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Task-Related Motivational Strategies in EFL Classrooms: A Glimpse into Teachers' and Students' Perceptions

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This mixed-method study investigated teacher and student perceptions of the importance of task-related motivational strategies (TRMS) in English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom instruction. A 48-item Likert scale questionnaire covering seven domains of TRMS were electronically delivered to teachers (N = 96) at different institutions in a large city in southern Vietnam and their students (N = 220). Concurrently, thirty-four written reflections were obtained from the teachers (N = 17) and the students (N = 17) to shed further light on their perceptions. Examining the participants' central tendencies showed that they agreed on the motivational value of task nature, task relevance, task materials, task-related feedback, and during-task teacher behavior, but not on task presentation and task level. Item analyses further revealed statistically significant differences in the participants' perceptions of as much as 23 percent of the TRMS. Recursive content analysis of the journal data corroborated a substantial part of the quantitative results and offered explanations for why each specific difference occurred. These perceptual mismatches provide important pedagogical implications for how teachers can design and implement tasks in the way that is motivating to students whose English learning is entirely confined within classroom walls.

Keywords: teacher perception, student perception, motivation, task-related motivational strategies

Introduction

Second language (L2) motivation has been considered one of the influential factors in L2 learning as it can arouse learners' propensity for taking conscious actions to learn and for expending efforts to achieve pre-established goals (Williams & Burden, 1997). Traditionally, L2 motivation research drew upon socio-educational psychology to conceptualize L2 motivation and broke it down into different constructs related to L2 learning (Alshehri, 2013). Representative of this tradition are the dichotomy of *integrative-instrumental motivation* (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) and *linguistic self-confidence* (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994), which view motivation as broad orientations to learn the L2.

However, in the 1990s, the focus was shifted towards more cognitive, situated perspectives, with researchers starting to examine how these orientations could be translated into practical strategies for regulating students' motivation in instructed settings (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei 2008; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). This shift of focus, as Dörnyei (1998) noted, has resulted in L2 motivation being reconceptualized as "explanatory power with regard to specific language learning tasks and behaviors and not just broad, whole community-level social tendencies" (p. 124). Alongside this shift, much work has been done to establish conceptual frameworks, among which are Dörnyei's (1994) *triadic motivational framework*, Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) *process-*

oriented motivation, and William and Burden's (1997) *internal-external motivation*. These frameworks accommodate a multiplicity of techniques for generating, promoting, and maintaining learner motivation. Such techniques are defined by Dörnyei (2001) as *motivational strategies* for regulating L2 learners' goal-directed behaviors and encouraging them to take concrete conscious actions to "achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect" (p. 28). The fullest account of the strategies is presented in Dörnyei's (2001) ground-breaking book *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classrooms*, highlighting over one hundred strategies for classroom teaching. As Bokan-Smith (2016) comments, this model "reflects the circular movement and strong connection that motivation has as well as its dynamic nature in the L2 classroom" (p. 4).

Following this shift, the current study examines how the importance of motivational strategies related to classroom activities is perceived by EFL teachers and students in Vietnam. In this context, what and how to teach is often controlled by teachers, thus overlooking the fact that students' personal orientations and beliefs have interventional effects on their motivation and learning (Elliot, 1999; Reeve & Jang, 2006; Tobias, 1994). This presents the compelling need for incorporating student perspectives to understand their motivation, given the reciprocal relationship between them and their teachers in classroom instruction (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Tudor, 2001). In addition, while alive to the fact that perception does not necessarily decide all what might actually happen in classrooms, this study takes a stance that it is a precondition for the actual translation of motivational strategies into practice, thus directly affecting the practice of teaching and learning. On this basis, this study aims to provide teachers with a deeper understanding of what motivational strategies can influence learner motivation by unveiling the discrepancies between teachers' and students' perceptions of the importance of the strategies.

Literature Review

Studies on Motivational Strategies

Notwithstanding the 1990s switch of research focus to situated learning behaviors, scant attention has been paid to motivational strategies (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) and to how the strategies can improve learner motivation (Henry et al., 2017). Studies on motivational strategies thus exist in small numbers, with most of them concentrating on particular contexts such as Hungary (Dörnyei & Csízer, 1998), Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), Spain (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008), the United States (He, 2009; Ruesch, 2009), South Korea (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Guilloteaux, 2013), Turkey (Deniz, 2010; Yücel, 2003; Taşpınar, 2004), Indonesia (Kassing, 2011); Thailand (Cho, 2013), Taiwan (Hsu, 2016), Australia (Bokan-Smith, 2016), China (Wang and Lee, 2019), and United Arab Emirates (El-Soussi, 2021). Among these, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) was a landmark study that established ten commandments representing Hungarian teachers' most favored strategies, with *presenting tasks properly* ranking third in the list. This result was confirmed by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Wang and Lee (2021), who found that their teachers highly endorsed task-related strategies.

Rather than looking into only teacher perceptions, some studies explored student perceptions. He (2009), for example, showed that the U.S.-based international students' preferred *presenting task properly*, while also tending to appreciate their teachers' effort in *making learning tasks stimulating*. The students in Fyer (2012) identified with this, rating *using real-world, communicative tasks to reduce the negative effects of testing* as the number one strategy that motivated them. In Australia, Bokan-Smith (2016) found that both teachers and students placed *presenting motivating tasks* among their top-rated motivational strategies. These results suggest that motivational strategies related to the presentation and the nature of classroom tasks carry lots of weight with both teachers and students. The way teachers design and carry out classroom tasks, if being in line with students' expectations, can stimulate a large amount of the students' motivation to learn in the L2 classroom.

However, teachers and students do not always perceive motivational strategies in the same way. In the United States, Ruesch's (2009) students valued the importance of task-related motivational strategies more than their teachers did, suggesting that they placed greater emphasis on strategies that directly affect their learning experiences. This aligns well with Alshehri (2013) in which Saudi Arabian students preferred strategies related to their process of learning and social aspects such as interaction and participation, while teachers tended to concentrate on strategies for accelerating academic achievements. Similarly, Hsu (2016) showed that Taiwanese students preferred a pleasant classroom environment, but their teachers prioritized strategies for recognizing their academic efforts. Taken together, these results suggest that what motivates students the most is the immediate learning realities they encounter in their classes, which constrasts with the belief of teachers whose strategy choices seem to be driven by students' academic outcomes. However, the UAE teachers in El-Soussi (2021) reported that they used strategies influencing learning experiences such as *providing a pleasant and supportive atmosphere and stimulating and enjoyable writing* to deal with their students' low levels of writing motivation. Given these disparities, teachers need to develop a balanced view about their own beliefs and students' actual motivation (Alshehri, 2013), because their motivational teaching considerably impacts students' motivated behaviors and their motivational state (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

Thus, teachers' perceptions, if being mismatched with their students', might make the students discontented with their learning experiences, bring down their motivation, and even terminate their learning (Kern, 1995). This perceptual mismatch, however, is underinvestigated in the EFL context of Vietnam; therefore, the current study endeavors to explore the extent to which teachers' and students' perceptions in this context resemble or differ from each other. Additionally, most of the studies mentioned above dealt with a diversity of strategies, leaving this study an interesting avenue for further exploring the perceived motivational significance of strategies related to only instructional activities.

