language learning and teaching*. Springer.

Kartchava, E., & Ammar, A. (2014). Learners' beliefs as mediators of what is noticed and learned in the language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, *48*, 86–109. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.101

Lamb, M. (2017). The motivational dimension of language teaching. *Language Teaching, 50*, 301–346. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000088

Lee, Y.-k., & Seo, E. (2021). Longitudinal relations between South Korean adolescents' academic self-efficacy and values in mathematics and English. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*, 217–236. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12357

Le-Thi, D., Dörnyei, Z., & Pellicer-Sánchez, A. (2022). Increasing the effectiveness of teaching L2 formulaic sequences through motivational strategies and mental imagery: A classroom experiment. *Language Teaching Research, 26*, 1202–1230. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820913125

Li, J., King, R. B., & Lee, V. W. (2024). Distinct trajectories of EFL motivation: A self-determination theory perspective. *System, 126*, 103441. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2024.103441

Li, J., Wang, C., King, R. & Zhao, Y. (2025). I can do it: A positive psychology perspective on the development of self-efficacy in the EFL context. *Applied Linguistics Review*. https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2024-0075

Locke, E. A. (2018). Long-range thinking and goal-directed action. In G. Oettingen, A. T. Sevincer & P. M. Gollwitzer (Eds.), *The psychology of thinking about the future* (pp. 377–391). Guilford Publications.

Lumley, T., Diehr, P., Emerson, S., & Chen, L. (2002). The importance of the normality assumption in large public health data sets. *Annual Review of Public Health, 23*, 151–169. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.publhealth.23.100901.140546

Ma, L., Xiao, L., & Liu, J. (2024). Motivational beliefs of urban and rural students in English as a foreign language learning: The case of China. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 45*, 1524–1537. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2021.1991933

Magid, M., & Chan, L. (2012). Motivating English learners by helping them visualize their ideal L2 self: Lessons from two motivational programs. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 6*, 113–125. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2011.614693

Mackay, J. (2019). An ideal second language self intervention: Development of possible selves in an English as a Foreign Language classroom context. *System, 81*, 50–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.01.003

Mesgarshahr, A., & Abdollahzadeh, E. (2014). The impact of teaching communication strategies on EFL learners' willingness to communicate. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 4*, 51–76. https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.1.4

Min, I., Cortina, K. S., & Miller, K. F. (2016). Modesty bias and the attitude-achievement paradox across nations: A reanalysis of TIMSS. *Learning and Individual Differences, 51*, 359–366. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.09.008

Moskovsky, C., Alrabai, F., Paolini, S., & Racheva, S. (2013). The effects of teachers' motivational strategies on learners' motivation: A controlled investigation of second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 63*, 34–62. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00717.x

Muir, C., Dörnyei, Z., & Adolphs, S. (2021). Role models in language learning: Results of a large-scale international survey. *Applied Linguistics, 42*, 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amz056

Munezane, Y. (2015). Enhancing willingness to communicate: Relative effects of visualization and goal setting. *Modern Language Journal, 99*, 175–191. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12193

Oyserman, D., & James, L. (2009). Possible selves: From content to process. In K. D. Markman, W. M. P. Klein, & J. A. Suhr (Eds.), *Handbook of imagination and mental simulation* (pp. 373–394). Psychology Press.

Papi, M., & Hiver, P. (2022). Motivation. In S.F. Li, P. Hiver, & M. Papi (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and individual differences* (pp. 113–127). Routledge.

Rad, H., & Alipour, J. (2023). Writing skills in CALL: Effects of L2MSS vision-inspired instruction on L2 students' motivation and achievement. *System*, 115. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.103063

Ruesch, A., Bown, J., & Dewey, D. (2012). Student and teacher perceptions of motivational strategies in the foreign language classroom. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 6*, 15-27. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2011.562510

Safdari, S. (2021). Operationalizing L2 motivational self system: Improving EFL learners' motivation through a vision enhancement program. *Language Teaching Research, 25*, 282–305. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168819846597

Sato, M., & Lara, P. (2019). Interaction vision intervention to increase second language motivation: A classroom study. In M. Sato & S. Loewen (Eds.), *Evidence-based second language pedagogy: A collection of instructed second language acquisition studies* (pp. 278–313). Routledge.

Schunk, D. H. (2012). Social cognitive theory. In K. R. Harris, S. Graham, & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Educational psychology handbook: Vol. 1. Theories, constructs, and critical issues* (pp. 101–123). American Psychological Association.

Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2016). Self-efficacy theory in education. In K. R. Wentzel & D. B. Miele (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school* (2nd ed., pp. 34–54). Routledge.

Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2020). Motivation and social cognitive theory. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 60*, 101832. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2019.101832

Schunk, D. H., & Usher, E. L. (2019). Social cognitive theory and motivation. In R.M. Ryan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of human motivation* (2nd ed., pp. 10–26). Oxford University Press.

Shao, Q., & Gao, X. (2017). Noisy guests shall not unseat the host. *English Today*, *33*, 25–30. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078416000419

Tavakoli, M., Yaghoubinejad, H., & Zarrinabadi, N. (2018). Using motivational strategies in L2 classrooms: Does culture have a role? *Current Psychology, 37*, 477–487. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-016-9523-2

Usher, E. L. (2015). Personal capability beliefs. In L. Corno & E. H. Anderman (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (3rd ed., pp. 146–159). Taylor & Francis.

Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). Sources of self-efficacy in school: Critical review of the literature and future directions. *Review of Educational Research, 78*, 751–796. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308321456

Wong, R.M.H. (2014). An investigation of strategies for student motivation in the Chinese EFL context." *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 8*, 132–154. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2013.777449

Wong, R.M.H., & Wong, R. (2017). Alignment of motivational strategies: The perceptions of teachers and students. *Educational Practice and Theory, 39*, 57–85.

https://doi.org/10.7459/ept/39.2.05

Ye, X. (2021). EFL learning motivation differences of Chinese junior secondary school students: A mixed-methods study. *Education 3-13, 49*, 203-216. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004279.2019.1711143

Ye, X., & Hu, G. (2024). Teachers' stated beliefs and practices regarding L2 motivational strategies: A mixed-methods study of misalignment and contributing factors. *System, 121*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2024.103236

Ye, X., & Hu, G. (2025a). The effects and efficiency of three motivational programs on EFL learners' motivation: A longitudinal perspective. *System, 129*, 103584. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2024.103584

Ye, X., & Hu, G. (2025b). Effects of motivational interventions on EFL learners' willingness to communicate, self-confidence, and anxiety: An experimental study. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688251367858

Ye, X., & Hu, G. (2025c). Student and teacher beliefs about English oral corrective feedback in junior secondary English classrooms. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 63*, 1477-1505. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2023-0153

You, C.J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2016). Language teaching motivation in China: Results of a large-scale stratified survey. *Applied Linguistics, 37*, 495–519. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu046

Zimmerman, B. J., Schunk, D. H., & DiBenedetto, M. K. (2015). A personal agency view of self-regulated learning: The role of goal setting. In F. Guay, H. Marsh, D.M. MacInerney & R.G. Craven (Eds.), *Self-concept, motivation and identity: Underpinning success with research and practice* (pp. 83–114). Information Age Publishing.

Appendix 1: The L2 Motivational Strategies Questionnaires

Instructions for the questionnaire on perceived importance

Please respond to each statement below by selecting a number from 1 to 6 that best indicates your perception of the strategy described by the statement.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Very unimportant	Unimportant	Slightly unimportant	Slightly important	Important	Very important

Example: If you think the following strategy is very important, choose "6" as your response:

The teacher makes good preparations before each lesson. 1 2 3 4 5 ⑥

Note. student and teacher questionnaires feature identical items with different salutations.

Part I: Traditional motivational strategies

Proper teacher behavior

1. Establishes a good relationship with us.
2. Shows us that he/she respects, accepts and cares about each of us.
3. Tries to be himself/herself in front of us without putting on an artificial 'mask', and shares with us his/her hobbies, likes and dislikes.
4. Shows enthusiasm for teaching English by being committed and motivating himself/herself.
5. Shares with us that he/she values English learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and which enriches his/her life.

Recognize students' effort

1. Shows us that our effort and achievement are being recognized by him/her.
2. Encourages us to see that the main reason for most failure is that we did not make sufficient effort rather than poor abilities.
3. Makes sure grades reflect not only our achievement but also the effort we have put into in the task.
4. Monitors our accomplishments, and takes time to celebrate any success or victory.

Promote learners' self-confidence

1. Notices our contributions and progress, and provides us with positive feedback.
2. Teaches us various learning techniques that will make our learning easier and more effective.
3. Encourages us to try harder by making it clear that he/she believes that we *can* do the tasks.
4. Designs tasks that are within our ability so that we get to experience success regularly.
5. Makes clear to us that the important thing in learning a foreign language is to communicate meaning effectively rather than worrying about grammar mistakes or pronunciation.

Create a pleasant classroom climate

1. Creates a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where we are free from embarrassment and ridicule.
2. Avoids 'social comparison' amongst us (i.e., comparing us to each other for example when listing our grades in public).
3. Brings in and encourages humour and laughter frequently in the class.
4. Uses short and interesting opening activities to start each class (e.g., fun games).

Present tasks properly

1. Gives clear instructions about how to carry out a task by modelling every step that we will need to do.
2. Gives good reasons to us as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important.

