School of Education

Mentoring a teacher's innovation with task-based language teaching in an Indonesian secondary school

Ariatna
0000-0002-9199-376X

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – updated March 2014.

The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00262), Approval Number: HRE2019-0103.

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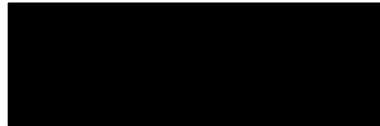
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Abstract

The purpose of the classroom-based research project was to develop my expertise as a teacher educator by conducting a professional development programme for one teacher who was introduced to Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in his Indonesian secondary school. The project took the form of a case study investigating the extent to which this teacher was successful in devising and implementing a task-based syllabus in his own classroom and the extent to which the instruction was effective in developing his students' English language competence.

The project utilised a mixed-methods approach involving qualitative and quantitative methods. The teacher was observed and interviewed qualitatively, and the students' language achievement and attitudes were measured quantitatively. The data mixing was undertaken to examine both the processes experienced by the teacher and the students when TBLT was introduced and the learning outcomes resulting from the task-based treatment.

The task-based language teaching programme was conducted for 12 weeks in a Junior High School in Medan, Indonesia. Before the programme began, I administered an English language background questionnaire and a pre-test to the students, held a preliminary interview with the teacher, and prepared the teacher for task-based language teaching in a 2-day workshop. In the first 6 weeks, I provided the teacher with six ready-made task-based lessons and observed each lesson that he taught. At the end of each lesson, I held a discussion with the teacher, where I provided feedback on his teaching practices. I also wrote a journal entry reflecting on any events indicative of the teacher's progressive understanding of task-based language teaching. At the end of the 6th week, the students were tested and completed a questionnaire about their TBLT experience. In the second 6 weeks, I involved the teacher in the construction of his own task-based syllabus and observed him implementing the tasks that he had developed. As in the first 6 weeks, I provided feedback after each lesson. At the end of the 12th week, I administered a final test and questionnaire to the task-based students and a comparison group who had continued to be taught traditionally. I also held an exit interview with the teacher.

The teacher developed a good understanding of TBLT. Most of the task-based materials that he constructed satisfied the requirements for a task, and there was an increase in task complexity over the final six lessons when the teacher was in charge of designing the tasks. His tasks drew on familiar topics, but they lacked variety and continuity.

Concerning task implementation, the classroom observations indicate that, in the main, the teacher was able to make changes to how he organised task activities over time by using his native language to support the students' understanding and performance of the tasks and ensuring his questions were like those normally used in natural communication. He was also able to effectively utilise both Negotiation of Meaning (NoM) and Negotiation of Form (NoM) strategies. Findings from the interview data suggest that the teacher developed a good understanding of TBLT and reacted positively to the new approach. It was clear that the teacher had come to acknowledge the feasibility of introducing task-based language teaching to the Indonesian context and had developed a sense of ownership of the TBLT innovation. The student questionnaire showed that, in general, the students reacted positively to all aspects of the input-based and output-based tasks they completed and that their attitude towards task-based language teaching remained positive throughout the 12 weeks of the programme. Regarding learning outcomes, the test results showed that the Task-Based Group performed better than the Traditional Group in listening, speaking and story-telling skills and in a more limited way in vocabulary.

In the Conclusion Chapter, I reflect on what I learned as a teacher educator by drawing on Ellis's (1997a) list of 10 criteria for innovation and proposing an in-service training programme for TBLT teachers in Indonesia. My experience of working with the teacher in the 12-week task-based programme showed me that replacing form-focused practices with task-based practices takes time and needs the continuous support of school stakeholders. The key elements of my project were the training workshop, the provision of ready-made task-based materials, the school-based practicum, the regular classroom observations, and the feedback sessions.

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Another word of appreciation goes to the school where my research project took place. Special thanks to the principal who approved the research implementation in the school, the teachers who volunteered their time to work closely with me throughout the research programme and the students who willingly participated in the research activities. I sincerely hope that the school and research participants greatly benefitted from the research experience.

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"Great things are not done by one person. They are done by a team of people" (Steve Jobs).

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Chapter 1. Introduction

This thesis reports a study to investigate how I can help teachers innovate with Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and develop my own abilities as a teacher educator. To this end, I undertook a case study where I provided assistance to one teacher who innovated with TBLT in his own classroom and explored how successful the teacher was. The study, conducted in an Indonesian secondary school, also examined to what extent task-based language teaching was effective in improving Indonesian EFL students' communicative proficiency in English.

In this chapter, I will briefly introduce the rationale for conducting this study. First, I will provide some arguments for choosing an Indonesian secondary school as the educational context for my project. Second, I will talk about my personal motivation for undertaking the study. Third, I will outline the gaps in research on TBLT which inspired this study and finally provide a summary of the contents of the chapters in the thesis.

1.1 The rationale for the introduction of TBLT in an Indonesian context

In line with the increasing use of English around the globe, the teaching of English has been mandated from primary level to tertiary level in many countries where English is taught as a foreign language. In their efforts to improve the quality of English education, the educational authorities in these countries have made changes to the English curriculum in the hope that they will result in better teaching practice and student performance. Task-based language teaching has become a preferred option in many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) countries. Because of the general dissatisfaction with grammar-based instruction, which was seen as failing to enable students to function effectively in English, and the theoretical reasons for claiming that TBLT is successful in developing students' communicative competence, policymakers have sought to incorporate task-based language teaching into the curriculum (Butler, 2011).

In the Indonesian context, the introduction of task-based language teaching is particularly relevant for two major reasons:

1. *Task-based language teaching offers ample opportunities for communicative language learning in the foreign language context*. In the Indonesian context, where English is not commonly used outside of the classroom, exposure to English can be optimised in the

classroom through task-based activities. While input-based tasks serve as a rich source of comprehensible input, output-based tasks provide opportunities for learners to communicate using the target language (L2) (Nunan, 1989, 2004; Prabhu, 1987). Task-based activities provide opportunities for experiencing the communicative use of English, which are not available outside the classroom for most students.

2. *Tasks can work well not only with advanced-level students but also with beginner-level students*. Despite the belief among some language educators that task-based language teaching is not suited for learners with limited proficiency in English (Carless, 2004; Littlewood, 2007), research has shown that TBLT can be introduced successfully with low-level learners through input-based tasks (Shintani, 2012a, 2014, 2016). In Indonesia, the formal teaching of English in local schools starts from the first year of Junior High School. In my research, the student participants were studying in their first year of Junior High School. They were false beginners in English because they had had limited experience with the English language. By using input-based tasks, TBLT can be made suitable for learners at the beginning of high school.

1.2 Personal motivation for conducting the task-based programme

In addition to the reasons above, my project was inspired by reasons that reflect my experience as an EFL learner and educator. I started learning English in my Junior High School as a complete beginner. Three years of English instruction in Junior High School did not help me learn English because I was not motivated to learn. I would not say I liked the way it was taught (i.e. through repetition, memorisation, and language exercises). In many cases, the failure to memorise lexical items or grammatical structures resulted in the teacher's punishment. In my eyes, English was a tedious and frightening subject. When I was in Senior High School, however, my view of the English language completely changed because I had a teacher who was able to show that learning English was fun and beneficial. Instead of asking us to memorise 'tenses formulae' and do related grammatical exercises in the book, my new English teacher invited us to talk about our personal experiences and share them with the class. Correction of errors occurred in the context of a class discussion and took place only after we had completed our presentation at the end of a lesson. The teacher often told us about the importance of English as an international language and how learning English would benefit us in our further studies abroad or seeking jobs in Indonesia. Learning English in these enjoyable and communicative situations enhanced my motivation in learning English and my participation in classroom activities. I became more confident to talk in English, and my English proficiency improved significantly. My experience of being an EFL learner taught me an important

lesson for my future career as an EFL educator; that is, teachers play a vital role in creating a comfortable learning environment for students and thus should find ways of making English interesting and relevant to their lives. I understood that if students find learning English pleasant and useful, their engagement and ability in the language will increase.

Upon completion of secondary school, I entered university where I majored in the English language because I wanted to deepen my knowledge and skills in the language, an essential requirement to become an English language teacher. In the second year of my university, I took up a part-time job in a local English institute teaching English to young learners and adults because I felt that to be a good English teacher, I needed to have an experience of teaching the language. There were two kinds of classes offered in the course I taught: a grammar class and a conversation class. The former aimed to provide students with additional grammar lessons so that they would be prepared for the nationally-run grammar-based exam. The latter aimed to improve students' general speaking skills. At first, I taught both classes in the course, but finally, I chose to teach conversation only. I was not comfortable teaching grammar to students due to my anxiety-ridden experience of learning English at school. During my teaching years, I tried to develop professionally as an English teacher by attending short seminars or workshops held by the English institute because my university did not provide in-depth classes on pedagogy. I also often consulted my senior colleagues when I had classroom problems. Because different teachers/mentors suggested different strategies, I formed a mixture of beliefs about how English should be best taught to students. As a result, I experimented with different activities and techniques that might work for my students. In short, my approach to teaching at the time was probably close to what Mellow (2002) described as 'unconstrained pluralism', that is, "the eclectic use of activities presumably without the use of a single-theory or contextual considerations" (p. 1). After completing my undergraduate study, I continued to adopt this approach, but I was not entirely happy with what I had done because I did not understand the rationale for my classroom practices. In other words, I taught English based on local tradition and culture without an understanding that comes from theory and research.

Realising that I was in need of more profound pedagogic knowledge and skills in English, I continued my study in Australia where I did my Master's degree in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) at Flinders University on an Australian scholarship. During my 2-year postgraduate study, I was introduced to different approaches to language teaching and came to realise that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was well-suited to the Indonesian context. My Master's thesis was concerned with the need to adopt CLT in Indonesia, given its benefits in improving language competence through communicative-based activities.

Soon after I finished my Master's degree, I was accepted as an English lecturer in Universitas Negeri Medan, a state-owned university in Medan that specialises in producing future teachers. By being a teacher educator, I believed that I would have the opportunity to contribute to English teaching in Indonesia by improving the quality of teaching. At that time, the English syllabus used in the university consisted of two main categories: skill-development subjects (e.g. listening, speaking, reading and writing subjects) and theory-enrichment subjects (e.g. psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, translation, and TEFL). In the final semester, students were required to do a teaching practicum, conduct research at a school of their choice and write a thesis based on their investigation at that school.

During my tenure as an English lecturer, I was given more opportunities to teach skill-development subjects by my English department. Here, I tried to apply the CLT concepts that I had learned in my Master's study (e.g. communicative competence, meaningful communication, fluency, and spontaneity (Brown, 2007)). However, at the practical level, I had to deal with local constraints such as the existing structural syllabuses and students who were not used to learning in this way. Luckily, in many cases, I could cope with these problems by making some adjustments to my teaching practice and teaching materials. My commitment at the time was that no matter how hard the contextual barriers were, I would try to include communicative elements in my teaching. In addition to teaching on campus, I was also involved in several off-campus teacher professional development programmes where I acted as a facilitator for practising primary and secondary school teachers on a number of practical topics such as how to deal with large classes, how to make learning content more enjoyable, and how to promote communication in the classroom. These professional development programmes were funded by international agencies focusing on the development of education in Indonesia, especially in the area of English language education.

Working with teacher candidates on campus and with in-service teachers off-campus had not only provided me with valuable information about what teachers feel and experience but had also forced me to think about how to best support professional development for English teachers. I recognised the need to develop my own skillset as a teacher educator. For example, I needed to learn how to assist teachers in planning a teaching programme and implementing it in their own classrooms. I also needed to learn how to provide ongoing support for teachers in their transition from a synthetic to an analytic approach (this is described later in Chapter 3). My limited knowledge and skills in this field inspired me to pursue my doctoral study in the hope that I could contribute to the development of professional training programmes for English teachers in Indonesia in a more principled way.

My doctoral study at Curtin University brought me into contact with task-based language teaching as the methodological realisation of communicative language teaching (Nunan, 2004). Together with my supervisors, I developed a task-based programme for an Indonesian secondary school. The programme involved providing assistance to a local English language teacher in designing a task-based syllabus and implementing it in his own classroom. It was undertaken in two main stages: the pilot and main programmes. The pilot programme was conducted over 4 weeks to trial the research materials and methods that would be finally used in the main project. The main project, carried out over 12 weeks or three months after the pilot programme, drew on the practical issues that arose during the pilot programme's implementation. After my supervisors and I had finalised the preparation of the project and obtained ethics approval from Curtin University, I began contacting some Junior High Schools in Medan, Indonesia, to participate in the programme. Out of three schools that I contacted, one school confirmed its willingness to participate in the programme.

1.3 Addressing gaps in research concerning TBLT

The increasing adoption of task-based language teaching by EFL countries has driven language learning researchers to investigate different aspects of its implementation. However, to date, two important areas have remained under-researched: the practicality of TBLT for low-proficiency learners and the provision of TBLT-teacher preparation programmes. Therefore, the last reason that led me to conduct this project was the desire to address gaps in the research related to the introduction of TBLT to beginner-level learners and the development of TBLT teacher learning programmes, especially in the Indonesian context.

Although extensive research has been carried out on task-based language teaching, few studies (e.g. Prabhu, 1987; Shintani, 2013, 2014) have investigated how TBLT works with beginners. In his longitudinal India-based study, Prabhu was able to demonstrate that task-based language teaching could be introduced to beginning-level students through a series of task-based activities sequenced from simple to more complex ones. Shintani's (2014) task-based work with primary school-aged children in Japan has also shown that "task-based teaching was possible with these complete beginners" (p. 279) and that "in the case of beginning-level learners, task-based teaching is best operationalised in terms of comprehension-based rather than production-based tasks" (Shintani, 2013, p. 36). In the Indonesian context, however, I have only been able to find one account of task-based work with beginners in English. This practitioner-research study was conducted by Fachrurrazy (2000) with his own elementary school students. He claimed that "the students were seen enthusiastic in doing the activities" (p. 75) in the listen-and-do task that he designed.