Tasks and Task-Related Motivational Strategies

The term *task* is often associated with task-based language teaching (TBLT) which operates through *pedagogic tasks* whereby learners use the target language to do the task to reach a non-linguistic goal (Nunan, 2014). Still, in EFL contexts where authentic TBLT is still unrealistic, *task* should refer to any classroom activity that teachers design and implement to facilitate their students' learning. The current study uses this sense of the term.

Tasks have a close relationship with motivation. Using a task that involves cognitive operations can help uncover the cognitive behaviors (i.e., motivational actions) and the affective characteristics (i.e., attitudes) students display in learning (Julkunen, 2001). Julkunen (1989, 1990) specifically noted that a motivating task can trigger students' enjoyment, create favorable conditions for them to practice the target language, include some competition to encourage them to participate, and make them curious about new knowledge and skills as well as about how to achieve these. Other researchers have pointed to the motivating role of tasks that allow for learner collaboration (McGrath, 1984), mutually supportive learning (Nation, 1990), and negotiation for meaning (Long, 1990).

Despite these motivational roles of tasks, little research has been done on how teachers and students perceive the value of *task-related motivational strategies* (TRMS). Taşpınar (2004), for example, examined Turkish teachers' and students' perceptions of 17 TRMS divided into four domains namely *task presentation*, *task nature*, *tasks related to students' interests and needs*, and *task level*. The teachers reported that *clarying task purposes* and *giving clear guidance* were exceptionally motivational. Plus, most of their frequently used strategies pertained to *task presentation*, which might have been because these strategies were easy to employ and adapt across different classes, as Taşpınar explained. The teachers, however, did not find *using interesting tasks*, *using tasks suitable for students' competence*, and *considering students' needs rather than tests* much motivational. This was attributed to contextual factors such as mixed-proficiency classes, student density, curriculum and exam issues. Regarding student perceptions, Taşpınar found that they were most strongly motivated by their teachers' strategies for *task*

presentation, *task level*, and *task relevance to their needs and interests*, whereas they did not find their teachers' tasks authentic, interesting, competitive, and unexpected. The mismatch was explained also by their exam-driven curriculum and instruction. In addition, comparing the participants' responses indicated a negative correlation. The teachers positively perceived their task-related motivational strategy use, whereas students deemed many of the strategies, especially those about *task nature*, as either underexploited or ineffectively used. Part of this difference, as Taşpınar explained, was because the teachers might have accomplished a high level of self-efficacy in teaching with tasks, thus expressing more positive beliefs than what their students experienced in reality.

Unlike Taşpınar (2004), Henry et al. (2017) examined Swedish teachers' descriptions of the design and content of classroom activities they found effective in their teaching. Their content analysis showed that the teachers perceived activities with authentic materials – "cultural artifacts produced for a purpose other than teaching" (p. 1) – as a prominent motivator, although using such materials demanded them to refine their pedagogical and linguistic expertise. Similar importance was attached to activities that incorporate digital technologies or provide spaces for creativity.

It can be seen from these studies that teachers' and students' opinions of the motivational attributes of a task are not always similar, and this difference depends on such factors as personal, professional, academic, and cultural backgrounds and experiences. This has prompted the current study to find answers to the following question in the EFL context of Vietnam: *How do teachers and students perceive the importance of TRMS, and what are the convergences and divergences between their perceptions?*

Method

Participants

The participants were recruited using a snowball sampling technique (Browne, 2005; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) whereby several key participants were contacted via email and then requested to recommend a large pool of relevant participants over a three-month period. Eventually, a total of 96 teachers (20.8% male and 79.2% female) responded to the survey. Their ages ranged between 22 and 61 ($M = 31.24$, $SD = 6.7$), and their accumulated teaching experience varied wildly between 1 and 35 years ($M = 8.3$, $SD = 6.3$). Also participating in this study were 220 students (27.3% male and 72.7% female) at various ages ($M = 20.48$, $SD = 2.50$), with the youngest being 18 and the oldest being 39. The students were non-English majors who were taking compulsory academic English courses at different education institutions in a large city in southern Vietnam. This context is similar to that of many other Asian countries where EFL courses teach language skills, aiming to prepare students for standardized tests such as IELTS or Cambridge English Qualifications. Thus, Vietnamese teachers and students' perceptions of TRMS can somehow inform their counterparts in other parts of Asia as well as create a basis on which further research on TRMS in these countries can be done.

Data Collection

Quantitative data were collected using a 7-point Likert scale survey (1 = *not important*, 7 = *extremely important*) comprising 48 TRMS nested under seven conceptual domains. Four domains *task presentation*, *task nature*, *task relevance*, *task difficulty* with 17 items were adapted from Taşpınar (2004). The other domains (*task materials*, *task-related feedback*, and *during-task teacher behavior*) that grew out of Dörnyei (2001) and Henry et al. (2007) added an extension of 31 items. Although many of the strategies in Dörnyei (2001) were not based on tasks, for the survey, they were adapted to become related to tasks. For example, the teacher's facilitative role in the classroom, which Dörnyei (2001) viewed as an important strategy, was adapted into the teacher's *acting as a facilitator while students are doing tasks*. Qualitatively, the participants were asked to give written answers to seven questions, with each orienting

their responses towards an individual TRMS domain. This arrangement allowed for greater relevance between the two sets of data. All the participants had read a consent form attached to the electronic survey and clicked on "Start" to indicate their decision to voluntarily participate in the study.

Data Analysis

The survey data were treated using SPSS 22.0. Descriptive statistics showed how the participants perceived the importance of TRMS, while non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U*-test, which compares mean ranks, answered the question as to how their perceptions differed. This test was used because the data was non-normally distributed as illustrated by their skewness and kurtosis values being far above or below zero and that the two samples were not equal in size.