3. Before carrying out a task, check with us if we understand the instructions and clarify any confusing points if necessary.
4. Break a big/difficult task into a few manageable chunks so that we handle well.

Increase learners' goal-orientedness

1. Helps us develop realistic beliefs about our learning (e.g., explain to us realistically the amount of time needed for making real progress in English).
2. Encourages us to select specific, realistic and short-term learning goals for ourselves (e.g., learning 5 words every day).
3. Tries and finds out about our needs, goals and interests, and then builds these into the curriculum as much as possible.
4. Displays the 'class goals' on the wall and reviews them regularly in terms of the progress made towards us.

Make the learning tasks stimulating

1. Breaks the routine of the lessons by varying presentation format (e.g., a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on pronunciation; a whole-class lecture can be followed by group work).
2. Enriches the channel of communication by presenting various auditory and visual aids such as pictures, realia, tapes and films.
3. Introduces in his/her lessons various interesting content and topics which we are likely to find interesting (e.g., about TV programmes, pop stars or travelling).
4. Makes tasks attractive by including novel or fantasy elements so as to raise our curiosity.
5. Makes tasks challenging by including some activities that require us to solve problems or discover something (e.g., puzzles).
6. Allows us to create products that we can display or perform (e.g., a poster, an information brochure or a radio programme).

Familiarize learners with L2-related values

1. Regularly reminds us that the successful mastery of English is beneficial to our future (e.g., getting a better job or pursuing further studies abroad).
2. Motivates us by increasing the amount of English he/she uses in class.
3. Familiarizes us with the cultural background of the English language.
4. Brings various authentic cultural products (e.g., magazines, newspapers or song lyrics) to class as supplementary materials.
5. Highlights the usefulness of English and encourages us to use English outside the classroom (e.g., chatting with friends in English).
6. Invites senior students who are enthusiastic about learning English to talk to us about their positive English learning experiences/successes.
7. Invites some English-speaking foreigners as guest speakers to the class.

Promote group cohesiveness and group norms

1. Explains the importance of the 'class rules' that he/she regards as important (e.g., don't make fun of each other's mistakes) and how these rules enhance learning, and then ask for our agreement.
2. Encourages us to share personal experiences and thoughts as part of the learning tasks.
3. Creates opportunities so that we can mix and get to know each other better (e.g., group work, game-like competition).
4. Includes activities that require us to work in groups towards the same goal (e.g., plan a drama performance) in order to promote cooperation.
5. Asks us to think of any classroom rules that we would like to recommend because we think those will be useful for our learning.

Promote learner autonomy

1. Adopts the role of a 'facilitator' (i.e., the teacher's role would be to help and lead us to think and learn in our own way, instead of solely giving knowledge to us).

2. Encourages our participation by assigning activities that require active involvement from each participant (e.g., group presentation or peer teaching).
3. Teaches us self-motivating strategies (e.g., self-encouragement) so as to keep us motivated when we encounter distractions.
4. Gives us opportunities to assess ourselves (e.g., give ourselves marks according to our overall performance).
5. Gives us choices in deciding how and when we will be assessed/evaluated.
6. Involves us as much as possible in designing and running the language course (e.g., provide us with opportunities to select the textbooks; make real choices about the activities and topics he/she is going to cover; decide whom we would like to work with).

Part II: Vision-based motivational strategies

Show care for and trust in students

1. Tries understanding our past life and learning experiences.
2. Tries understanding our future learning and career goals.
3. Cares about our positive and negative feelings related to English learning, e.g., anxieties about knowledge points or grades, and excellent achievements made.
4. Shows confidence in our ability to persevere and triumph in the end.
5. Always tells us that we can do well.
6. Encourages and affirms us who encounter obstacles, negative thoughts or doubts.

Provide guidance on achieving an ideal self-image

1. Helps us think about and construct a future ideal L2-related self, e.g., using fluent English to conduct business negotiation, communicate in English fluently when travelling, being admitted to a good university.
2. Helps us identify step-by-step small goals that contribute to our future ideal L2 self-images.
3. Helps us develop strategies that contribute to achieving our ideal L2 self-images.
4. Offers us one-on-one guidance on action plans of achieving our ideal L2 self-images.
5. Analyzes with us what we can do to avoid failure of realizing our ideal L2 self-image.
6. Helps us develop strategies and solutions if we encounter obstacles.
7. Encourages us to re-image our future images if the original ones collapse.

Establish realistic beliefs about L2 learning

1. Helps us establish a realistic ideal L2 self-image.
2. Helps us sort out misconceptions and prejudices about L2 learning.
3. Helps us modify our expectations and action plans accordingly along our way of pursuing an ideal self-image.
4. Reminds us that we may not achieve the set goals if we aim too high.
5. Discusses with us what could lead to failure of realizing our ideal L2 self-image.
6. Encourages us to think about the characteristics and qualities successful L2 learners have.
7. Encourages us to think about the possible difficulties successful L2 learners encounter and how they overcome them.