Another area that has received little attention from researchers is teacher-preparation programmes for TBLT. Studies in the field of professional development for TBLT have mainly focused on programmes conducted outside the teachers' own institutions (e.g. Brandl, 2016; Erlam, 2015; Roessingh, 2014). Little research has dealt with *in situ* coaching of TBLT teachers (e.g. Van den Branden, 2006; Zhu, 2020). In his report on the long-term Flemish Project, Van den Branden outlined the benefits of delivering classroom-based professional development for TBLT teachers because it enabled them to see that the task-based learning content they had studied was applicable to their actual classroom practices and that they had learned a lot from the feedback given by the school counsellor in post-lesson sessions. Zhu reported a 6-week action research study where she collaborated with a Chinese teacher in formulating and teaching a task-based syllabus for primary school students. Despite the contextual constraints that the teacher encountered, the on-site coaching helped to enhance her sense of ownership of the task-based innovation. I have not been able to identify reports of similar TBLT teacher preparation programmes in Indonesia.

Given these gaps in information about how best to implement TBLT, I hoped that working with the teacher in designing and implementing the task-based programme would help me develop a set of guidelines for the professional development of TBLT teachers in Indonesia. In particular, my project sought to:

1. foster my self-development as a teacher educator of TBLT through conducting a case study of a training programme for one teacher.
2. lead to practical guidelines for local teachers and other EFL practitioners about how to design and teach a task-based course.
3. inform the development of professional learning programmes for TBLT teachers in Indonesia and other EFL contexts.
4. lay a foundation for future researchers to carry out similar studies to address other issues about how to innovate with TBLT in Indonesia and other EFL countries.

To sum up, the impetus for this study drew on a number of sources:

1. Evidence-based theories that support the adoption of TBLT in Indonesia.
2. My personal experience as an EFL learner and educator has taught me that English is most likely to result in genuine communicative ability if it is task-based.

3. The existence of gaps in the literature on implementing TBLT, particularly the lack of information about how to implement TBLT with limited-proficiency learners and about TBLT teacher preparation programmes.

1.4 Summary of the thesis

Chapter 2 provides a historical sketch of the introduction of TBLT in Indonesia, the theoretical framework for innovation and the issues surrounding the implementation of TBLT. In particular, this chapter examines the factors that contribute to the success of an innovation and reviews a number of studies that have reported successful innovations. This chapter concludes with some thoughts about how TBLT can be successfully introduced in the Indonesian context.

Chapter 3 reviews the literature on teacher professional development in general and professional development for language teachers. It also reviews accounts of task-based programmes designed for task-based language teachers. The chapter begins by conceptualising what teacher professional development involves and proceeds with a discussion of general principles associated with successful programmes. I review several professional development models and discuss the factors affecting professional development programmes for task-based language teaching.

Chapter 4 concerns the methods used for the study. It includes information about the instructional context of the study, the research participants, and the instruments and procedures used to collect data. There is also a discussion of the pilot study that I conducted prior to the commencement of the main study. I mention the actions I took to ensure my research satisfied the ethical requirements of Curtin University. The chapter concludes with an account of how the various types of data I collected were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively.

Chapter 5 presents the research findings for Research Question 1. It addresses the teacher's own task-based syllabus, his implementation of TBLT, and the trainer's reflective journal. It provides an analysis of the teacher's own syllabus based on three indicators (i.e. task-basedness, task variety, and task appropriateness and progression) and an analysis of four aspects of the teacher's implementation of TBLT (i.e. task-management activities, the use of the native language (L1), teacher's questions, and focus on form). From the journal entries I kept during the course of the project, four other aspects of the teacher's implementation of TBLT were examined (i.e. introducing

the topic of a task, teaching strategies, corrective feedback, and extension activities). This chapter ends with a discussion of the research findings.

Chapter 6 provides the research findings for Research Question 2, i.e. the teacher's own opinions about task-based language teaching. The first part of this chapter discusses the data obtained from the preliminary interview and the second part of the chapter examines the teacher's exit interview data. A discussion of the results from both interviews is provided at the end of the chapter.

Chapter 7 reports the research findings for Research Question 3 (i.e. it explores the students' responses to the task-based instruction). It provides an analysis of the students' reactions to questions about the input-based tasks, output-based tasks and task-based language teaching in general. At the end of the chapter, there is a discussion of the overall questionnaire results.

Chapter 8 presents the research findings for Research Question 4 (i.e. it examines the students' learning outcomes). This chapter begins with an overview of the Comparison Group and moves on to provide an analysis of the students' test results in four sections: listening, speaking, story-telling, and vocabulary. This chapter ends with a discussion of the research findings for each test.

Chapter 9 concludes the thesis by summarising the study's findings, the implications for the development of teacher preparation programmes, the limitations of the project and some suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2. Innovating with TBLT

2.1 Introduction

Over the past few decades, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has generated a considerable amount of interest among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) researchers and educators across the globe. It is a language teaching approach which is firmly rooted in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories (Ellis, 2009a), has developed "within the communicative approach" (Littlewood 2004, p. 324), and can be regarded as "a realization of the CLT philosophy at the levels of syllabus design and methodology" (Nunan, 2004, p. 10). In many EFL and ESL countries where form-focused instruction is the established teaching approach, TBLT constitutes an innovation. Unsurprisingly, the implementation of task-based programmes in these institutional contexts has often encountered local barriers (Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007), including in Indonesia (Fachrurrazy, 2000). Contextual obstacles to its successful implementation include incompetent teachers, low student motivation, lack of teaching time, big-sized classes, a form-oriented syllabus, and discrete-point examinations (Ariatna, 2016; Bradford, 2007; Larson, 2014). It is for this reason that many educational experts (e.g. Carless, 2004; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; R. Hu, 2013) conducted evaluation studies (i.e. what Long (2015, p. 341) called 'descriptive' studies) to examine the extent to which TBLT works in specific instructional contexts. Other scholars (e.g. Beretta & Davies, 1985; De Ridder et al., 2007; Shintani, 2016) conducted studies comparing TBLT with some other teaching approaches (i.e. what Long (2015, p. 341) referred to as 'experimental' studies) in order to investigate the learning outcomes of the different approaches and to determine which approach is the most effective.

This chapter will review the literature on the introduction of TBLT as an innovation. For that purpose, I will first address the introduction of TBLT in Indonesia and discuss several general factors that determine an innovation's success. Then I will review a number of descriptive and comparative studies and provide evidence of successful innovation. At the end of this chapter, I will describe how TBLT might be introduced successfully in an Indonesian secondary school classroom for students whose English proficiency is low – the focus of the study I report in this thesis.

2.2 TBLT as innovation

For many teachers who work in EFL instructional contexts, including Indonesia, TBLT can be considered an innovation. Carless (2013) defined innovation as "an attempt to bring about educational improvement by doing something which is perceived by implementers as new or

different" (p. 1). Carless goes on to say that innovation in language education can take the form of new teaching approaches, an updated syllabus, technology-supported learning, different assessment options, and the extension of English language teaching in EFL settings. These aspects of innovation, which Markee (1997, p. 46) referred to as 'curricular innovation', are primarily aimed at enabling teachers to provide more effective language teaching for students.

As an example of curricular innovation, task-based language teaching entails radical changes to traditional teaching methods. Traditional teacher-fronted methods such as the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods have dominated English language education in many Asian countries for years (Griffiths, 2001; Littlewood, 2007). They are synthetic in nature because they teach the target language (i.e. pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary) in discrete units and a linear fashion (i.e. what Long (1991) called *focus on forms*). In these structural approaches to language teaching, language is treated as an object to be taught to students, and there is often little or no chance for students to communicate in the target language. As a result, form-focused instruction of these kinds has become the subject of criticism because it fails to result in communicatively competent school graduates (Astika, 2000; Butler, 2011). TBLT has appeared on the ELT scene as an optional approach that seeks to enhance communicative competence in a second or foreign language by providing "conditions in which learners engage in an effort to cope with communication" through a sequence of meaningful tasks (Prabhu, 1987, p. 1). Tasks actuate the use of the L2 (target language) where "the user's attention is focused on meaning rather than grammatical form" (Nunan, 2004, p. 4). To put it another way, TBLT includes meaning-based language activities concentrating on learners' efforts to communicate to achieve an outcome other than displaying linguistic accuracy (Willis & Willis, 2007).

Central to TBLT is the construct of 'task'. Ellis (2003) proposes four definitional criteria for a task: (1) focus on meaning, (2) existence of an information/reasoning/opinion gap, (3) students' reliance on their own linguistic resources, and (4) a communicative outcome. In task-based language teaching, learners communicate and interact in the L2 to express meaning by utilising their linguistic knowledge (Nunan, 2004). Furthermore, TBLT gives an ample chance for students to use the target language naturally in order to improve their fluency by implementing communicative strategies to solve language issues (Willis, 1996). Although TBLT promotes communicative practices in the classroom, it is important to note that it does not abandon grammar. In fact, "there is plenty of grammar in TBLT. What is missing, however, is the explicit teaching of grammar" (Ellis, 2018a, p. 31). As a general approach, TBLT allows for various ways of implementation. At the practical level,

two versions of TBLT came into existence: a strong version and a weak version. The strong version of TBLT, or what Ellis (2003) called *task-based language teaching*, places tasks as the building units of a task-based syllabus while the weak version or what Ellis referred to as *task-supported language teaching* incorporates tasks into the teaching of a structural-based syllabus. In other words, although TBLT tenets are broadly recognised at the level of theory, TBLT implementation might differ from one instructional context to another. Ellis (2009) acknowledged the possible variation in TBLT practices by saying that "there is no single way of doing TBLT" (p. 224), and thus it is possible to adapt TBLT to a particular teaching context (Harris, 2018; Kim, 2019). It follows that innovation stakeholders can adopt what Adamson and Davison (2003, p.31) called 'accommodation' or 'creative co-construction' (i.e. an approach to innovation in which teachers and schools work together to adjust or localise the content of innovation to suit local needs).

The potential that TBLT has for improving learners' proficiency in English has generated interest among policymakers worldwide, including in Asia. Many Asian countries have adopted a task-based approach as a central element of their curricula in the last few decades. Hong Kong, for example, announced its official adoption of TBLT for primary education in 1997 and secondary education in 1999 (Carless, 2007). Mainland China incorporated task-based teaching into their national English Language Standards in 2001 (R. Hu, 2013), and Korea's national English curriculum has been developed in line with TBLT tenets (Lee, 2005). The results of Nunan's (2003) survey point to the adoption of CLT/TBLT in other Asian countries such as Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam. Aspects that the Asian governments have incorporated in their curricular innovation include communicative competence, student-centred learning, learners' autonomy and the importance of teaching communication strategies to learners (Adams and Newton, 2009) – all of which have a central place in TBLT. To quote Long (2016), "there is a growing recognition in the language policy of some east Asian countries of the importance of communicative language abilities" (p. 26).

Nevertheless, when TBLT is introduced in EFL settings like Indonesia, the general principles that underlie TBLT, such as student-centredness, communicative activities, and process-based assessments, often conflict with the local values of teacher-centredness, grammatical exercises and product-based evaluations (Carless, 2012; Griffiths, 2001). Adams and Newton (2009) outlined a number of factors that inhibit the introduction of TBLT in Asian countries, which include institutional factors, classroom factors, teachers' understanding of what constitutes a 'task' and teacher development. The institutional factors refer to the national testing formats and the support

provided by the institution where TBLT is implemented. Chow and Mok-Cheung (2004), for example, point out that form-focused examinations have hindered TBLT innovation in Hong Kong. Similarly, Zhang (2007) asserts that English language teaching innovation in China will not take place smoothly unless adequate institutional support in the form of sustained professional developments is available to local teachers.

Classroom factors have also been seen as barriers to TBLT implementation in Asian settings. Jeon and Hahn (2006) reported Korean teachers' viewed large class sizes as an obstacle to task-based teaching. Another classroom factor that hinders the introduction of TBLT is the mixed ability found in language classes. Chao and Wu (2008) found out that Taiwanese teachers had problems choosing appropriate types of tasks due to their students' different levels of proficiency. The last set of factors has to do with tasks and teacher development. This involves teachers' understanding of tasks and their readiness and ability to facilitate TBLT innovation in their classroom. In a Hong Kong-based study, Clark et al. (1999) claimed that the local teachers' poor understanding of TBLT impeded the introduction of TBLT. Moreover, Korean teachers admitted that they were not prepared to move from the role of teacher-as-instructor to that of facilitator as it required too much preparation time (Jeon & Hahn, 2006) and a high level of English proficiency on their part (D. Li, 1998).

The range of local obstacles experienced by Asian teachers attempting to implement TBLT has also been noted by other EFL scholars (e.g. Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007). In general, they point to similar factors. Littlewood (2007), for example, mentioned five concerns in implementing TBLT in some East Asian instructional contexts: 1) classroom management (e.g. noise and discipline problems (Carless, 2004); students' rejection of communicative activities (C. Li, 2003)), 2) avoidance of English (e.g. students' reliance on their first language (Lee, 2005); teacher's lack of confidence in using the target language (Samimy & Kobayaski, 2004)), 3) traditionally minimal demands on the students' linguistic abilities (Carless, 2004; Lee, 2005), 4) incompatibility with public assessment demands (e.g. washback from the national knowledge-based exams (Gorsuch, 2000; Shim & Baik, 2004)), and 5) conflict with educational values and traditions (e.g. teacher-controlled classroom versus student-centred learning (G.W. Hu, 2005; Samimy & Kobayaski, 2004)). In a similar vein, Butler (2011) discussed the challenges of TBLT implementation in the Asia-Pacific Region, classifying them into three main categories: 1) conceptual constraints, which include contradictions with local philosophies (Miller, 1995) and misunderstandings about task-based language teaching (D. Li, 1998), 2) classroom-level constraints which include large class sizes (Nishino, 2008) and lack of resources (Butler, 2005), and 3) societal-institutional level constraints which include curricular and assessment options (Cheng, 2004; Qi, 2007).

From these reviews, we can conclude that when a teaching innovation is introduced in an instructional context, it is likely to face a number of local constraints. The introduction of TBLT in Indonesia is no exception (Griffiths, 2001). In what follows, I will describe how TBLT found its way to Indonesia.