A recursive content analysis (Brown, 2014; Phung, 2015) was conducted to analyze the qualitative data. Three steps were taken. First, the written answers were read through carefully multiple times by the author to identify recurring subthemes under the seven TRMS domains. For instance, repeated ideas about relevance, needs, interests, and fun were recorded for the *task relevance* domain. Second, the subthemes were checked for their frequency of occurrence across the answers. Third, the subthemes were checked by a Second Language Studies professor from a large U.S. university. Differences between the author's and the professor's coding decisions were resolved through multiple discussions.

Results

Given the non-normal distribution of the data, the results were reported using median (*Mdn*) and interquartile range (*IQR*), which measure the middle score and the central part of a data distribution respectively (Field, 2013). However, mean (*M*) and standard deviation (*SD*) were also included as a more accurate means of specifying the importance level of TRMS, especially in case of the medians being the same (Alshehri, 2013).

Central Tendency of Teacher and Student Perceptions

Table 1 below shows the central tendency of the perceptions that the teachers and the students held about each TRMS domain, based on a 7-point scale.

TABLE 1
The Central Tendency of Teacher and Student Perceptions of the Importance of TRMS

TRMS Domains *	Teacher Perceptions		Student Perceptions	
	M (SD)	*Mdn (IQR)*	*M (SD)*	*Mdn (IQR)*
TL	5.47 (.97)	5.60 (1.35)	5.00 (.86)	5.00 (1.20)
TR	5.39 (1.08)	5.50 (1.50)	5.30 (.82)	5.25 (1.00)
TP	5.34 (.87)	5.43 (1.10)	5.02 (.86)	5.00 (1.14)
TB	5.13 (.95)	5.19 (1.18)	5.03 (.90)	5.00 (1.37)
TN	4.96 (.92)	5.05 (1.07)	4.98 (.82)	5.00 (1.20)
TF	4.89 (.98)	5.00 (1.09)	5.03 (.86)	5.00 (1.25)
TM	4.84 (.98)	5.00 (1.33)	5.02 (.96)	5.17 (1.17)

Note. TP = *task presentation*; TN = *task nature*; TL = *task relevance*; TL = *task level*; TM = *task materials*; TF = *task-related feedback*; TB = *during-task teacher behavior*; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation. * 7-point Likert scale (1 = *not important*, 7 = *extremely important*).

As can be seen, the teachers agreed on the importance of *task level* (*M* = 5.47, *SD* = .97), rating it as the most important among all the domains. Relatively equally important were *task relevance* (*M* = 5.39, *SD* = 1.08), and *task presentation* (*M* = 5.34, *SD* = .84). *Teacher behavior during task time*, *task nature*, *task-*

related feedback, and *task materials*, despite being rated as quite important, were less valued domains, compared with the others. Their perceived importance, however, was quite similar.

By comparison, *task relevance* (*M* = 5.30, *SD* = .82) was perceived by students as the most important, while *task nature* (*M* = 4.98, *SD* = .82) assumed the lowest level of importance. The importance of *task-related feedback*, *during-task teacher behavior*, *task presentation*, *task materials*, and *task level* were perceived in an obviously similar way, with their means standing at 5.00 or thereabouts.

Top-Rated TRMS

Table 2 shows that two top-ten lists share six same strategies. A closer look at these strategies shows that the teachers' mean scores were consistently higher than the students'. This suggests that despite standing among the top ten, the strategies were more important to the teachers, compared to how important they were perceived to be by the students.

TABLE 2
A Cross-comparison of Top Ten TRMS

Teacher-Rated Top Ten TRMS	Rank Order	Student-Rated Top Ten TRMS
Giving clear instructions for tasks to students (*M* = 6.42, *SD* = 1.023)	1	Being ready to answer students' questions during task time (*M* = 5.77, *SD* = 1.187)
Adjusting the difficulty levels of tasks to students' abilities (*M* = 6.04, *SD* = 1.230)	2	Using tasks that are interesting to students (*M* = 5.66, *SD* = 1.223)
Using a variety of tasks in class (*M* = 5.96, *SD* = 1.213)	3	Using tasks that allow students to interact with one another in English (*M* = 5.66, *SD* = 1.245)
Encouraging students to speak during task time (*M* = 5.84, *SD* = 1.164)	4	Giving clear instructions for tasks to students (*M* = 5.65, *SD* = 1.379)
Using authentic tasks that prepare students for real-life applications (*M* = 5.84, *SD* = 1.155)	5	Encouraging students to speak during task time (*M* = 5.61, *SD* = 1.421)
Acting as a facilitator as students are doing tasks (*M* = 5.80, *SD* = 1.308)	6	Using authentic materials produced by native speakers for real-life communicative purposes (*M* = 5.52, *SD* = 1.326)
Demonstrating how to complete tasks (*M* = 5.80, *SD* = 1.219)	7	Using tasks that allow students to have fun in the classroom (*M* = 5.51, *SD* = 1.319)
Using tasks that are interesting to students (*M* = 5.80, *SD* = 1.411)	8	Including visual elements in tasks (*M* = 5.46, *SD* = 1.262)
Using tasks that allow students to interact with one another in English (*M* = 5.78, *SD* = 1.250)	9	Giving feedback after students have completed tasks (*M* = 5.45, *SD* = 1.300)
Giving feedback after students have completed tasks (*M* = 5.73, *SD* = 1.365)	10	Using a variety of tasks in class (*M* = 5.37, *SD* = 1.397)

This cross-comparison also highlights some differences between these two lists of top ten TRMS. For *task nature*, for example, teachers put high value on *using authentic tasks that prepare students for real-life applications*, while students valued *including visual elements in tasks* as a very important strategy. Regarding *during-task teacher behavior*, students chose *being ready to answer students' questions during task time* as a considerably important strategy. Teachers, however, emphasized their role in *acting as a facilitator as students are doing tasks*. In addition, teachers cared about *adjusting the difficulty levels of tasks to students' abilities* (*task level*) and *demonstrating how to complete tasks* (*task presentation*), while students attached importance to *using authentic materials produced by native speakers for real-life*

communicative purposes (*task materials*) and *using tasks that allow students to have fun in the classroom* (*task relevance*).