Provide exposure to role models

1. Shares with us his/her own successes with L2 learning and use.
2. Invites top L2 learners in the class to share how they learn English well.
3. Invites successful and famous alumni to share their L2 learning experiences.
4. Shares with us the L2 learning experiences of our favorite stars.
5. Invites parents to share their L2-related career stories to build up our ideal self-images.

Provide tasters of desired future states

1. Creates regular opportunities in the class for us to experience our ideal L2-related self-image, e.g., communicating in English when visiting a foreign company.

2. Encourages us to visualize situations in which we are competently using L2, e.g., communicating fluently when visiting another country.
3. Encourages us to visualize how it feels to achieve our English learning goals.
4. Creates scenarios for us to experience L2 culture in daily teaching, e.g., integrating L2 humanity, culture, and geography knowledge into daily teaching.
5. Creates opportunities for us to gain authentic L2 experience, e.g., study-abroad trip, English corners, restaurants opened by L2 speakers.
6. Encourages us to speak and behave as ourselves in language tasks, e.g., speak and behave as ourselves in role-play instead of imitating others.

Incorporate the ought-to self

1. Helps us construct an ideal L2 self-image that meet our families' expectations, e.g., our family members will recognize us and be proud of us if we realize the ideal image.
2. Helps us construct an ideal L2 self-image that meet our peers' expectations, e.g., our peers will admire us if we realize the ideal image.
3. Helps us construct an ideal L2 self-image that meet our teachers' expectations e.g., the teacher will recognize and praise us if we realize the ideal image.
4. Helps us construct an ideal L2 self-image that meet the needs of the society, e.g., realizing the ideal image means we can utilize English to make contributions to the society, for example, being an English teacher, being an interpreter, using English to conduct business activities.
5. Tells us that we should work hard in English for going to a key senior secondary school and university.
6. Tells us that teachers will be proud of us if we achieve our English learning goals.
7. Tells us that family members will be proud of us if we achieve our English learning goals.

Establish feared self-image

1. Discusses and analyzes with us the possible consequences if failing to achieve our L2 learning goals.
2. Reminds us that failing to achieve our L2 learning goals might disappoint our family members.
3. Reminds us that our career options will be affected if failing to achieve our L2 learning goals.
4. Reminds us that we may not be admitted to a famous university if failing to achieve our L2 learning goals.
5. Reminds us that we may be surpassed by our counterparts if failing to achieve our L2 learning goals.
6. Reminds us that the class honor and ranking may be impaired if failing the English exams.

Appendix 2: Correlation Matrices for Traditional Motivational Strategies

		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10
T1	Kendall's Tau B	—									
	p-value	—									
T2	Kendall's Tau B	0.605	—								
	p-value	<.001	—								
T3	Kendall's Tau B	0.658	0.648	—							
	p-value	<.001	<.001	—							
T4	Kendall's Tau B	0.532	0.529	0.542	—						
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	—						
T5	Kendall's Tau B	0.593	0.586	0.642	0.499	—					
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—					
T6	Kendall's Tau B	0.603	0.617	0.668	0.506	0.626	—				
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—				
T7	Kendall's Tau B	0.630	0.606	0.646	0.585	0.608	0.626	—			
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—			
T8	Kendall's Tau B	0.605	0.571	0.604	0.519	0.581	0.635	0.645	—		
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—		
T9	Kendall's Tau B	0.632	0.615	0.651	0.534	0.627	0.655	0.660	0.641	—	
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—	
T10	Kendall's Tau B	0.637	0.611	0.671	0.537	0.643	0.670	0.689	0.653	0.678	—
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—

Note. Traditional motivational strategies are listed in the same order as in Table 1.

Appendix 3: Correlation Matrices for Vision-based Motivational Strategies

		V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7
V1	Kendall's Tau B	—						
	p-value	—						
V2	Kendall's Tau B	0.724	—					
	p-value	<.001	—					
V3	Kendall's Tau B	0.721	0.775	—				
	p-value	<.001	<.001	—				
V4	Kendall's Tau B	0.657	0.696	0.697	—			
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	—			
V5	Kendall's Tau B	0.673	0.726	0.705	0.710	—		
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—		
V6	Kendall's Tau B	0.667	0.716	0.716	0.696	0.685	—	
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—	
V7	Kendall's Tau B	0.558	0.581	0.618	0.609	0.550	0.688	—
	p-value	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	—

Note. Vision-based motivational strategies are listed in the same order as in Table 2.