2.3 The introduction of TBLT in Indonesia

The introduction of TBLT in Indonesia cannot be fully understood without reviewing the developments of English Language Teaching (ELT) in the country. The history of ELT in Indonesia can be traced back to the Dutch colonial period. During this time, only a small number of Indonesians (children of local officials and influential people) were allowed to attend Dutch-administered schools. As a result, English was not taught to Indonesians until the first secondary school in the country was established in 1914 (Lauder, 2008). When the Japanese occupied Indonesia in the Second World War, the teaching of all European languages, including English, was forbidden throughout the country (Smith, 1991). Soon after Indonesia gained its independence in 1945, the Indonesian government focused on state-administration matters, and little attention was given to educational matters, including English language teaching. The initial formal mention of English as a Foreign Language was made by the first Head of Central Inspectorate of English Language Instruction in 1955 at a teacher-training conference (Komaria, 1998), but it was not given a clear status in national legislation until 1967. Based on the Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture number 096 of 1967, English was declared the first foreign language to be taught in Indonesia (Nurkamto, 2003). Two decades later, the first law to formalise the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) was issued. The National Education System Law number 2 of 1989 stated that English is a compulsory subject to be taught from the primary to tertiary levels but may be taught to lower levels of education depending on the local school's policy (Alwasilah, 1997).

Following the formalisation of English Language Teaching (ELT) in schools in 1989, the Indonesian Educational Board amended ELT objectives in keeping with current pedagogical theories and practices. While the chief goal of English instruction in the 60s, 70s and 80s was to improve students' reading skills to enable them to read English written textbooks (Madya, 2007; Renandya, 2004), subsequent English curricula (i.e. the 1994, 2004 and 2006 curricula) were revised to facilitate and enhance students' communicative competence in English (Jazadi, 2000; Lie, 2007). The current English curriculum used in secondary schools is the 2013 Curriculum (commonly called the K-13 curriculum). It has a functional/notional syllabus – an extended version of the 2006 Local School-

Based Curriculum - and is structured around two broad basic competencies - spoken competency and written competency. Based on the Regulation of the Minister of Education and Culture number 58 of 2014 on Junior High School Curriculum, by the end of their study, students should have developed an ability to (a) understand and apply the social functions, text structures, and linguistic elements of particular language items, (b) state and ask questions about the particular language items based on their contextual use, and (c) write simple texts using the particular items by taking into account their social functions, text structures and introductions, expressing linguistic elements. The particular functions/notions included greetings, self-opinions, habitual actions, personal invitations and agreements, and producing descriptions, narratives and reports. Junior High School students were expected to demonstrate both receptive skills (reading and listening) and productive skills (speaking and writing) upon completion of their study (Wachidah et al., 2017).

As can be seen from this brief account, since 1994, English curricula in Indonesia have shifted from structure-based approaches to meaning-based approaches and are specifically aimed at developing learners' communicative competence by promoting interaction in the classroom. This aim accords with a key tenet of TBLT and has motivated local educators and practitioners to start introducing a task-based approach in their instructional contexts. Astika (2000), for example, proposed a task-based syllabus for tour-guiding students in Indonesia. He argued that in an EFL context, the classroom is the best place for students to practise the target language and receive feedback from the teacher and designed a lesson that he claimed followed the basic principles of TBLT. The topic of the lesson was 'tour guide in Bali'. In the pre-task stage, the teacher brainstormed the topic by discussing the roles of a tour guide with students, which included picking up tourists at the airport and providing necessary information regarding Bali to them on the bus on their way to the hotel. In the main-task stage, the teacher asked students to sit in groups of four and discuss the kind of information they should give the tourist. Each group presented their list to the whole class, and the teacher wrote up the results on the board. The teacher then distributed sample material (i.e. a transcript of a real tour guide giving information to a group of tourists on a bus in Bali) and asked each group to compare the differences between the information on the board and the type of information in the transcript. After that, the teacher instructed them to write their own transcript to be presented to the whole class. At this point, Astika mentioned the importance of monitoring students during task performance in order to scaffold their language production. In the post-task stage, the teacher discussed with students some of the linguistic problems in their transcript and gave relevant feedback. Astika's lesson above can be considered task-based. The main task satisfied Ellis's (2003) criteria for a task. There is a clear focus on meaning because the students were engaged in decoding and encoding messages (i.e. reading a transcript and discussing options). There is an

opinion gap as the students were free to develop different opinions about tourist information. The students had to use their linguistic resources (i.e. speaking) to communicate their ideas. Finally, there is a clear communicative outcome (i.e. the provision of a written tour guide transcript). Astika's task is an example of what Pica et al. (1993) called a *decision-making task*. That is, the task participants (all the group members) had access to the same information; there was a two-way interactant relationship among the group members as they shared the same responsibility (i.e. making a list of tour guiding information); the task participants discussed multiple options to decide the best information to be included in the transcript (open outcome). It is also important to note that the form-focused instruction in the post-stage is consistent with what Long (2016) suggested, i.e. explicit focus on forms should be addressed in the post-stage of a lesson as pre-task grammar instruction might cause students to focus on particular language items and this can undermine the effectiveness of a task.

Fachrurrazy (2000) described his TBLT practices with beginner-level students in Malang, Indonesia. Using Nunan's (1989) four task components (i.e. goals, input, activities, and roles for teacher and students), he designed a picture-matching activity for local primary school students. In this activity, the students were shown a set of pictures of fruit on the board. They listened to the teacher's (i.e. Fachrurrazy himself) descriptions of different fruits and matched the descriptions with the pictures. Interestingly, the teacher brought some real fruits to the class to support his students' understanding of the topic and make the task more realistic. As an extension activity, the teacher invited his students to write the names of the fruits they liked and did not like on the board and finally draw and colour one of their favourite fruits in their notebooks. Fachrurrazy claimed that students were able to complete the task as instructed (i.e. the identification of 5 fruits) and actively engaged with the input-based task (i.e. the students worked noisily towards the successful completion of tasks by providing support for their friends and moving around the class during the performance of tasks). However, it should be noted that while the drawing and colouring activity may have made the lesson more interesting, it did not facilitate language learning as it did not involve the use of the target language. Carless (2004) pointed to a similar problem in Hong Kong primary schools where the majority of students were so engaged in a task-drawing activity that they did not require the use of the L2. Also, student noise and physical movements cannot be interpreted as a sign of student engagement. In his report on teachers' perceptions of task-based teaching practices in South Korea, D. Li (1998) pointed out that student noise and movement can be indicative of discipline problems in large classes.

Similarly, Carless (2004), in his evaluation of TBLT implementation in Hong Kong elementary schools, argued that the local teachers' complaints about the level of noise made by their students impeded the implementation of task-based instruction in the school. Tsui (2003) offers a useful distinction between *on-task noise* (tolerable noise made in relation to task performance) and *off-task* noise (intolerable noise related to disciplinary problems) and recommends that local teachers take this distinction into account when managing classroom activities that involve students' active participation**.** At the end of his article, Fachrurrazy mentioned some problems that local teachers might encounter when introducing task-based language teaching in Indonesia. These included the existing structural syllabus, accuracy-based examinations, lack of English proficiency, and teachers' philosophies of teaching. Despite these local constraints, Fachrurrazy argued that teachers can still introduce TBLT to beginner-level students by implementing suitable teaching strategies. This can be done, for example, by adapting the grammar-focused textbooks to suit task-based instruction and integrating task-based components into student learning assessment. He went on to say that to address students' low ability in English; teachers can equip them with communication strategies to deal with comprehension problems and, whenever necessary, allow students to use their native language. He also mentioned the importance of upgrading teachers' knowledge and skills on a continuous basis.

The instructional literature in Indonesia also includes references to research on the practice of TBLT viewed from teachers' perspectives. Pohan et al. (2016) conducted a survey in Riau, Indonesia. They collected data from 55 English teachers (41 female and 14 male teachers) working in local Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools and Vocational Schools. The teachers participating in this study, aged between 30 and 50 years old, had taught English in their school for more than 10 years using a notional/functional syllabus based on the 2006 School-Based Curriculum or the K-13 Curriculum.

Using a 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Strongly Agree, and Agree), Pohan et al. investigated the teachers' perceptions about task-based language teaching in three major areas: their understanding of TBLT, their opinions about introducing TBLT into their classroom, and their reasons for adopting or avoiding TBLT. The data were analysed using SPSS to generate descriptive statistics. The analysis results suggest that most of the teachers had a good understanding of what TBLT involved at the conceptual level (e.g. definition of TBLT, task criteria, the three phases in task-based language teaching). The majority of teachers expressed general interest in trying out TBLT in their classroom because of its pedagogic benefits (e.g. comfortable learning environment, wide use of the target language, integration of the four skills). However, there was a general concern about the increased psychological demands of acting as a

facilitator and the extra teaching preparation time needed to implement TBLT in their classrooms. Finally, most of the teachers reported that they were in favour of TBLT because it promoted students' interaction, collaboration, and academic achievements. The only reason for not choosing TBLT was that large class sizes could make implementation difficult. This study provides valuable insights into how Indonesian teachers perceive TBLT as an alternative to their traditional practices. However, something is missing from this study (i.e. there is no information about whether the teachers in this survey had had any previous contact or experience with task-based instruction).

In addition to investigating teachers' views, researchers have also examined students' opinions about TBLT implementation in Indonesia. Kurniawan et al. (2018), for example, conducted a study on learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) in task-based instruction. The study participants were six students (two males and four females) studying at the English Language Department of a private university. They were selected based on the local institutional English Proficiency Test (EPT) results and a motivation questionnaire. The participants were asked to perform three types of tasks: Dictogloss (reconstructing a text), Jigsaw (invention game), and Problem-Solving (stranded in the desert). They were video-recorded and observed during the task performance using the *concurrent introspection (WTC-metric assessment)* to evaluate their willingness to communicate. In the dictogloss task, the students listened to a text dictated by the lecturer twice and took notes. Then they were asked to discuss their notes in their group in order to reconstruct the text. After reproducing the text, they presented the results in front of the class. In the jigsaw task, the students were divided into two groups. One group developed sentence clues about an invention (e.g. *it was invented in the USA, it was used for communication, it was invented in 1876*). The second group guessed what the invention was. In the last problem-solving task, the students were asked to choose the five most essential items needed to survive in the desert and had to mention the reasons for their choices. In a class discussion, one group of students presented their choices, and the other groups asked questions or expressed their views regarding the choices made. After all the tasks were completed, a *stimulated recall* interview was administered to help validate the WTC-metric scores. Three days after the task had been completed, all the participants were invited to take part in an in-depth interview to obtain more information about their views about task-based language teaching and the factors relating to their WTC. The analysis included open and axial coding with additional member-checking and negative-case analysis. The research findings showed that the highest average score of learners' WTC was in the jigsaw task, followed by the dictogloss and problem-solving tasks. In addition, it was reported that the students' willingness to communicate in this study was influenced by a number of related factors that included cognitive factors (e.g. proficiency in English, familiarity with tasks), psychological factors (e.g. self-confidence, language anxiety),

social factors (e.g. pair and small group discussions, peer-review), and interlocutor factors (e.g. teacher's positive feelings, teacher-student relationship).

This study can inform the introduction of TBLT in Indonesia in two important ways. First, task-based activities such as jigsaw, dictogloss and problem-solving provide good opportunities for students to communicate in the target language and are practical for use in the Indonesian context. Second, student production in the target language does not solely rely on student competence and confidence in the language but also depends on the teacher's support and rapport with students (Erlenawati, 2002; McIntyre & Legatto, 2011). In practice, this means that TBLT teachers need to demonstrate motivational strategies (e.g. being enthusiastic, happy, collaborative and non-judgemental) (Bradford, 2007; Brown, 2007) and scaffold students' language production during the performance of communicative activities (Dörnyei, 2001). Furthermore, assigning group work activities prior to individual activities in a task-based lesson helps to enhance students' readiness to communicate. Students feel safer in doing communicative activities together than by themselves because through collaboration they come to understand that they own and share the task being performed (Brown, 2007; Nunan, 1999).

Mukminatien (2004) looked at how local university students reacted to the use of authentic tasks in her writing class. Mukminatien defined authentic tasks as real-life activities that encourage students to use the target language. The writing class was part of the one-semester English skills development programme. Using first-year students in the English Language Department of a state-owned university in Malang as the participants in her study, Mukminatien collected data by employing two of the three types of approaches proposed by Ellis (1997b), i.e. response-based and student-based evaluations.

To carry out the response-based evaluation, Mukminatien asked students to write about several real-life topics such as sending postcards, showing directions, and giving opinions about academic and non-academic matters. Each week, the students were required to complete a different task, and their work was examined by the lecturer researcher (i.e. Mukminatien herself). If their work was satisfactory, they were given another task. The student-based evaluation was conducted by asking the students to write their opinions about the use of authentic tasks. Mukminatien noted that the students were able to complete all the tasks as required, and they were positive about them. She also claimed that the use of authentic teaching materials engaged her students in real-life and meaningful tasks.

However, it is difficult to see whether Mukminatien's study was truly task-based as there was insufficient information about the pre-, main-, and post-task stages and what criteria were used to assess the task-basedness of the writing activities. For example, it was not clear whether the lecturer made any attempt to explicitly teach specific language items (e.g. direction-related vocabulary, opinion-giving phrases) at the beginning of each lesson and whether the writing assignments functioned merely as a piece of work to sharpen and test students' understanding of targeted linguistic features. What is clear is that Mukminatien attempted to incorporate authentic writing tasks into a structural-oriented intensive course. As she put it, "engaging students with authentic tasks is a good practice to maximise the content of communicative activities within a structure-based learning situation" (p. 193). The types of authentic tasks that Mukminatien designed might correspond to what Bachman (1990, 1991) called *interactionally authentic tasks* (i.e. tasks which encourage the interactional processes, such as negotiation of meaning and scaffolding, similar to natural communication) instead of to what he referred to *as situationally authentic tasks* (i.e. tasks which involve the use of language as it actually occurs in real-world contexts). A task that required students to write directions from one place to another, for example, was unlikely to happen in the students' real life, but it provided opportunities for the students to produce the target language in an interactionally authentic manner. Also, the learning condition that Mukminatien created amounted to what Li et al. (2016) described as "a pedagogic case for focused tasks" (p. 206), i.e. the utilisation of tasks to create contexts for the communicative use of particular language forms. However, focused tasks should be used with caution because if we explicitly tell students about the target language items they should produce, the tasks can turn into situational grammar exercises (Ellis, 2009a). Also, it should be noted that the implementation of focused tasks is often problematic from a theoretical perspective because we do not know when students are actually ready to learn or use specific linguistic features (Long, 2015).