Perceptual Convergences and Divergences

Mann-Whitney *U* tests showed a statistically significant difference between these two groups' ratings of *task presentation* (*U* = 8088.500, *z* = -3.314, *p* = .001, *r* = -.19) and *task level* (*U* = 7128.000, *z* = -4.606, *p* = .000, *r* = -.26), as shown in Table 3. The difference in their mean ranks suggests that the teachers placed greater importance on the strategies in terms of presenting tasks and controlling the difficulty of tasks than their students did. In terms of the other domains, the central tendencies of teacher and student perceptions were highly consistent (*p* > .05), indicating their similar perceptions of the importance of the strategies under these domains.

TABLE 3
Comparisons Based on Conceptual Domains of TRMS

Conceptual domain (Scale)	Teacher (N = 96)		Student (N = 220)		U	z	p**	r
	Mdn (IQR)*	Mean Rank	*Mdn* (IQR)*	Mean Rank				
TP	5.43 (1.10)	184.24	5.00 (1.14)	147.24	8088.50	-3.314	**.001**	**-.19**
TN	5.05 (1.07)	159.74	5.00 (1.20)	157.96	10440.50	-.160	.873	-.01
TR	5.50 (1.50)	170.19	5.25 (1.00)	153.40	9437.50	-1.509	.131	-.08
TL	5.60 (1.35)	194.25	5.00 (1.20)	142.90	7128.00	-4.606	**.000**	**-.26**
TM	5.00 (1.33)	146.14	5.17 (1.17)	163.89	9373.50	-1.591	.112	-.09
TF	5.00 (1.09)	150.87	5.00 (1.25)	161.83	9827.50	-.982	.326	- .05
TB	5.19 (1.18)	167.90	5.00 (1.37)	154.40	9658.00	-1.209	.227	-.07

Note. TP = *task presentation*; TN = *task nature*; TL = *task relevance*; TL = *task level*; TM = *task materials*; TF = *task-related feedback*; TB = *during-task teacher behavior*. * 7-point Likert scale (1 = *not important;* 7 = *extremely important*). ** Bonferroni-corrected *p*.

Table 4 shows that of the 48 TRMS, teachers and students agreed upon the importance of 77% of the strategies (*p* > .001). In contrast, Mann-Whitney *U* tests showed that their perceptions of 11 TRMS were different. Three items that showed such statistically significant differences were from the *task presentation* domain, one from *task nature*, one from *task relevance*, two from *task level*, one from *task materials*, one from *task-related feedback*, and one from *during-task teacher behavior*.

TABLE 4
Comparison between Teacher and Student Perceptions of Specific TRMS

Item	Label	Teacher (N = 96)		Student (N = 220)		U	z	p**	r
		Mdn (IQR)	Mean* Rank	*Mdn* (IQR)*	Mean Rank				
1-TN	Task authenticity	6.00 (2)	191.27	5.00 (2)	144.20	7414.50	-4.343	**.000**	**-.24**
2-TP	Task demonstration	6.00 (2)	208.46	5.00 (2)	136.70	5763.50	-6.579	**.000**	**-.37**
3-TR	Considering students' needs	6.00 (1)	186.73	5.00 (2)	146.18	7849.50	-3.719	**.000**	**-.20**
4-TL	Task manageability	6.00 (1)	200.06	5.00 (2)	140.36	6570.00	-5.465	**.000**	**-.30**
5-TL	Task difficulty adjustment	6.00 (1)	204.82	5.00 (2)	138.29	6113.50	-6.126	**.000**	**-.34**
7-TM	Authentic materials	5.00 (2)	133.76	6.00 (2)	169.30	8185.00	-3.265	**.001**	**-.18**
16-TP	Task variety	6.00 (1)	187.52	6.00 (1)	145.84	7774.50	-3.855	**.000**	**-.21**
24-TM	Task material variety	6.00 (2)	182.78	5.00 (2)	147.91	8229.50	-3.200	**.001**	**-.18**
31-TF	Immediate during-task feedback	3.00 (2)	127.17	4.00 (2)	172.17	7552.00	-4.085	**.000**	**-.23**
44-TB	Teacher's facilitator role	6.00 (2)	198.11	5.00 (2)	141.21	6757.00	-5.218	**.000**	**-.29**
47-TP	Clear task instructions	7.00 (1)	196.96	6.00 (2)	141.72	6867.50	-5.229	**.000**	**-.29**

Note. TP = task presentation; TN = task nature; TR = task relevance; TL = task level; TM = task materials; TF = task-related feedback; TB = teacher behavior during task time; * 7-point Likert scale (1 = *not important;* 7 = *extremely important*). ** Bonferroni-corrected *p*.

Reflective Journals

Task presentation

Of 27 comments from the teachers, the majority mentioned the importance of task instructions, indicating their major concern about giving succint, clear, and understandable instructions. This corroborates the survey result in which they rated this strategy as the most important. In contrast, Teachers 01, 02, 62, and 63 emphasized that unclear instructions due to teachers' insufficient awareness would not only affect other motivational values of a task such as interestingness but also factor into students' demotivation even before they do the task. Teacher 63's comment exemplifies key opinions.

> *The second feature of a successful task that can be considered is related to its clear instruction. In reality, some teachers have unintentionally ignored this and, as a result, failed to assign the task to students. In my view, despite how interesting the task is, if the instruction to it's not clear, students' motivation will be definitely dropped "heavily".* (Teacher 63)

Cognizant of the impacts of task instructions on students' initial motivation, some teachers gave suggestions for giving instructions. Teacher 63, for example, always stresses his voice for key task requirements such as detailing a procedure for achieving the task objective. Teacher 55 feels that it is important to "*rehearse sometimes to ensure that every step can go smoothly*". Other suggestions include using simple language and giving illustrative examples (Teacher 78), employing images and technologies such as Powerpoint (Teacher 21), raising the volume of voice (Teacher 53), and checking students' understanding to modify instructions (Teacher 02 & Teacher 62).

Five comments mentioned the necessity of demonstrating a task, one of the top-rated strategies, because verbal instructions alone do not allow students to fully understand how to proceed. In modelling, they advocated the cooperation between teachers and representative students (Teachers 01 & 02), and this is where they considered demonstration as "*vivid*" (Teacher 8).

Another repeated comment was that teachers should elaborate on why a task fits with students' need to learn a specific language feature and how completing the task can improve their knowledge of that feature (Teachers 01, 35 & 96). Teacher 35 alluded to the connection between linguistic content and non-linguistic outcomes, saying that in Vietnam, where a focus on forms is still pervasive, any communicative task with an intended non-linguistic objective should involve relevant and valuable language-related elements.