Although the word 'tasks' is familiar to Indonesian teachers, Griffiths (2001) suggested four potential issues that might arise when task-based language programmes are introduced in secondary schools in Indonesia: 1) the EFL status in Indonesia makes it difficult for students to use English as the target language as there is no immediate need to do so, 2) English teachers have a relatively low command of English to implement task-based instruction, 3) the new concepts of student-centred learning and student talk are not readily accepted by teachers and students alike as they are accustomed to the prevailing teacher-dominated class and teacher-talk philosophies, 4) the large class sizes in the average Indonesian secondary schools (between 40 and 50 students) and the limited availability of teaching resources can pose a serious problem for the implementation of TBLT. Griffiths is right in claiming that the EFL settings provide few opportunities to use English for

communication outside the classroom. However, as Astika (2000) argued, this constitutes a strong reason for providing such opportunities inside the classroom.

To address the local constraints mentioned above, Griffiths further recommended that we adapt task-based language teaching by merging its use with the structural method. In this case, task-based teaching is converted into the 3Ps (Presentation-Practice-Production) method (i.e. what Ellis (2003) called *task-supported language teaching*). This mixed approach, Griffiths argued, is better suited to Indonesian teachers who work in EFL settings because it enables them to conduct meaning-based activities and form-based activities together without having to lose their role as the central figure in the classroom. When choosing and implementing tasks, however, Griffiths warned teachers to take some critical issues into account. These included what types of tasks to give to students (e.g. one-way versus two-way tasks, open versus closed tasks); whether particular tasks generate students' interest (i.e. motivating tasks); whether the assigned tasks match students' level of ability (i.e. task complexity); what roles teacher and students need to perform (e.g. guide, monitor, facilitator, active participants); how to sequence tasks. Finally, Griffiths acknowledged the fact that introducing an innovation like TBLT will not be successful unless two essential things are put into place by the government: 1) the provision of sustained teacher education, and 2) revision of teaching materials and the examination system at the national level.

Taken together, the research that has investigated the introduction of TBLT in Indonesia points to a number of conclusions : (1) the practicality of task-based language teaching in fostering communication in the classroom, developing collaboration among students, and improving students' motivation (Ellis, 2009a), (2) the importance of equipping local teachers with sufficient knowledge and skills about TBLT prior to their engagement with task-based instruction (i.e. through an initial teacher training programme) (Erlam, 2016), (3) the feasibility of task-based language teaching with young beginner-level learners (Shintani, 2014), (4) the need to undertake task-based studies in real classrooms to address contextual constraints (e.g. large class size) and to gain a clear understanding of how TBLT works and sometimes fails (Benevides, 2016) and, (5) the importance of continuous educational support for teachers to help them implement TBLT (i.e. by working closely with the teacher) (Long, 2016; Van den Branden, 2006).

These conclusions informed the study reported in this thesis. My study involved a local teacher who was trained in task-based language teaching and, with assistance, developed a task-based syllabus for beginner-level students in a Junior High School in Indonesia. The study aimed to extend research on TBLT in two main ways. First, although extensive research has been carried out on the critical

role of the teacher in task-based language teaching (Samuda, 2001; Willis, 1996), very few studies have explored TBLT professional development programmes for practising teachers (Ellis, 2017; Van den Branden, 2006, Zhu, 2020). Second, there have also been few empirical investigations into the development of a local task-based syllabus (Sundari et al., 2018) or the effectiveness of task-based language teaching for beginner-level students (Shintani, 2015), particularly in the Indonesian context (Pohan et al., 2016). Details about my task-based study will be presented in the Method Chapter.

2.4 Factors determining the success of innovations

As mentioned earlier, TBLT innovations in several EFL countries have resulted in a variety of responses from stakeholders (i.e. schools, teachers and students). Therefore, to investigate the success of TBLT as an innovative approach, it is helpful to understand the factors that have been shown to influence the success of an innovation. Ellis (1997, p. 29) provides a list of factors that can be used to explain whether or not an innovation is likely to be successfully implemented in a particular teaching context. This list is congruent with Rogers' (2003) theory regarding the diffusion of innovations in which he maintains that the success of a reform should be assessed against five important factors - whether or not it is perceived by users as having benefits (i.e. a relative advantage), its congeniality with existing approaches and values (compatibility), how easy it is to implement (complexity), whether there is a test run before full implementation (trialability), and the extent to which potential adopters can see the results of the innovation (observability). Van den Branden (2009a) asserts that the success of an innovative teaching approach should be judged by the extent to which students are making improvements after the pedagogic innovation was put in effect. As summarised in Table 1 below, these innovation-related criteria are beneficial when we investigate an actual task-based programme.

Table 1

Ellis's Criteria for a Successful Innovation

Attribute	Definition
Initial dissatisfaction	The level of dissatisfaction that teachers experience with some aspect of their existing teaching.
Feasibility	The extent to which the innovation is seen as implementable given the conditions in which teachers work.

Acceptability	The extent to which the innovation is seen as compatible with teachers' existing teaching style and ideology.
Relevance	The extent to which the innovation is viewed as matching the students' needs.
Complexity	The extent to which the innovation is easy to grasp.
Explicitness	The extent to which the rationale for the innovation is clear and convincing.
Trialability	The extent to which the innovation can be easily tried out in stages.
Observability	The extent to which the results of the innovation are visible to others.
Originality	The extent to which the teachers are expected to demonstrate a high level of originality in order to implement the innovation (e.g. by preparing special materials).
Ownership	The extent to which teachers come to feel they 'possess' the innovation.

Note. From *SLA research and language teaching* (p.29), by R. Ellis, 1997, *Oxford University Press*. Copyright 1997 by Oxford University Press.

An excellent example of an innovative programme is the introduction of TBLT in Flanders, a Dutch-speaking part of Belgium. It was introduced into Flanders' primary, secondary and adult education in order to teach Dutch as both a first and second language. As part of a national state-funded curricular innovation, the introduction of TBLT in local schools involved large-scale teacher education programmes and teaching material development. One of the main objectives of this innovation was to provide quality Dutch language education to non-native speakers of Dutch (e.g. immigrants and refugees) so that they could compete in education and the job market as well as being able to assimilate into Flemish culture and values (Van den Branden, 2006). The organising committee of this nationwide innovation, the Centre for Language and Education at the Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, worked closely with local schools to develop task-based programmes with an emphasis on needs analysis, a primary focus on meaning, and real-world activities. In addition to working with schools, the Centre for Language and Education also collaborated with teaching institutes, educational experts and policymakers to support the implementation of TBLT in a step-by-step manner. Every step of the implementation was carefully monitored, and teacher training programmes were consistently reviewed to ensure that contextual constraints were properly and sufficiently addressed.

Based on a number of factors listed in Table 1 and as discussed in Van den Branden et al. (2007), it is clear that this well-designed task-based project was a success. The local teachers expressed general dissatisfaction with the existing approach (i.e. the audiolingual approach); it was relevant to students' needs (i.e. enabling young and adult learners to succeed in the educational and occupational sector); there was a step-by-step introduction of TBLT (content-provided syllabus, in-service training); the teachers were clear about why they needed an innovation (i.e. to improve the quality of Dutch language education at different levels of education); the project created a sense of belonging among the teachers as the Flemish government adequately supported them in all stages of the innovation. The success of this language teaching innovation in Flanders supports Markee's claim (1997) that educational reforms are difficult to achieve unless primary innovations (i.e. the use of alternative teaching materials or approaches) are implemented in combination with secondary innovations (i.e. relevant organisational support). Failure to implement changes in a particular teaching context often results from inadequate support from the government or the organisation in which the innovation operates.

The Flanders project is an example of an evaluation study (Long, 2015). Evaluation studies are descriptive in nature and aim to "find out whether programs are achieving their goals and to make data-based decisions as to whether they should continue as they are or should be modified" (p. 341). The descriptive approach recognises the fact that each task-based programme or project is unique and heavily influenced by the context in which it occurs. Ellis (2011) makes a useful distinction between the macro-evaluation and micro-evaluation of TBLT. While the former evaluation is summative and focuses on whole task-based programmes, the latter evaluation is formative and carried out to investigate whether specific tasks or strategies work in the context of a task-based language lesson. Another difference lies in the fact that macro-evaluations are usually conducted as large-scale projects by external evaluators. In contrast, micro-evaluations are usually carried out by teacher educators or local teachers in their own classrooms in small-scale programmes. Both types of evaluation will be examined in the following sections.

2.5 Descriptive studies of TBLT

2.5.1 Macro-evaluations of TBLT

In a macro-evaluation, language evaluators seek to answer two critical questions: "1) To what extent was the programme/project effective and efficient in meeting its goals?, 2) In what ways can the programme/project be improved?" (Ellis, 2011, p. 215). The first question is related to what Weir

and Roberts (1994) called 'accountability-oriented evaluation' (p. 4), and the second has to do with 'development-oriented evaluation' (p. 5). To serve the accountability and development purposes, an evaluator needs to collect data about administrative and curricular aspects of the programme/project. These include information about logistics, finance, students, teachers, syllabus, and implementation.

In the early decades of TBLT, there were only a few reports of macro-evaluations of TBLT (e.g. Beretta, 1990), but in the following decades, several language evaluators (e.g. Carless, 2004; Gonzalez-Lloret & Nielson; 2015; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007) have conducted evaluations of complete TBLT courses in a particular instructional setting.

Prabhu's (1987) account of a task-based programme in Bangalore, India, is the first published detailed account of TBLT. Popularly known as the Communicational Teaching Project (CTP), this longitudinal project (1979-1984) resulted from dissatisfaction with India's prevailing nationally-endorsed grammatical-based methods. In particular, this classroom-based research examined to what extent TBLT implementation by a group of local English teachers was effective in enhancing students' communicative competence. It supported the creation of communicative conditions in the classroom through task-based activities and aimed to enhance teachers' sense of plausibility by involving them in idea-sharing and reflection about their teaching practice as a critical element in their professional development. Beretta and Davies (1985) evaluated this study (I will deal with this in detail later on) and produced evidence to show that the students receiving task-based instruction outperformed students who studied under the structural-based approach on the task-based and general proficiency tests.

However, an evaluation study conducted by Beretta (1990) revealed another dimension of the project. Beretta investigated the teachers' implementation of TBLT under three categories: orientation, renewal, routine. *Orientation* refers to the teachers' lack of understanding of TBLT and failure to implement it, *routine* reflects the teachers' good understanding of TBLT and ability to implement it, and *renewal* relates to the teachers' critical view of TBLT in terms of its benefits and downsides and desire to improve the task-based programme. The participants of the study were 16 teachers involved in the CTP who came from seven different schools in India. The teachers varied in terms of their age (26 to 51 years old), educational background (diploma to doctoral degrees), experience of teaching English (5 to 27 years) and period of involvement with the CTP (4 to 48 months). Using a retrospective approach, Beretta collected historical narratives from the teachers, which consisted of written details about their experience on the task-based project. Beretta found out that the teachers' uptake of TBLT was only partial (i.e. 40% of the teachers had only an

orientation ability, 47% had routine ability and the remaining 13% renewal ability), indicating that the local teachers had not fully grasped the introduction of TBLT. In his conclusion, Beretta (1990) argued that some of the teachers employed in the project were still struggling to successfully implement TBLT due to four contextual constraints: (1) it was time-consuming (e.g. teachers were pressed for time to prepare task-based materials), 2) discipline problems (e.g. teachers were not sure how to deal with student noise and freedom in the classroom during the performance of tasks), 3) teachers' low proficiency in English (e.g. teachers were not confident to deliver a lesson or talk to students in English), and 4) they frequently reverted to form-focused instruction (e.g. teachers tended to explicitly teach particular linguistic features at the beginning of a lesson).

Another example of a macro-evaluation study of TBLT is Carless' (2004) evaluation of the introduction of TBLT in Hong Kong school settings. Using a qualitative case study to investigate the introduction of task-based language teaching in three state primary schools, Carless observed how local teachers practised TBLT and interviewed them to explore their experience of implementing it in their own classroom. The teachers were three Cantonese native-speaking English teachers aged 20 to 30 years old. In total, 17 task-based lessons were observed and audio-taped for each teacher, and six semi-structured interviews were held with each of the three teachers. From the observation and interview results, Carless identified three major problems faced by the local teachers at the practical level: the use of the L1 (native language), discipline matters, and the use of the L2 (target language). Carless further explained that the three classroom issues often coincided in a single lesson. For example, the three teachers complained about the noise problems (off-task noise), the dominant use of the L1, and the limited use of the L2 produced by the students when performing a particular communicative activity. This occurred because, in the process of implementing TBLT, the three teachers had to deal with students with limited language proficiency and with their own superficial understanding of what a task involves. In addition, as Carless observed, students' use of the L1 and L2 seemed to be affected by the inconsistent way that their teachers used the native language (Cantonese) and the target language (English) in the classroom. In his final comment, Carless argued that the implementation of tasks in Hong Kong primary schools was problematic, and it can be best described by what Ellis (2003) referred to as *task-supported teaching* because they were primarily language practice activities that focused on language structures rather than meaning-making activities which promoted genuine communication. His evaluation points to the importance of upgrading local teachers' knowledge and skills regarding TBLT if the innovation is to succeed (R.M. Cohen, 2002).

Similar to Carless (2004), McDonough and Chaikitmongkol (2007) conducted a macro-evaluation study in northern Thailand which aimed to investigate the teachers' and students' attitudes to and concerns about the task-based programme developed by a team of EFL teachers in a local state university. Participants in this study were classified into two categories: learner-participants and teacher-participants. The learner participants, aged between 17 and 19, were 35 first-year Thai students enrolled in the English department. They had an 8-year experience of studying the English language at the previous levels of education in Thailand. The teacher-participants consisted of 11 Thai teachers who held Master's degrees in TESOL and two American teachers who held Bachelor's Degrees in a non-education field. Their experience of teaching English varied from 2 years up to 15 years. Data were collected qualitatively through several instruments, which included classroom observations, interviews, task evaluations, learning notebooks, and course evaluations. The results indicate that the task-based course enhanced students' independence, met their real-world needs, and developed teachers' positive attitudes towards task-based language teaching. There were also important implications for the introduction of TBLT in other EFL countries, such as the need to support teachers in the process of moving from traditional practices to task-based practices (e.g. through the provision of additional teaching materials and professional developments for TBLT teachers), the advantage of revising materials to address learners' needs (e.g. reducing activities in a lesson), and the significance of creating a systematic evaluation of a task-based programme (e.g. data cycles, self-reflection and peer-observation).

From the macro-evaluation studies above, we have seen examples of both failure (Carless, 2004) and success (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007) in the introduction of TBLT in particular EFL contexts. Some factors responsible for the failure in the EFL context included the teachers' poor understanding of the nature of tasks, the low English ability of teachers and students, and classroom management issues (e.g. a conflict between managing communicative activities and discipline). Factors determining the successful implementation of TBLT included engaging teachers in the construction of task-based materials, continuous and flexible evaluations of tasks (e.g. teachers were given opportunities to reflect on and modify the teaching materials), and the availability of sustained support for the local teachers. Ellis (2009a) pointed out that problems surrounding the implementation of TBLT in EFL settings can be addressed if five principles are taken into account: 1) we should match tasks to students' level of ability in English (e.g. providing input-based tasks for low-level students instead of output-based tasks), 2) tasks should be tried out to assess their practicality and continuously revised based on experience in implementing them, 3) teachers need to have a good understanding of what constitutes a task, 4) teachers and students need to understand the objectives and reasons for doing task-based activities (e.g. understanding how incidental

learning can help develop competence in English), and 5) teachers should be actively engaged in the design of tasks prior to teaching tasks in the classroom.

2.5.2 Micro-evaluations of TBLT

In contrast to macro-evaluations of TBLT, which have complete task-based courses as their focus, micro-evaluation studies investigate specific aspects of a task-based programme such as the appropriateness of tasks, teachers' feedback, and students' communication strategies. In short, micro-evaluations provide "a basis for deciding whether specific tasks work" and function as "a source of teacher self-reflection and development" (Ellis, 2011, p. 217). A micro-evaluation study should take three criteria into account to understand whether a task works. First, whether the task results in the learning behaviour expected by the teacher (performance criterion). Second, whether the task assists students' acquisition of the target language (development criterion) and third, whether students find the task enjoyable and useful (motivational criterion). In other words, to evaluate tasks in micro-evaluations, various types of information regarding task performance, learning outcome and students' views are required. Therefore, the data collection in micro-evaluations of TBLT should involve Ellis's (1997b, pp. 219-223) three approaches to evaluating tasks: 1) a response-based evaluation: an evaluation carried out to examine whether the actual performance of the tasks matches their intended outcomes. This kind of evaluation can be done by investigating the syllabus, observing a teacher's teaching performance or recording students' use of the L2 in the classroom, 2) a learning-based evaluation: an evaluation that aims to assess the extent to which task-based language teaching facilitates student learning. This can be conducted by administering a pre-test and post-test to students, 3) a student-based evaluation: a type of evaluation that explores students' dispositions towards specific tasks. This is usually carried out by asking students' opinions through short questionnaires.

Similar to macro-evaluation studies, Weir and Robert's (1994) distinction between accountability and development can also be applied to micro-evaluations of tasks. In an accountability evaluation, researchers seek to investigate whether or not a particular task has met its objectives. In a development evaluation, researchers explore the disadvantages of a task and find ways of addressing implementational problems. In his book, *Reflections of Task-Based Language Teaching*, Ellis (2018b) discussed a number of micro-evaluations of tasks conducted by his post-graduate students at a university in New Zealand. These Master's Degree students worked at different educational institutions and had varied teaching experience (i.e. from 0 to more than 20 years). The course assignments required them to work in groups to design a task, teach it, and undertake a micro-

evaluation study of the task design/implementation. In what follows, I will describe two examples of micro-evaluation studies reported by Ellis (2018b).

Jennifer Freeman (as cited in Ellis, 2018b, pp. 240-241) evaluated to what extent a dictogloss task was successful in facilitating the acquisition of the target language forms. This study involved three ESL learners studying in an ESL programme at a local university. The upper-intermediate participants were required to listen to a text dictated by the teacher/researcher three times. First, they listened and answered some questions related to the text. Next, they listened and jotted down the content words that they heard. Finally, they were instructed to concentrate on a specific linguistic form as they listened. There were three structures targeted in this focused task: relative clauses, passive sentences and transition phrases. Based on what they heard and wrote, the students then worked in groups to reproduce the text. Data for the student-based evaluation were collected by asking the students to fill out a questionnaire upon completion of the task and for a response-based evaluation by collecting the students' worksheets, observing the lesson, and audio-taping and transcribing the group discussion. Freeman analysed the Focus on Form Episodes (Ellis et al., 2001) found in the transcript and examined the reproduced text to see whether or not the students used the three target features. The results of the study showed that the task was successful in meeting two of its objectives (i.e. the students' demonstrated discourse competency and their noticing skills increased) but only partially successful in satisfying a third objective (i.e. only two of the three students were involved in the interactive talk using the target structures). In addition, the questionnaire data revealed that one student (i.e. the one who did not perform well in the task) considered the dictogloss too difficult, whereas the other two students thought the task was appropriate to their level. Reflecting on the task implementation, Freeman suggested ways of improving the task: 1) the low-achieving student should have been asked to write out the text-reconstruction, 2) the students should not be allowed to share their notes during the text-reproduction stage in order to maximise interaction among them.

In Juanita Watts' micro-evaluation (as described in Ellis, 2018b, pp. 241-242), the practitioner-researcher sought to examine how a spot-the-differences task supported her students' language learning. In this study, two students were paired, and each was given a picture of a place in Auckland. Each picture was taken from a different period (i.e. 100 years apart). The students were asked to describe their pictures and identify the changes from one time to the next. Pica et al. (1999) classified this kind of task as a two-way information gap task requiring task participants to share information actively. Six ESL students (i.e. three pairs) with an upper-intermediate level in English proficiency completed the task. Watts aimed at both an accountability and development evaluation

of the task by collecting data for a student-based and response-based evaluation. The student-based evaluation involved asking the students to complete a questionnaire before the commencement of the task to gather information about their learning preferences and a second questionnaire at the end of the study to obtain information about students' views regarding the task. The response-based evaluation involved classroom observations, recordings of students' performances of the task, and inspecting the task outcome. Watts reported that the students enjoyed doing the task, but the achievement of the task outcome was only partial as they wrote only a list of differences in the picture, not the changes that had taken place over time. The three pairs also demonstrated an ability to negotiate for meaning but at different levels. The questionnaire responses showed that the students were, by and large, positive about the task, but indicated that their limited vocabulary made the task difficult and suggested that grammar instruction be given prior to the performance of the task. Based on the findings, Watts concluded that she should have provided more guidance about listing picture differences and changes. She also noted that although learners were doing the same task, they reacted to it differently. Concerning students' requests for pre-task grammar instruction, She argued that it would be better to handle grammar in the post-task stage.

Another example of a micro-evaluation of TBLT is Calvert and Sheen's (2015) action research study. In this study, Calvert and Sheen reported a teacher's experience in designing and implementing a task-based course for refugees in the USA. The teacher participant was a female English teacher (i.e. Calvert, one of the authors of this article) who had no experience with task-based instruction but was committed to designing an English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) course to prepare refugees to work in local hotels and restaurants. The student participants were 13 refugees and asylum seekers with mixed nationalities (i.e. seven Nepali Bhutanese, three Ethiopian, two Iranian and one Eritrean), mixed abilities in English (beginner to intermediate levels), and some literacy issues (e.g. difficulties in decoding the Latin alphabet). During the 10-week EOP task-based course, the students were scheduled to study two times a week on the topics of job routines, answering telephone calls, housekeeping activities and job interviews. The teacher investigated the effectiveness of her task using a response-based evaluation (i.e. she collected completed worksheets in which the students had recorded their housekeeping duties) and a student-based evaluation (i.e. using a post-task questionnaire). Both sources of data revealed that most students were unable to complete the task and held a negative view about task-based activities. This led to the teacher reflecting on the reasons for task failure and identifying two possible causes, i.e. the students were unfamiliar with the task format, and the language demands required by the task were too great for the students. The teacher then made some changes, i.e. by removing unnecessary information in the task, decreasing the level of language used, and performing the task with the whole class before

assigning individual work. The task modifications resulted in increased students' understanding of what was required of them, a successful task outcome, and more positive opinions about the task.

The micro-evaluation studies provide guidance in what teachers/researchers need to consider in TBLT: 1) they point to potential issues that may arise when designing and implementing tasks in classrooms (e.g. students' unfamiliarity with task formats, student's rejection of tasks due to code complexity, 2) they provide insights about how to ensure the effectiveness of tasks (e.g. the importance of pre-task activities in preparing students for the main tasks, the benefits of negotiation strategies in solving communication problems), 3) they serve as practical examples of how to design, implement and evaluate tasks (e.g. using different tasks to measure acquisition, employing different approaches to collect data), and 4) they show it is possible to change teachers' and students' attitudes from negative to more positive views about task-based instruction.

2.6 Comparative studies of TBLT

In addition to the descriptive studies, several studies (e.g. Beretta & Davies, 1985; Gonzalez-Lloret & Nielson, 2015) have attempted to evaluate TBLT in comparison to traditional pedagogic approaches. In other words, they seek to investigate whether task-based language teaching is more effective than its traditional counterpart in developing student competence in a language. In order to conduct a sound experimental study, Ellis and Shintani (2014) recommended a number of design elements to be followed by researchers, which include the presence of a pre-test, the inclusion of a comparison group, investigating whether there were differences in the instructional processes, the same teacher in both instructional contexts, content-fair testing, and the impact of the different types of instruction on individual learners as well as groups. Furthermore, Ellis et al. (2019) classified comparative studies of TBLT into two categories: *general programme comparisons* and *focused comparative studies*. In general programme comparisons, task-based language teaching is compared to a prevailing traditional method that was the common practice in a particular institutional setting. By contrast, focused comparative studies seek to evaluate how different types of instruction affect the acquisition of certain language forms. Below I provide two examples for each category.

The first example of a general programme comparison concerned Prabhu's (1987) Communicational Teaching Project (CTP) in India. As discussed earlier, findings from Beretta's (1990) descriptive study about the CTP suggest that several teachers had failed to understand and implement the task-based demands of the project. Nevertheless, it should be noted that although some of the project teachers only achieved an 'orientation' ability, the task-based project was found

to be relatively effective because of two important factors - a sense of belonging demonstrated by most of the project teachers and a high degree of freedom given to teachers to modify task-based materials. The idea of ownership serves as an essential factor in implementing an educational innovation. Hamilton (1996) noted that innovations in language teaching are likely to succeed if the teachers own the innovation and share the responsibility for implementing it. To quote Beretta (1990), "a sense of ownership of the project promoted a commitment to classroom behaviour that was perceived to be consonant with the project's principles" (p. 321). In a similar vein, Prabhu's CTP syllabus allowed the project teachers to alter the content of teaching depending on the implementational needs. In other words, Prabhu treated his syllabus as an *operational construct* (i.e. a flexible syllabus which is open to changes based on teacher's intuitions), not as an *illuminative construct* (i.e. a unified syllabus based on specific learners' needs which is not subject to change). Taking the same stance as Prabhu, Ellis et al. (2019) argued that "an illuminative syllabus would be undesirable, even if it were possible, as it limits what teachers and learners bring to the learning process in terms of the intuitive decisions and adjustments that they make in optimizing learners' mastery of syllabus content" (p. 195).

In their evaluation of this task-based project, Beretta and Davies (1985) compared the learning outcomes of the task-based class (the experimental group) and the structural class (the control group). The student participants of the study came from four different schools in India. At the end of the school year, the students in both groups were given three types of tests to measure their learning achievements: a CTP task-based test, a structural-based test and three neutral proficiency tests (i.e. contextualised grammar, dictation, and listening/reading comprehension test). The results indicate that the CTP classes did significantly better than the structural classes on the task-based test; the control groups scored higher than the experimental groups on the structural-based test; the task-based groups showed better performance than the structural groups on the neutral tests. Beretta and Davies (1985) concluded by saying that despite the limitations of the study, the results of their evaluation lent support to the Communicational Teaching Project's claim, i.e. "grammar construction can take place through a focus on meaning alone" (p. 126). In other words, although the CTP groups did not receive explicit grammar-based instruction, they were able to utilise their existing grammatical knowledge more readily than the structural groups, as evidenced in their higher listening/reading comprehension scores.