The teachers also commented on how various task types are expected to be. Teacher 95 stressed the importance of using a diversity of tasks and suggested an array of tasks for classroom use: interviews, songs, presentations, and art and craft such as drawing and presenting finished work. In using these tasks, the teacher placed an emphasis on "*a student-centered approach*" that drives the design and implementation of the activities. Also, varying task types should involve considerations as to which tasks are appropriate for individual work, pair work, or group work, and changing the way students do the tasks is also a way of preventing them from "*feeling overload with a series of [similar] tasks in a lesson*" (Teacher 8). Another consideration regarding task variety is the part this strategy plays in dealing with mixed-level classes, as commented by Teacher 35, who believes that "*varying the task types and task outcomes can support teachers in maximizing conditions for students at different levels.*"

By comparison, students produced 17 comments on *task presentation* strategies, with five of which mentioning the clarity of teachers' task instructions. Although clear task instructions were placed among teachers' and students' top-ten preferences, it is the strategy where their opinions differed at a statistically significant level. Instructions were deemed by the teachers as an essential initiator of students' motivation which affects their pursuit of task outcomes, yet students viewed it simply as part of "*a good task*" (Students 231 & 214).

Also different from teachers' suggestions for task instructions mentioned above, students' preferences relate to instructional language, body language, and interaction. Although using Vietnamese to present tasks was not favored by both teachers and students, as demonstrated by this strategy standing among the least rated, it is from students' perspectives necessary for them to gain a better understanding of instructions, especially in the case of "*some points that [they] don't understand*" (Student 212). Student 208 added that incorporating body language can make task instructions more interesting to them. In addition, Student 139 expressed a preference for presenting tasks in an interactive way that involves students' participation, while Students 208, 212, 213 and 214 underscored the necessity of offering relevant examples as a viable alternative.

Task level

22 teacher comments related to *task level*. A common thread was that the level of a task, to a large extent, affects students' investment in the task. Of the comments, 13 gave explanations as to why it is essential to adapt the difficulty of tasks to students' abilities. Teacher 02 noted that proper task level "*helps students enhance their understanding about the lesson in class*", while inappropriate task difficulty can hinder their intake of new knowledge. Second, teachers attributed the difficulty of a task to the level of language required to fulfill it, saying that if the level is too high, students "*cannot use appropriate language to deal with it*" (Teacher 01). Third, regarding the consequences of the excessive ease or difficulty of tasks, some teachers said that tasks that are far below students' current abilities may make them feel bored and mitigate their attention (Teacher 07) because they think their abilities are underestimated (Teacher 96). Conversely, when doing excessively difficult tasks, students may develop negative feelings such as helplessness and pessimism (Teacher 07), tend to doubt their ability (Teacher 96), or experience a fear of doing subsequent tasks (Teacher 08). Wrapping up this issue, Teacher 53 claimed that students do not have to "*live up to high expectations*" but in the classroom, they should feel a sense of accomplishment.

Concerning task challenge, Teachers 35, 39, 55, 65 acknowledged that a task can stimulate students' learning if it is just above their existing levels. Teacher 65 referred to the $i + 1$ formula (Krashen, 1982) as a way of making a task suitably challenging. Teacher 39 suggested mixing previously taught knowledge and new knowledge to that end. However, Teacher 35 cautioned that special heed should be paid to students' proficiency that suitable task challenge can contribute positively to the students' task engagement. The extract below represents their points of view.

> *I assume that the difficult level is just like the formula "i +1". By this I mean sometimes teachers can design the task like this to stimulate the students in challenging themselves and discover more new things.* (Teacher 65)

Another strategy receiving teachers' six comments was about the progression of task difficulty. They proposed two approaches: first, teachers should include both easy and challenging elements in a task, and second, they can use a series of tasks with increasing difficulty. They believe that by doing these, they can prevent students feeling shocked by task difficulty (Teacher 58), motivate both weak and strong students because every single student can complete at least a certain portion of the task (Teacher 62), and importantly, create a connection between the stages of the task and between different tasks (Teacher 44).

As regards students' opinion, of 20 comments identified, eight were about adjusting task difficulty, six about task challenge, and five about related tasks with increasing difficulty. Task difficulty adjustment was a strategy where teachers and students' opinions significantly differed. Students saw this strategy as less important than their teachers, not because of its low motivational value but because they are often at the receiving end of instruction and cannot therefore decide task difficulty. Some students complained that when teachers do not adjust task difficulty, they feel that their competence is inferior to task requirements (Student 146) and become disappointed and demotivated when comparing themselves with their better peers (Student 89). They accordingly expected teacher support with which they could deal with difficult tasks.

> *I'd like my teachers to explain more, demonstrate more for us to understand what to do. If all these things do not work, the teachers may downgrade the difficulty level of the given task by cutting down on some output requirements.* (Student 214)

> *I sometimes face some too easy or too hard tasks, and I always want my teacher to adjust it a bit. They'd explain more, give example, and even model so that I can know what to do in an effective way with the tasks.* (Student 208)

Besides, survey results showed that students differed from their teachers with respect to their rating of task challenge, deeming this strategy as less important than the teachers thought. Despite this, five students showed positive attitude toward challenging tasks and appreciated some benefits of being challenged. They commented that by seeing their peers work hard toward the goal of a challenging task, they feel motivated to contribute to their group's concerted effort (Student 136). Second, challenges allow students to realize what they can do well and what they cannot that they will expend proper efforts to bridge this gap (Students 211 & 77).

Increasing task difficulty was also mentioned by five students. Overall, they tended to think that tasks involving easy and challenging elements provide them with a sense of learning. Student 207 illustrates this point in his comment:

> *I feel like in the beginning, we'd start with something easy to warm up. Next we can move the harder levels, that makes me feel more challenging. Don't try to give students the tough problems for the first part, they absolutely feel tired though they haven't do anything yet because they'll feel like they come to the class to be challenged, not to absorb.*

Discussion

Teacher and Student Perceptions

Teachers most strongly endorsed *task level* strategies, as the survey results showed. In their journals, they believe that task difficulty exerts a direct, strong effect on students' learning experience. These suggest that they give prominence to the relationship between task difficulty and students' competence when preparing classroom tasks. Their perception reflects their approval of what Bandura (1997) termed as *self-efficacy*, which concerns the impacts of the immediate learning experience, task difficulty included, on students' perception of how well they can do the task by using their knowledge and skills. Students' judgement of their abilities is generally accepted to decide the amount of effort they expend in completing a task (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). The order of teacher-rated TRMS also matched their central tendency toward appreciating the importance of *task level*. The strategy of '*adapting the difficulty level of a task to students' abilities*' ranked second as a very important motivator. Further, teachers strongly agreed with the motivational power of this strategy in their journals, reporting that they avoided using excessively difficult or easy tasks to generate a can-do spirit among students. This high endorsement of *task level* strategies aligned largely with Dörnyei and Csizér (1988) and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), indicating the cross-cultural transferability of this practice. To regulate the difficulty of tasks, the teachers also suggested using tasks with increasing levels of difficulty to suit both high-efficacy and low-efficacy students. This is a sound practice reflecting Dörnyei's (2001) assertion that "if students have basic doubts about themselves, they will not be able to "bloom" as learners" (p. 87).