In a similar vein, Gonzalez-Lloret and Nelson (2015) evaluated a newly-adopted task-based Spanish for Specific Purposes (SSP) course for trainees as border patrol agents in the USA. For these students, a good command of Spanish was an essential requirement for functioning effectively at

the borders. Prior to the commencement of the TBLT programme, they attended a form-focused general English class as part of their curriculum at the Border Patrol Academy, where they had little chance to practise their Spanish. The Spanish task-based programme consisted of three empirical studies: 1) a pilot study designed to compare the productive oral skills of the task-based group and the grammatical group, 2) a study which investigated the students' overall performance following task-based instruction, and 3) a survey of students' views about the task-based programme. In the first place, 20 task-based students (experimental group) and 19 grammar-based students (comparison group) were asked to perform an oral narrative task, and their audio-recorded narratives were analysed for fluency, lexical complexity, syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy. The pilot study findings suggest that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group in oral fluency and producing syntactically more complex speech. However, the lexical complexity and grammatical accuracy did not significantly differ across the two groups. This indicates that task-based instruction was more effective in improving TBLT-oriented abilities (speaking fluency and sentence-building) than form-oriented abilities (grammar and vocabulary). In the second study, 256 students were tested on a computer-based oral proficiency test measuring overall skills, sentence mastery, pronunciation, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The test results revealed that all the participants' scores significantly increased from the pre-test to the post-test in all categories of proficiency. The efficacy of TBLT was confirmed by the results of the third study in which the students reported general satisfaction with the programme as it bore relevance to their future jobs and enhanced their competence in Spanish.

There have also been attempts to compare task-based instruction with task-supported instruction. Li et al. (2016), for instance, conducted a classroom-based study that explored the efficacy of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Task-Supported Language Teaching (TSLT) in the acquisition of declarative and automated knowledge of English past passive sentences. The study involved 150 Chinese secondary school student participants who studied English as a Foreign Language. Aged between 13 and 15 years old, these eighth-graders had previous experience of learning English and were equivalent in their English proficiency. They were divided into five groups for research purposes: one comparison group and four experimental groups. The comparison group did not receive any instruction but completed a pre-test at the beginning of the study, a post-test held immediately at the end of the study, and a post-test given two weeks after the study. The four experimental groups were asked to perform two dictogloss tasks in which they had to report the text reconstructions individually. However, each of the experimental groups experienced different conditions. The first group were only required to carry out the two dictogloss tasks without any intervention (i.e. a Focus on Meaning (FonM) condition); the second group was given explicit

instruction in the target structure prior to the performance of tasks (i.e. Task-Supported Language Teaching (TSLT) condition); the third group had within-task-feedback without explicit instruction (Focus on Form (FonF); the fourth group received within-task-feedback in addition to explicit instruction (stronger task-supported condition). Two types of tests were administered to measure the learning gains across the five groups: a Grammatical Judgement Test (GJT) to assess explicit/declarative knowledge and an Elicited Imitation Test (EIT) to evaluate automated knowledge. The results showed that students who experienced explicit instruction or/and corrective feedback (i.e. the TSLT groups and FonF group) had higher scores than students with no treatment (i.e. the FonM group and comparison group) on the GJT. On the EIT, however, there were no significant differences across the five groups. In other words, the task-based treatments with corrective feedback and the task-supported treatments with explicit instruction were only successful in improving the students' declarative knowledge but not their automated knowledge of the target linguistic item. Overall, Li, et al. (2016) concluded by saying that "TSLT rather than pure TBLT holds more promise for teaching grammatical structures that are new" (p. 225).

Other studies (e.g. Doughty & Varela, 1998; Yang & Lyster, 2010) have shown that TBLT is also effective in enhancing grammatical accuracy for learners who have partially acquired the target structure and stimulating the use of specific grammatical forms such as question forms (Mackey, 1999). Shintani's (2015) focused comparative study investigated the incidental acquisition of two grammatical forms (i.e. plural-*s* and copula-*be*) in two different teaching contexts – task-based language teaching (TBLT) and present-practice-produce (PPP). 30 Japanese students participated in the study. They were aged 6 years old and had had no prior experience with English instruction. These young beginner-level students were divided into a TBLT (Focus on Form/FonF) group and a PPP group (where there was explicit teaching of vocabulary). There was no direct teaching of the target structures in either group but the students received exposure to them through nine-repeated lessons over 5 weeks. Two tests were administered to measure the acquisition of plural-s (i.e. a task-based production test and multiple-choice comprehension test), and a test was given to assess the productive knowledge of copula-*be* (i.e. a *tell-and-do* test). The test results revealed that the task-based group acquired plural-*s* (but not copula-*be),* whereas the PPP group did not acquire either of the two structures. Shintani noted that "there was a functional need to attend to plural -s (but not copula *be*) only in the FonF classroom" (p. 115). This indicates that task-based instruction that promotes natural forms of communication can enable students to recognise plural forms. In contrast, the PPP-based instruction, which focused on the correct use of grammatical forms, did not generate the functional need to distinguish the differences between plural and singular nouns.

These studies differed in the extent to which they adhered to the criteria for the design of comparative studies identified by Ellis and Shintani's (2014). For example, Beretta and Davies (1985) did not include a pre-test in their study. Therefore, we can not be sure whether or not the two groups (i.e. the experimental and control groups) were equivalent in their English ability prior to the commencement of the study. Likewise, Gonzalez-Lloret and Nielson (2015) failed to include a pre-test in the first part of their study and a control group in their second part of the study, so we are not clear whether there were significant differences in learning gains between the task-based and the structural-based groups. Two of the comparative studies (i.e. Li, et al., 2016; Shintani, 2015), however, did satisfy Ellis and Shintani's (2014) task design criteria. Both studies included a pre-test and a control group; they investigated teaching processes; they used the same teacher; they guarded against biased testing. Overall, the results of the comparative studies suggest that task-based instruction is more effective than form-focused instruction.

In addition, these method comparison studies pointed to a number of issues I considered in my own study: the importance of investigating the process of teaching (i.e. what students did in the task performance) along with the product of the teaching (i.e. what they learned from the task); the need to control for teacher and student factors (e.g. by using a single teacher teaching two groups of students who were equivalent in their English proficiency); the significance of including multiple tests to avoid test bias (i.e. including tests of production as well as comprehension); the inclusion of a control group that did not receive any instruction but completed all the tests.

2.7 Some misconceptions about TBLT

Just as TBLT has its advocates, it also has its depreciators. Criticisms of TBLT have been directed at some major points (Ellis, 2009, 2018a; Long, 2016), which include: 1) 'task' is so poorly defined that it is hard to differentiate it from other teaching activities (Widdowson, 2003), 2) tasks do not provide a sufficient context for the acquisition of the target language (Seedhouse, 1999), 3) tasks must be conducted entirely in the target language (Carless, 2004), 4) tasks work only in acquisition-rich settings (Swan, 2005), 5) TBLT outlaws grammar (Sheen, 2003), and 6) task-based instruction is not compatible with beginner-level students (Littlewood, 2007). In this section, I will briefly deal with the main criticisms mentioned above.

The first criticism describes task as an ill-defined concept. Taking Skehan's (1998) definition of a task as a basis for his argument, Widdowson (2003) argued that there are no clear indicators that distinguish tasks from structural-based activities. This criticism represents a misunderstanding of

TBLT concepts. According to Ellis (2009), in order to arrive at a good understanding of tasks, we should not only confine ourselves to one definition of TBLT but acknowledge the fact that there are many definitions. In his own definition of tasks mentioned earlier, for instance, a task is a work plan that satisfies four key criteria: there is a focus on processing both pragmatic and semantic meaning, there is an information/opinion gap, students have to rely on their own knowledge of the target language, and there is a clear communicative outcome. The four criteria make it easier for people to differentiate tasks from other instructional activities. Ellis (2019) provided two practical examples of how an exercise can be distinguished from a task. He noted that an activity that requires a pair of students to talk to each other based on a memorised dialogue script (as is often practised in traditional form-oriented classes) does not constitute a task because there is no focus on meaning (i.e. students can memorise the script lines without having to understand its meaning); no information gap is involved (i.e. both students have access to the complete dialogue so they can predict what his/her friend is going to say); students do not have to rely on their own knowledge of the target language (i.e. they can rely on the content of script dialogue alone); the activity does not result in a communicative outcome (i.e. students merely read the dialogue to practice the target linguistic feature). In contrast, a spot-the-differences activity where a pair of students are each given a similar picture with five differences and are required to interact to find the differences without looking at each other's picture is clearly a task because the activity places a primary focus on meaning (i.e. students are engaged in describing the pictures to each other); there is an information gap (i.e. both students are not able to look at each other's picture); the activity activates both students' linguistic repertoire; there is a clearly defined outcome (i.e. the identification of five differences in the pictures). Thus, if a task is clearly defined, it can be distinguished from other instructional practices.

The second criticism raised against TBLT relates to minimal use of the L2. Seedhouse (1999) claimed that tasks result in interactions involving minimal use of the L2. To support his argument, Seedhouse used Lynch's (1989) example of an interaction resulting from tasks involving the completion of geometric figures. While it is true that some tasks, especially those performed by beginner-level learners, result in simple language output, some studies have shown that other types of tasks can generate extensive language production. Rulon and McReary (1986), for example, found that students engaged with opinion-gap tasks produced more complex language in comparison to those performing information-gap tasks. Similarly, Ellis (2009b), who investigated the effects of planning on student performance, noted that learners' language complexity increased when they were given time to plan what they were going to say. Therefore, Seedhouse is wrong in claiming that all task-based activities lead to impoverished language use. Depending on the nature

of tasks and their methodological implementation, tasks have the potential to enhance student production.

The next misconception about task-based language teaching is that there is no place for the use of the mother tongue (L1). In fact, there is substantial evidence (e.g. De la Campa & Nassaji; 2009; Turnbull, 2001; Van Lier, 1995) to suggest that TBLT values use of the native language to help the performance of tasks in the target language. In contrast to the commonly-held opinion of some TBLT critics, advocates of TBLT see the L1 not as an obstacle but as an advantage to learning the target language. Antón and DiCamilla (1998), for instance, conducted a study on the role of English (L1) in facilitating L2 (Spanish) learning at the university level. The study results showed that the students used their first language effectively to cope with communication problems during the performance of a writing task in the target language. In another study, Shintani (2012b) investigated the use of input-based tasks with beginner-level students and found that they initially relied on their L1 (Japanese) to perform a task, but when the tasks were repeated, their use of the L2 (English) increased over time. This suggests that students' use of the mother tongue is a natural phenomenon and, when used properly, may assist L2 learning.

The fourth misunderstanding about task-based language teaching is that it is not suited to foreign-language contexts. Swan (2005) argued that in poor-acquisition environments where there is no immediate need to use English and where the classroom serves as the centre for learning, more emphasis should be placed on grammatical structures to enable learners to function effectively in the target language. Again, this is a misleading claim as studies on second language acquisition (e.g. Ellis, 1984; Klein & Perdue, 1997) have revealed that learners are still able to communicate in the L2 with minimal knowledge of grammar. In addition, some EFL scholars (e.g. Bradford, 2007; Nur, 2004; Renandya, 2004) have also reported that form-focused instruction in many EFL countries has failed to produce communicatively competent graduates. In the words of Ellis (2018a), "countless students in East Asian countries who have experienced such an approach have failed to achieve any ability to communicate in an L2 even after six years of instruction" (p. 35). As a result, many EFL governments have adopted task-based instruction (Butler, 2011) because they believe that tasks can effectively develop communicative proficiency (Nunan, 1989, 2004). Despite the issues facing the implementation of TBLT in EFL settings (Littlewood, 2007), research (e.g. McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Thompson & Millington, 2012) has shown that with proper design and adjustments, TBLT can work well in these poor-acquisition environments.

TBLT emphasises the development of communicative skills, but attention to grammar also has an important place within it. Sheen (2003) claimed there is little grammar in task-based language teaching because it only covers grammar when there is a communication breakdown, and Swan (2005) made a similar point by saying that TBLT rules out a grammar syllabus. However, even when there is no structural syllabus, it is still possible to attend to a certain linguistic feature using focused tasks. Some of the leading supporters of TBLT (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008) have approved the use of focused tasks as a means for creating opportunities to draw learners' attention to form. However, there is the danger that focused tasks will lead to grammar-oriented activities rather than meaning-based activities if learners are made aware of the target structure they need to use. Irrespective of whether the task is focused or unfocused, there are ways in which learners' attention can be attracted to form. For instance, during guided pre-task planning, learners are given time to prepare the language and structures they will use in the main activity. During the main task phase, teachers can provide corrective feedback (e.g. recasts) (Long, 2006). For Willis (1996), it is the post-task stage when teachers can explicitly teach certain grammatical features to students. In conclusion, "advocates of TBLT do not view attention to form as an optional element of TBLT but as necessary to ensure 'noticing', which Schmidt (1994) viewed as a requisite for acquisition to take place" (Ellis, 2009a, p. 232).

Responding to the critique that tasks are not suited to low level-students due to their limited proficiency (Littlewood, 2007), Ellis (2018a) pointed out that this claim is premised on the belief that task-based instruction only involves production and so is unsuitable for beginner learners. Bruton (2005), for instance, claimed that tasks are "very limited in scope and focus on one skill, namely speaking" (p. 66). In fact, task-based lessons can also cover receptive skills (listening and reading) in the form of input-providing tasks. In their classroom-based studies, Prabhu (1987) and Shintani (2014) were able to demonstrate that input-based tasks work well with beginning-level learners. Input-providing tasks introduce learners to the target language in a similar way as they acquire their native language - that is, they first listen to language input before they start to try to speak the language. Although reception-based activities do not require language production, it does not mean that speaking is prohibited in the classroom. Evidence from Shintani's (2012b) study showed that during her implementation of input-based tasks, the young beginner students initiated voluntary production of the L2.

Despite the criticisms levelled at TBLT, there is clear evidence of the following:

1. It is possible to give a clear definition of a task that will distinguish it from other non-task instructional activities.
2. Tasks create adequate opportunities for students to improve and extend their language use.
3. Use of the native language to solve communication problems should be seen as a natural process during the performance of tasks and as a mediating tool for doing tasks in the target language.
4. When properly adapted, tasks can work well in foreign language contexts.
5. TBLT caters to the development of communicative competence but does not neglect grammar.
6. Task-based instruction is well-suited to students with a low level of English ability.

2.8 General summary

Having reviewed task-based language teaching from the historical, implementational and critical perspectives, I will conclude by listing a number of important points which can inform the development of task-based programmes for Indonesian Junior High schools:

1. The Indonesian institutional setting (i.e. an EFL setting) provides a context for the introduction of TBLT as an innovative approach.
2. The contextual obstacles to TBLT implementation should not prevent local teachers from adopting task-based instruction. In fact, these constraints should motivate them to experiment with TBLT, especially at the practical level.
3. A task-based syllabus should be viewed as an operational construct, meaning that it is open to evaluation and can be modified by teachers when methodological and implementational needs arise.
4. Tasks can work well with beginner-level secondary school students in Indonesia if they are properly designed and sequenced.
5. Teachers play a vital role in implementing TBLT innovation and thus should be well-trained in task-based language teaching and should be adequately supported during the design, implementation and evaluation of a course.

In the next chapter, I will deal with task-based teacher education and its importance in supporting TBLT innovation in Indonesia.

Chapter 3. Professional development for TBLT teachers

3.1 Introduction

As I documented in the previous chapter, teachers often experience difficulty in implementing an innovative teaching approach in general and in TBLT in particular. This points to the need for an effective teacher professional development programme. Ellis (2017) argued that the constraining factors faced by teachers in implementing TBLT are real issues and "can only be addressed through carefully designed initial and in-service teacher training/education programmes that take account of the characteristics of successful innovations" (p. 521). In line with this view, my task-based study was conducted to specifically address the issue of Indonesian teachers' likely difficulties in implementing TBLT. Because the teacher's role in leading a TBLT innovation is central, it needs to be facilitated through a task-based professional development programme.

International publications on education repeatedly point to the vital role played by teachers in delivering change in public education. Larsen-Freeman (2000), for instance, maintained that school teachers need to continuously improve their knowledge and skills to cope with classroom issues. In his book, *Visible learning for teachers: Maximising impact on learning*, Hattie (2012) described teachers as "the major players in the educational process" (p. 25) and as "the major source of controllable variance" (p. 169). Similar statements about the vital role of teachers in education have also been expressed by other educational experts (e.g. Day, 2013; Kennedy, 2008; Rivkin et al., 2005). They point out that quality education for students can only be delivered if teachers are equipped with the required skills. In other words, to be able to attend to students' learning needs, teachers need the necessary pedagogical knowledge and skills. Peery (2004) asserted that we must first enhance the education of teachers prior to enhancing the education of students. Similarly, Slepkov (2008) noted that teachers who only focus on delivering knowledge and skills to their students and neglect the importance of learning new knowledge and skills are unlikely to develop their teaching expertise. To quote McKinsey and Company (2010), "the quality of an education system can not exceed the quality of its teachers" (p. 16).

In the case of TBLT, Long (2016) noted that the adoption of TBLT in a particular teaching context "requires expertise on the part of course designers and classroom teachers, and a considerable investment of time and effort if it is to be successful" (p. 28). Van den Branden (2016) maintained that successful implementation of TBLT is heavily reliant on the quality of the teachers involved.

In other words, the successful implementation of TBLT depends on the teachers' clear grasp of the principles that inform task-based teaching and, in particular, an understanding of what a task involves (Andon & Eckerth, 2009).

Surprisingly, there have been very few studies of the on-site coaching of TBLT teachers. Despite the numerous studies on task-based learning and teaching (e.g. Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007), little attention has been given by TBLT researchers to the professional development of teachers (Ellis, 2020). Given the pivotal role of teachers on instructed learning, Van den Branden (2016) suggested that "in research on task-based learning, teachers should receive much more attention" (p. 179). Therefore, to help TBLT teachers teach more effectively, more research is needed in the area of teacher-preparation programmes. Two studies conducted in China and Belgium have shown that task-based language teacher professional development helps develop local teachers' ownership of TBLT (Zhu, 2020) and their expertise in implementing task-based language teaching (Van den Branden, 2006).

In this chapter, I will examine the literature on professional development for teachers in general and professional development for language teachers specifically. I will also review accounts of teacher professional development programmes directed at introducing task-based language teaching. In reviewing the literature, I will focus on training and education and use the term 'professional development' (PD) to cover both. My underlying aim is to identify the factors that contribute to effective professional development for TBLT.

3.1.1 Conceptualising teacher professional development

Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) defined professional development as "structured professional learning that results in changes in teacher practices and improvements in student learning outcomes" (p. v). The structured development can be initiated by teachers themselves or outsiders through teacher education or teacher training. My concern here is with the role of outsiders. In what follows, I will describe what 'teacher education' and 'teacher training' mean and point out how they both relate to professional development.

In the educational literature, the term *teacher education* has been defined in different ways by different writers from time to time. Hawes and Hawes (1982, p. 225), for example, describe *teacher education* as "the very broad field of study and instruction concerned with professional preparation

for careers in teaching, administration, or other specialities in education, particularly in the levels of preschool, elementary, and secondary education". United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization ((UNESCO), 1990, p.2) on the other hand, used the term *teacher education* to refer to "both pre-service and in-service programmes which adopt both formal and/or non-formal approaches. It is a continuing process which focuses on teacher career development". Another definition is offered by Guskey (2002), who defined teacher education programmes as "systematic efforts to bring about change in the classroom practices of teachers, in their attitudes and beliefs, and in the learning outcomes of students". From these broadly similar views of teacher education, it is clear that teacher education is an essential part of a teacher's personal and professional growth. Teacher education should develop teachers' personal qualities and provide them with the required skills to ensure their classroom practices lead to favourable student learning outcomes.

In line with the efforts to fully understand teacher professional learning, some educational theorists and scholars have further attempted to distinguish the concepts of 'education' and 'training'. Richards (1990), for instance, viewed teacher learning as falling into two categories: the *micro-approach* and the *macro-approach*. The former refers to a form of professional development directed at providing teachers with a set of specific strategies helpful in managing a classroom or delivering a lesson (e.g. teachers' questioning and corrective strategies). In the latter approach, a teacher education programme is aimed at equipping teachers with a set of general principles helpful for differentiating between effective and ineffective teaching practices (e.g. the significance of collaboration and the value of reflection). In a similar vein, Hills (1981, as cited by O'Neill, 1986) makes a distinction between these two related learning concepts: "Education deals a great deal with the *acquisition* of knowledge. Training deals more with the *application* of knowledge. Thus, within one learning system, we can find elements of both" (p. 273). Similarly, Rao (2004) and Sahlberg (2007) have both explained that teacher training has to do with the provision of concrete skills needed to deal with classroom issues, whereas teacher education relates to the development of more abstract knowledge and general guidelines about pedagogy. As we can see, the difference between *education* and *training* made by these educational experts corresponds to Richards' (1990) *micro* and *macro* distinction in terms of whether teachers are provided with pedagogic theories or practical classroom strategies.

It should be noted that both teacher education and teacher training point to the same goal of developing teachers' professional knowledge and skills. In other words, the term 'professional development' can be used to cover 'education' and 'training'.

3.1.2 Factors in successful teacher professional development programmes

The importance of teacher learning has led researchers to investigate the factors that contribute to a powerful teacher development programme. In this section, I have identified seven key factors associated with effective programmes. I will explain each factor and point to the literature and research that supports it.

Research-based content

The first element that makes for a good professional development programme is research-based content. This means that professional learning for teachers should not be based on traditional values or personal choices. However, instead, it should be delivered on the basis of valid pedagogical research, which will give teachers the theoretical basis they need to guide the design and implementation of particular lessons (The American Federation of Teachers (AFT), 2008). AFT goes on to say that while teachers' current practices should be implemented on the basis of sound research, they should also be evaluated on research grounds. When teachers feel the need to alter their teaching practices, for instance, they should take account of evidence-based developments in pedagogy. Research-guided professional development is likely to enhance teachers' confidence and motivation in teaching as they know that what they do is supported by empirical findings.

The research-based content principle also refers to the need to provide teachers with a variety of information sources based on current research and practice in the field. This means that teachers' professional development needs to concentrate on the different pedagogic strategies related to their specific discipline requiring exposure to different teaching models, which can take the form of sample lesson plans, educational videos, and observation rubrics. This content-focused exposure enables teachers to clearly see what effective instruction looks like (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). In the same vein, AFT (2008) argued that teacher professional learning should serve as a medium for developing the pedagogical knowledge that will help teachers teach effectively. Thus, it should not only equip teachers with knowledge of content, but it should also provide them with a better understanding of how to teach the content and how to manage their classroom. To sum up, a high-quality teacher development programme should enable teachers to deepen their understanding of the teaching materials and sharpen their skills in transferring particular knowledge to their students (Guskey, 2003).

School-based

Much of the literature on general teacher education calls for a powerful teacher development programme that is school-based. Hawley and Valli (1999), for instance, maintained that professional learning should address teachers' daily teaching practice. Professional development, which is job-embedded, will enable teachers to address the real instructional issues happening in their own classroom and the actual learning problems encountered by their students. Relatedly, Slepkov (2008) argued that learning is likely to take place in context and through experience and "in the case of the classroom teacher, this means his or her classroom is the focus of the new learning" (p. 87). Professional development, which is site-specific, should enable teachers to address the fundamental problems existing in their own classroom and make them motivated participants so they can see a direct connection between learning and application. This practical approach links what they learn with the actual problems they experience in the classroom (Guskey, 2003). In short, professional learning for teachers gains power when it is conducted in their own teaching context, in connection with what happens in their classroom, and in response to their learning needs (Desimone, 2009).

Learning-directed

In addition to being evidence-based and site-specific, teacher researchers and scholars have also considered the importance of learning-directed teacher development programmes. This points to the need to conduct a professional learning programme that focuses on what is happening with students when they are learning and how to increase their academic achievement. AFT (2008) asserts that teacher professional learning should have clear objectives and standards for student learning so that teachers can attend to students' learning needs, and it should enable teachers to employ effective strategies that lead to better student performance. This is consistent with what Harris and Grandgenett (2002) described as 'authentic learning', that is, an approach to learning which holds that engagement in learning occurs in contexts which discuss real-life issues relevant to the learner's practice and experience. Furthermore, professional development for teachers can be transformational only if it results in improvements in teaching practices that facilitate student learning. In the words of Easton (2008), "powerful professional learning begins with what will really help young people learn, engages those involved in helping them learn, and has an effect on the classrooms where those students and their teachers learn" (p. 757).

Teacher engagement

Another important criterion that contributes to effective professional development for teachers is teacher engagement. For AFT (2008), this principle means that professional learning participants should be intellectually involved in formulating, using and discussing teaching materials appropriate

for their students' level. They argued that a prescriptive professional learning programme that tells teachers what to do and provides them with fixed lessons, activities and strategies would not promote teachers' understanding and creativity, two skills needed to cope with unpredictable classroom issues. Therefore, for a professional development programme to succeed, it needs to incorporate *active learning* (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), an approach that represents a shift from traditional lecture-oriented development programmes to more independent and interactive programmes. In this approach, teachers are seen as active participants who have the responsibility, ability and flexibility to create and decide their own teaching syllabus. A professional development programme that actively involves teachers in designing the learning content is likely to enhance their level of participation in the programme (Hawley & Valli, 1999).

Collaborative

Professional development for teachers has collaborative aspects to it. Professional development participants should be given opportunities to exchange opinions and work together with their colleagues in their professional learning. Collaboration among educational practitioners plays an important part in a successful professional development programme as it encourages the sharing of knowledge and develops a sense of belonging (Hawley & Valli, 1999). Collaboration among teachers may also result in academic communities which support an educational innovation in their institution (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). This view is corroborated by Guskey (2003), who pointed out that student teachers need an academic partner or knowledgeable others with whom they can share ideas and talk about other issues surrounding the implementation of a new teaching approach. In short, a teacher professional development programme will not succeed unless there is a collaboration between practitioners and experts in the field where they build a shared understanding of effective and ineffective teaching practices (AFT, 2008). To quote Loucks-Horsley et al. (1987), "collaboration relates to mutual problem solving, assuming that multiple perspectives are better than single ones" (p.9).

Sustained duration and support

Time and support are two essential attributes of effective professional development for teachers. In their pursuit of knowledge and skills, teachers do not develop expertise instantly; thus, continuous support and adequate time are needed before teachers can fully implement an innovation in their school. Given that learning is a slow gradual process, Guskey (2003) maintained that student teachers need time to understand, practice, and apply new concepts and techniques. During this internalisation and implementation period, teacher development programmes should ensure that student teachers are provided with the necessary assistance and resources. Hawley and Valli (1999)

pointed out that teacher learning should be ongoing to achieve a better understanding of classroom problems and needs to be well-supported by the host organisation in which the innovation occurs. Sending teachers to a one-day workshop has no significant effect on teacher learning and change as it does not address the real issues they encounter in their daily practices (Gallimore et al., 2009).

AFT (2008) summarised their view on the significance of time and support in teacher professional learning as follows:

> Professional development does not take place in an isolated moment in time. It is not an event; it is a process. Expertise grows over time as teachers reflect on and use ideas and strategies in the classroom, as they clarify their understanding, and as they wrestle with whether they are applying new knowledge appropriately. Professional development requires the support of colleagues and the school administration, including opportunities to see how others interpret and apply such new knowledge. All of this takes time (p. 7).

Reflective

The last factor that facilitates professional development concerns the need to offer feedback and opportunity for reflection. Mezirow (1985) classified adult learning into three types: instrumental (e.g. enhancement of particular skills), dialogic (e.g. achieving comprehension by learning together), and self-reflective (e.g. making improvements in teaching through personal reflection). Mezirow further explained that professional developers in the past tended to adopt the first two approaches to adult learning. In these two approaches, they invited teachers to attend one-shot seminars or conferences where teachers were given predetermined topics in the hope that the transfer of knowledge and skills in these academic events would enable teachers to teach more effectively in their profession. However, these instrumental and dialogic development formats proved to be unproductive in bringing about meaningful change as the learning topics were often not related to actual classroom problems faced by teachers. Thus, teachers had no opportunities to evaluate their own teaching practices. As a result, many professional development designers have opted for the third approach, where teachers receive evaluative comments and carry out individual reflections on their performance. In support of this approach, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) stated that as professional learning participants, teachers need sufficient time to reflect on their pedagogic practices and receive constructive feedback from the expert working with them in the field. This reflective approach enables teachers to see which aspects of teaching they need to improve and which areas they need to maintain.