In addition, teachers attached equal importance to task manageability and task challenge, showing their shared perspective that although a task needs to be challenging enough to trigger students' conscious effort, the challenge it poses should remain at a level they can manage. This finding was supported by the journal data that reported teachers' use of the $i + 1$ formula (Krashen, 1994) in establishing the linguistic challenge of tasks. They also referred this formula to the challenging goal of a task for which students "need to solve problems, discover something, overcome obstacles, avoid traps, find hidden information" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 76). When oriented to a challenging goal, students tend to exert greater effort to go beyond their limits, as Yücel (2003) claimed.

Students gave the highest endorsement to *task relevance* strategies, viewing these as quite important motivators. Their concern about whether tasks address their needs and interests indicates the potential strength of these strategies in evoking their intrinsic motivation. This finds echo in Ryan and Deci's (2000) who claim that intrinsic motivation such as the desire to seek enjoyment and pleasure is the strongest driving force for the emergence and continuity of motivated behaviors. Relatedly, students positioned interesting tasks and fun-providing tasks among their most favored strategies, identifying with their counterparts in He (2009), Hsu (2016), and Kassing (2011), who expressed their predilection for stimulating tasks and a pleasant classroom atmosphere. The need to have pleasure is particularly important in EFL classrooms where students often experience fatigue, the pressure from studying for standardized tests, and the monotony of test-oriented activities.

Interestingly enough, survey results showed that students cared more about their interests than about their needs. This indicates that they tend to be more strongly motivated by their immediate learning experience than by pragmatic benefits such as the need for academic success. In their journals, they commented that tasks addressing their hobbies or interests are inspiring to them, thus lifting their learning spirits. This corroborates Dörnyei's (2001) postulation that adapting task contents to students' natural interests can make the task much more appealing. This finding however does not match the perception of Turkish students (Taşpınar, 2004) who prioritized their needs over their interests. Such a difference indicates the cultural and contextual sensitivity of this strategy.

Perceptual Convergences and Divergences

Comparison of central tendencies showed that the participants agreed on the motivational value of five TRMS domains: *task nature*, *task relevance*, *task materials*, *task-related feedback* and *during-task teacher behavior*, considering these as important generators of motivation. Item analysis also showed that teachers and students agreed on the importance of 77% of all the strategies. Such a substantial agreement indicates that they both considered the strategies as significant in motivating students in the classroom context. Although the link between how teachers actually practiced these strategies and the actual intensity of students' motivation was beyond the scope of this study, the participants' strong endorsement is indicative of the motivational potentials of the strategies. Indeed, research has shown the positive correlation between teachers' motivational teaching practice and observable increases in students' motivational state (Bernaus and Gardner, 2008; Guillautaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky et al., 2013).

Another similarity between teachers' and students' perceptions lies in their top-rated TRMS. They voted for six strategies about clear task instructions, task variety, teacher encouragement, task interestingness, interactive tasks, post-task feedback as robust motivators. Their shared perception gives credence to Madrid's (2012) assertion that use of strategies of mutual preference would result in increases in students' interest, attention, and satisfaction.

On the other hand, a closer look at the two top-ten lists showed that teachers gave high endorsement to the strategies related to task difficulty adjustment, task authenticity, teachers' facilitative role, and task demonstration. This appears to suggest that they value the importance of TRMS with a direct influence on students' task or academic outcomes. By comparison, the student-endorsed strategies such as teachers' readiness to answer questions, authentic materials, use of fun-providing tasks, and use of visual elements seemingly contribute more to positivizing their learning experiences than to advancing their learning outcomes. It is true in several cases that student motivation originates from their immediate learning experiences rather than from any other internal or external sources (Dörnyei, 2009; Ushitoda & Dörnyei, 2012).

Significant differences were found between teachers' and students' perceptions of eleven individual strategies, among which the former attached greater importance to nine than did the latter. Their different endorsements provide some indications. First, teachers might have efficiently used these strategies in their classes, thus holding a positive attitude to the effectiveness of the strategies (Taşpınar, 2004). Second, when teachers are trying to look for why their students lack motivation, they, as D'Elisa (2015) pointed out, tend to endorse several strategies. This might also be the case in EFL classrooms where teachers often witness students' low motivation due to test-oriented instruction and are therefore concerned more about what they can do to elevate the students' spirit. Another indication is that students put lower value on these strategies probably because their teachers do not practice the strategies sufficiently or effectively enough, as opposed to their greater expectation. It is true that students bring their own agendas and mindsets to the classroom that are always different than assumed by teachers (Nunan, 1995).

 Furthermore, teachers agreed more than their students did on the importance of *task presentation* and three related strategies: *giving clear task instructions for students*, *demonstrating how to complete tasks*, and *using a variety of tasks*. These strategies embody teachers' pedagogical competence, one of the essential qualities of being a good teacher in the eyes of Vietnamese students (Tran, 2015). In lots of EFL institutions in Vietnam, especially commercial English centers, students' evaluation of teacher performance decides the continuity of the teachers' service. Thus, the need to win students' heart with good instructions might explain why teachers are highly concerned about how to present and demonstrate tasks in a motivating way. As for task variety, although both teachers and students agreed that varying task types can diversify students' learning experience and maximize learning conditions for students at different levels, students considered this strategy much less important. This might be because EFL learning in the Vietnamese context depends largely on commercial textbooks whose activities are rather formally monotonous. When textbook activities are used as a principal source of learning, there is every chance that students will become gradually accustomed and therefore do not have a burning need for task variety despite their teachers trying to diversify tasks.

Finally, *task level* is where teachers' endorsement was greater than students' in terms of both the central tendencies and two related strategies: *adjusting the difficulty of tasks to suit students' abilities*, and *using tasks that are manageable for students*. Again, this perception reflects teachers' pedagogical practice. While the teachers believed in the *i* + 1 formula mentioned earlier, they accepted that adjusting the level of linguistic challenge prevents students losing motivation due to their negative attribution to their English abilities (cf. the attribution theory of Weiner, 1979). Students lowly rated these strategies probably because they are often at the receiving end of instruction and cannot therefore leave task difficulty to their discretion. Additionally, in their journals, while teachers associate task difficulty with linguistic burdens and try to manipulate the tasks linguistically, students tend to compare task difficulty with their self-perceived abilities. Research has shown that regular perceptions of excessive task difficulty results in lower self-perception of competence and lower levels of motivation (Eccles, 1983; Li, Lee, & Solmon 2007). However, from a cognitive perspective, use of a cognitively undemanding task in teaching cognitively competent students may undermine their engagement (Borg, 2016). Therefore, teachers may, when making too much adjustment to task difficulty, risk underestimating their students' cognitive abilities to perform the task.

A Model for Task-Related Motivational Teaching Practice

Since classroom tasks involve a process of different stages (pre-task, during-task, and post-task), TRMS can fit into each of these stages to perform their motivational roles. Similarly, the framework of Dörnyei (2001) groups different components of motivational teaching practice into four stages that correspond to the stages of classroom tasks. On the basis of this framework and the results of this study, a three-stage model for TRMS has been established. The first two stages of Dörnyei (2001)—creating initial conditions for motivation and generating motivation—can be collapsed into the pre-task stage. The third stage of maintaining and protecting motivation can be turned into the during-task stage. Encouraging retrospective evaluation, the fourth stage, corresponds to the post-task stage. The figure below presents a three-stage model involving the strategies highly endorsed by participating teachers and students. This model is an adapted version of the four-stage model by Dörnyei (2001) and it fits the data collected for this study.
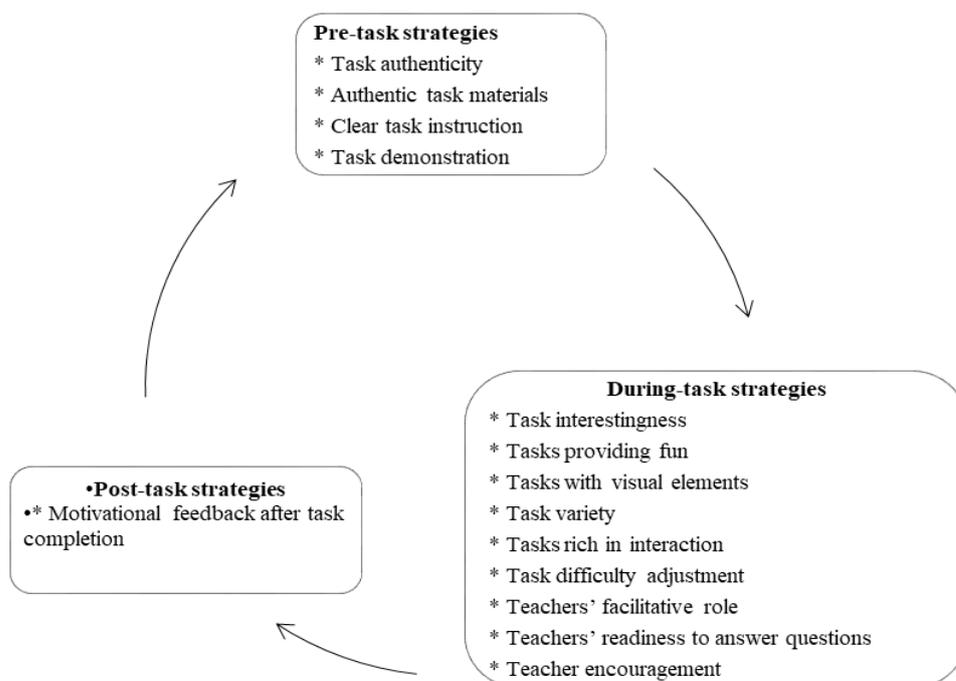

Figure 1. A model for task-related motivational teaching practice.

Pre-task strategies

These strategies can generate students' initial motivation. Without these generators, there would be little or even no force that drives students to proceed with a given task. *Authentic tasks* are useful for arousing students' instrumental motivation, because the fact that doing a task would enhance their knowledge and skills necessary for them to succeed in the future is a catalyst for them to take action. Use of *authentic task materials* can be effective in increasing students' integrative motivation. Frequent contact with cultural artifacts means frequent contact with the community of people with whom students wish to establish a relationship of some kind. *Clear task instructions* and *demonstration* are effective motivation generators. When learners gain a complete understanding of a task, its purposes and realistic contributions to their learning or their real lives, they will be poised to throw their efforts into completing the task.

During-task strategies

The strategies in this stage can maintain and protect students' motivation. *Task interestingness*, *fun*, *visuality*, and *variety*, for example, are the very good conditions for making learning enjoyable. The effects of test-oriented instruction can be addressed if teachers introduce appealing tasks to break routineness and monotony, while still making the tasks remain connected to intended content. Tasks that allow for copious *interaction* is also a motivational pedagogical choice, because the amount of interaction that the task brings about adds to the atmosphere of a classroom. *Adjusting task difficulty* is instrumental in regulating students' self-efficacy and self-esteem. When they believe in their ability to tackle some difficulty level of the task, they do so with self-confidence. In addition, *teachers' facilitating* plays a crucial role in an interactive class as they can help students and also give them more freedom to actively take charge of their tasks. *Teachers' readiness to answer students' questions* is part of their role as a facilitator. Additionally, the *encouragement* that teachers give during task time, besides mediating classroom interaction, is especially indispensable for motivating EFL students who often display communication anxiety and reluctance.

Post-task strategies

Basically, these strategies relate to feedback teachers provide about students' task performance. Feedback is extremely necessary because without it, students would feel confused about their learning and lose motivation to do subsequent tasks. *Post-task feedback* should not interrupt students as they are performing the task, while allowing teachers to paint a more accurate picture of students' strengths and weaknesses displayed in their task cycle to make better decisions as to appraisal and constructive evaluation.

It is necessary to note that this model is premised on Vietnamese teachers and students' perceptions. Many strategies in this model were also investigated in other cultures and contexts where their importance was perceived differently. This difference suggests that TRMS all have some level of cultural and contextual sensitivity, as Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and many subsequent studies have shown thus far. It is thus essential for teachers be aware of their specific student populations and of their teaching culture when they choose TRMS for their classroom practice.

Conclusion

Investigating how Vietnamese teachers and students perceived the importance of TRMS and how different their perceptions were, the study resulted in two top-ten list of strategies perceived by participants to be important motivators; six strategies from the two lists were the same. However, the

teachers consistently attached greater importance to these strategies than did the students. Also, the teachers tended to appreciate strategies affecting learning gains, while the students preferred those that influence their learning experiences. Most importantly, significant differences were found between the teachers' and the students' perception of *task presentation* and *task level* as well as 11 individual strategies, with the former considering most of these strategies to be more important than the latter did. These differences echo the results of some other studies conducted in the Asian EFL context (e.g., Wang and Lee, 2019) and provide pedagogical implications for motivational teaching practice in this context. First, strategies that teachers think are motivating may not be appreciated by students; therefore, it is important to conduct some strategy preference survey before an EFL course to better understand which strategies can be truly motivating. Second, the fact that teachers hold most of the TRMS in higher regard than students do suggests that students' expectations for motivational teaching practice are greater than they are thought to be, so teachers need to know how to use the strategies well enough to make them as motivating as expected. Finally, if a classroom task is a three-stage process (Dörnyei and Otto, 1998), then it is necessary for teachers to be aware of which TRMS to use in each stage. The model for task-related motivational teaching practice above can thus serve as a necessary reference for teachers in an EFL context to reconsider how they develop and improve students' motivation, especially when their initial level of motivation tends to decrease over time due to various factors such as learning difficulties, change of interest, or teacher and peer pressure (Hsu, 2019). However, the study did not look into the actual use of TRMS, nor did it examine the correlation between the importance and/or use of TRMS and students' motivational state, thus providing an interesting avenue for further research to throw more light on these issues.

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Appendix A

Qualtrics-hosted Survey

Below are the motivational teaching strategies involving *tasks* (activities used in the classroom to facilitate students' learning and promote their motivation to learn) that teachers can use to motivate students to learn English in the classroom. Click on ONE value in the range from 1-7 to indicate the importance level of each strategy.

1 = *Not important*	5 = *Quite important*
2 = *Slightly important*	6 = *Very important*
3 = *Somewhat important*	7 = *Extremely important*
4 = *Important*	

No.	Strategies	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

To motivate students to learn with tasks, Vietnamese teachers of English should:

Task presentation (TP)

2*	Demonstrate how to complete tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
48*	Give choices to students while presenting tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16*	Use a variety of tasks in class.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
47*	Give clear instructions for tasks to students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22*	Explain the purpose of every task.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30	Show students how each task contributes to their language learning goals.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
43	Use Vietnamese to present tasks when necessary.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Task nature (TN)

1*	Use authentic tasks that prepare students for real-life applications.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29*	Raise students' curiosity by introducing surprising tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15*	Use game-like competitions in class.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23*	Use tasks that allow students to interact with one another in English.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17	Include visual elements in tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
46	Use tasks that require students to work together in groups.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21	Use tasks in which students need to work together outside the classroom.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36	Use tasks that students need to use technology (i.e. computer) to complete.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	Use tasks that need students to use their creativity to complete.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37	Use tasks that offer opportunity to move around in the classroom.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Tasks' relevance to students' needs and interests (TR)

3*	Consider students' needs rather than tests while presenting tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18*	Consider students' interests rather than tests while presenting tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
45*	Use tasks that are interesting to students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14*	Use tasks that allow students to have fun in the classroom.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Task level (TL)

5*	Adjust the difficulty level of tasks to students' abilities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19*	Make tasks challenging enough for students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25*	Use tasks that are within students' competence.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4*	Use tasks that are manageable for students.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28	Use a series of tasks with increasing levels of difficulty.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Task materials (TM)

24	Offer a variety of task materials.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20	Use task materials that introduce the cultures of English-speaking countries.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27	Use task materials that include the elements of the Vietnamese culture.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	Use authentic materials produced by native English speakers for real-life communicative purposes such as a newspaper article.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	Use task materials that introduce new language forms.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	Provide task materials for students to prepare outside the classroom.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Feedback on task performance (TF)

8	Organize peer feedback about task performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26	Give feedback on students' task performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13	Review students' language used for completing tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
39	Provide feedback on students' group work for task completion.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
31	Give immediate feedback while students are doing tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
41	Give feedback after students have completed tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11	Comment on the overall task performance of each group.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33	Comment on the task performance of each individual student.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

During-task teacher behavior (TB)

44	Act as a facilitator as students are doing tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
42	Be ready to answer questions from students during task time.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34	Participate as much as possible with students in completing tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12	Interact with individual students during task time.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
40	Encourage students to speak during task time.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32	Mediate the talking time among students when they are doing tasks together.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38	Draw students' attention to task contents.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35	Encourage students' expectancy of success in particular tasks.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Note. * Items adapted from Taşpınar (2004).

Appendix B

Reflective Journal Writing

Reflect on your experience, write a journal (a maximum of 2 pages) expressing your opinion about the motivational strategies involving tasks (classroom activities) that teachers may use to motivate students to learn English in the classroom. You can use the questions below to guide your writing, but you can add any new ideas that you think are relevant.

Questions for Teachers	Questions for Students
1. What are the characteristics of a task that can motivate your students to learn in the classroom?	1. What are the characteristics of a task that can motivate you to learn in the classroom?
2. Is it important to make tasks relevant to your students' personal needs and interests? Why?	2. Is it important for tasks to be relevant to your personal needs and interests? Why?
3. Does the difficulty level of a task affect your students' motivation to learn? If yes, how should you address this issue?	3. Does the difficulty of tasks used in the classroom affect your motivation to learn? If yes, what do you expect your teacher to do about this?
4. How should you design task materials that are motivating to your students?	4. How should your teachers design task materials that are motivating to you?
5. How should you present tasks in order to motivate your students to learn?	5. How should your teachers present tasks in order to motivate you to learn?
6. How should you organize and provide feedback about your students' task performance in the way that is motivating to them?	6. How should your teachers organize and provide feedback about your task performance in the way that is motivating to you?
7. While your students are doing tasks in the classroom, what do you think you should do to motivate them?	7. While you are doing tasks in the classroom, what do you expect your teachers to do to motivate you?