Despite the usefulness of the professional development guidelines that I have described above, however, Guskey (2003) suggested that further investigations into other important aspects and effects of teacher learning are needed to maximise the effectiveness of teacher development programmes such as how student progress as the principal aim of professional development can be best monitored and evaluated through reliable assessment tools, how the amount of time spent in teacher education can be purposefully sequenced, what factors need to be taken into account in order that school-based cooperation between practitioners and academics can be carefully organised, and whether or not a particular principle of professional development is applicable to all disciplines and contexts. In a similar vein, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) warned us against some conditions which may impede the implementation of a professional development programme. These include lack of learning materials, unsupportive school culture, and a low degree of responsiveness to the needs of the professional development participants.

3.1.3 Researching the principles

Some studies have attempted to investigate the effects of particular principles on teacher change. Shields et al. (1998), for example, focused on the duration factor. They argue that professional development for teachers delivered on a continuous basis over a period of time is positively correlated to teacher professional growth. This is consistent with Weiss et al.'s (1998) research showing a strong relationship between long-lasting teacher development programmes and enhanced teacher practices. Another study that has explored the influence of aspects of professional development programmes on teacher performance was conducted by Garet et al. (2001). Using a self-report method, they surveyed 1,027 American teachers to examine the degree to which core features (e.g. teacher learning activity, duration and collective participation) affected teacher expertise in the field. They pointed out that an innovative teacher development programme that concentrates on specific content will likely generate more satisfactory results than a traditional one. A longer teacher professional development programme directly linked to classroom practices tends to have a stronger impact on teacher performance than a shorter one. Furthermore, the findings give empirical support to the significance of teachers' active participation in the programme activities. Teachers who work together and communicate with other professionals in the field for a common innovation goal are likely to develop relevant knowledge and skills (Ward & Tikinoff, 1982).

However, it is important to note that some studies have also documented unsuccessful teacher professional development programmes (e.g. Guskey, 1986; Kennedy, 1998). According to these educational specialists, failure happens because teacher learning providers do not adequately

address factors relating to teacher motivation and the process of teacher change. In response to this issue, Guskey (2002) proposed a model of teacher learning called "the Model of Teacher Change". This approach puts the three main outcomes of professional learning programmes in the following sequence:

Figure 1

Guskey's Model of Teacher Change
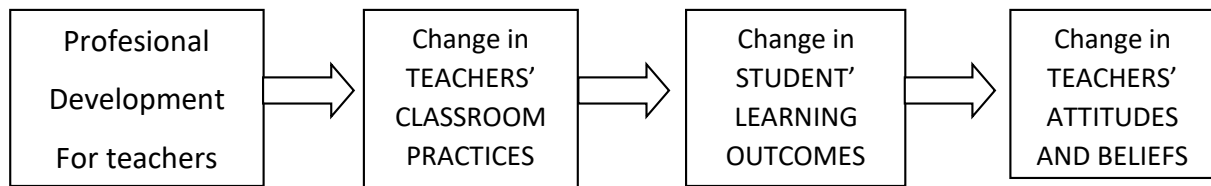
Note. From "Professional development and teacher change", by T. R. Guskey, 2002, *Teachers and Teaching, 8*(3), p. 383 (https://doi.org/10.1080/135406002100000512). Copyright 2018 by The Author.

Guskey argued that if teachers can see improvements in their students' learning, their teaching attitudes and beliefs are likely to change in a positive and significant way. These improved outcomes of student learning are derived from the experiments and innovations that teachers initiate in their classrooms. In other words, positive and significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs hinges, to a large extent, on the learning progress demonstrated by their students, and this student achievement depends, in most cases, on how teachers respond to their learners in their classroom. It follows that teachers are more likely to sustain an innovative teaching approach and become committed to its implementation if they are presented with evidence of student achievement in their own classroom (Huberman, 1992).

Finally, Guskey concluded that if a teacher development programme is based on this model, three principles must be held in view: 1) teacher change is a gradual and strenuous process that requires continuous collaboration between researchers/trainers/teacher educators and teachers, 2) teachers should receive feedback on their teaching practices and student learning outcomes, and 3) teachers should be given sufficient support to become committed agents of change in their school.

3.1.4 Summary

From the published articles and studies on professional development shown above, several conclusions which bore relevance to my teacher professional development programme can be made as follows:

1. Professional development programmes for teachers should incorporate research-based content. Teacher learning developers should ensure that student teachers are equipped with relevant knowledge and skills based on sound research in the area of teaching and learning.

2. Teacher professional development programmes should be school-based (i.e. situated in the teachers' own institutions). On-site development programmes will enable teachers to see the nexus between their learning content and the existing classroom issues.

3. Teacher professional development should cater to learners' needs. Effective professional development for teachers should not only result in better pedagogic practices but also better student performance.

4. Teachers should be involved in the construction of teaching materials. Engaging teachers in designing and discussing teaching materials will likely enhance their motivation in the professional learning programmes.

5. Professional development for teachers should be collaborative. Collaboration between a teaching practitioner (i.e. a student teacher) and a knowledgeable other (i.e. a teacher facilitator) helps to increase the teacher's sense of ownership of the professional learning programme.

6. Teacher professional development programmes should be carried out over a proper period of time with sustained support. Teachers should be given enough time to internalise what they have learned in the programme and continuous assistance to implement an innovation.

7. Professional development should involve an evaluation of teacher performance. Providing feedback for teachers helps them to improve their teaching practices.

It should also be noted that in my task-based teacher professional development programme, I used a combination of the macro- and micro- approaches to teacher learning proposed by Richards (1990), that is while I introduced some TBLT theoretical concepts to the teacher prior to the commencement of the programme (pre-teaching training), I also equipped him with hands-on strategies to cope with TBLT implementational problems throughout the programme (in-teaching training). As Richards suggested, there is a need to strike a balance between the provision of

relevant theoretical guidelines and the practical techniques required to ensure the smooth implementation of effective teaching.

3.2 Professional development for language teachers

So far, we have been looking at the literature on professional development for teachers in general. I will now focus on the literature that has specifically addressed professional development for language teachers. I will first discuss professional development models for language teachers in the international context and two comparative studies on language teacher professional development. After that, I will talk about professional development models in the Indonesian context before finally suggesting ways of facilitating professional development for Indonesian English language teachers.

3.2.1 International context

To date, a number of teacher learning specialists have offered useful models of language teacher professional development. Wallace (1991, p. 6), for example, proposed three types of professional development for teachers: *craft* type, *applied science* type, and *reflective* types. A craft or apprenticeship model refers to a professional development programme where student teachers sit in and learn directly from experienced classroom teachers about pedagogical knowledge and skills through observation, imitation and implementation. In the applied science type, educational experts equip teachers with scientific findings and current theories in language learning and teaching to such an extent that they are prepared to implement this theoretical knowledge in their own classroom. Student teachers training under a reflective or constructivist format are expected to enhance their expertise through the process of reflection, evaluation, and adaptation from previous experiences and practices.

The first two models (i.e. craft and applied science) are the most widely-practised professional development models but represent a traditional approach to teacher learning. The craft model positions teachers as passive learners who are taught how things should be done, and the proponents of the applied science model treat experts as the only source of knowledge and problem-solving in the classroom. These two formats are incompatible with the principle of 'teacher learning as a cognitive process' proposed by Richards and Farrell (2005), which postulates that language teachers are active learners who should be cognitively involved in formulating pedagogic content and in making decisions about instructional choices that will enable them to address their own classroom

problems. The last model (i.e. reflective model) requires active participation and self-evaluation from student teachers. In this model, student teachers learn how to critically meld their received knowledge (e.g. pedagogical and acquisition theories underlying teaching practices) with their experiential knowledge (e.g. teachers' own experience and expertise in second language teaching). This constructivist professional development format enables teachers to see the relationship between theory and practice and thus become reflective and independent learners who are capable of assessing their teaching practices and experimenting with different ideas. In my task-based teacher professional development programme, I have opted for the reflective model because I viewed teacher involvement in the design, implementation and evaluation of tasks as a crucial element for the successful innovation of TBLT. As Easton (2008) states, "if schools are to change to meet their increasingly urgent needs, teachers will have to move from being trained or developed to becoming active learners" (p. 755).

Lucas et al. (2008) argued that a powerful English teacher learning programme should focus on six essential aspects of second language learning and three types of pedagogical expertise in what they described as a 'linguistically responsive' model of professional development. The six language principles with which teachers need to engage are the development of their own language proficiency, the importance of comprehensible input and output, the value of social interactions in the classroom, the role of students' first language skills, the significance of creating a comfortable learning atmosphere, and the need to attend to both linguistic features and language functions. With regard to the teaching competence that teachers need to possess, Lucas et al. maintain that the content of a teacher professional development programme should ensure teachers' understanding of the nature and background of English language learners and their interaction with other classroom members. Thus teachers who are 1) familiar with their students' linguistic background, 2) understand the language demands needed to complete a particular task, and 3) know how to use proper scaffoldings to support students' performance in doing the task will be able to implement innovation in their second language classroom successfully. Lucas et al. recommended that future designers of learning programmes for teachers provide a special class in the teacher professional development curriculum on how to teach English language learners so that they can see the relationship between what they have learned and what they will encounter in the classroom.

This model of professional development informed my task-based teacher professional development programme. For instance, in designing and selecting task-based materials, student teachers need to consider students' English language levels. If they are beginner-level learners, teachers will need to first use input-providing tasks (Shintani, 2012) before introducing output-prompting tasks. It is also

important to remind teachers of the importance of involving students in communicative-based activities where they have opportunities to interact with each other. Social interactions provide a context for negotiation of meaning, which can expose students to comprehensible input and enhance their speaking abilities (Ellis, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). The explicit instruction of language forms in the post-task stage (Willis, 1996), which I recommended and demonstrated in my own professional development work with the teacher, is also compatible with Lucas et al.'s recommendation.

3.2.2 Comparative studies of professional development for language teachers

There have been several comparative studies of professional development for language teachers. In their recent study, for example, Karakas and Yavuz (2018) outlined the notable differences between English language teacher professional development programmes in Turkey and Malaysia in some important aspects. In the course-related matters, they found out that although there are more general obligatory subjects in the Malaysian professional development (e.g. socio-cultural and religious-related courses), there were fewer language-related subjects compared to the Turkish professional development. The teacher learning developer in Malaysia also offers more elective classes (e.g. academic writing skills, reading for academic purposes) but less field experience (teaching practicums) than the Turkey programme. However, the Malaysian professional development organisers provide more opportunities for their student teachers to study abroad to enhance their English proficiency in contrast to their counterparts in Turkey. It is interesting to note that although the two programmes vary, they both operate under the same professional development model, the so-called 'applied science model' (Wallace, 1991), that is, teachers' theoretical knowledge is strengthened initially before they are deemed ready to implement it in the final stage of the programme. Karakas and Yavuz suggested that the practicum time of the programmes be increased and be conducted in all stages, not just in the final stage, so that novice teachers have sufficient time and experience to internalise and integrate theory with practice. This comparative study informed my task-based teacher professional development programme in three key ways. First, the need to facilitate TBLT teachers to be active learners by involving them in the construction of a task-based syllabus. Second, the nexus between theory and application can be built by assigning prospective TBLT teachers to a teaching practicum where they teach their own syllabus in their own classrooms. Third, an effective teacher preparation programme for TBLT should be conducted continuously to enable teachers to get a clear understanding of task-based language teaching.

Another comparative study was conducted by Dayoub and Bashiruddin (2012) to investigate the similar and different features of professional development experienced by practising teachers in EFL secondary schools. Using a self-study and case-study method, Dayoub and Bashiruddin cross-analysed two female English language teachers' professional growth in two developing countries: Syria and Pakistan. The findings revealed that the two teachers, who had no pre-service professional development in their teaching career, were both self-directed learners who had high motivation to develop their professionalism. Despite the few pre-service professional development opportunities offered by the central educational authorities in their respective countries, they had both managed to learn new pedagogic knowledge and skills through formal and informal experiences, such as attending in-service professional development programmes held by international private agencies, learning from students and colleagues, and reflecting on past teaching experiences. In their efforts to develop professionally, the two teachers, however, had different experiences in the schools in which they worked. The Syrian teacher, for instance, reported an unsupportive school culture and policy which had impeded her professional learning growth. By contrast, the Pakistani teacher enjoyed the facilitative environment in her school, which had promoted her teaching skills. Another factor that affected the teachers' professional development was time limitations. Multiple responsibilities held by the two teachers at home and school had sometimes made them struggle to focus on their professional learning and keep up with up-to-date developments in teaching. Little (1999) argued that one of the major problems that impede teachers' professional learning is the immediacy of the classroom or 'day-to-day events', which place great demands on teachers' time.

To conclude, some important points that emerge from this comparative study are relevant to my own task-based professional development programme: teachers need to be willing to learn to make a change (self-motivated learners) (Smith, 2009), teachers learn best from their own classroom experiences (Knight et al., 2006) and in collaboration with knowledgeable others (Thiessen, 1992), and teacher learning organisers need to inform and approach the school in their efforts to provide a supportive learning environment for local teachers (Sergiovanni, 2000).

As we have seen, these language teacher professional development models and comparative studies afford some crucial points which, in many respects, support the list of conclusions arrived at in my earlier section (i.e. factors in successful teacher professional development programmes). These points include the importance of teachers' clear understanding of what a task involves, the advantage of teachers' involvement in the task design and implementation, the value of teachers' reflective attitudes towards task evaluation, and the significance of working with and supporting practising teachers on an ongoing basis.

3.2.3 The Indonesian context

As with other EFL countries, professional development for English language teachers in Indonesia has been a topic of concern and debate for many educational investigators. Luciana (2004), for example, argued that English teacher professional learning programmes in Indonesia should be standardised by taking into account five key areas: teachers' pedagogic behaviour, students' learning background, syllabus design, student achievement and institutional support. She goes on to say that failure to address these components may result in ineffective teacher learning programmes. In a similar vein, Evans et al. (2009), having conducted a USAID-funded large-scale study involving six provinces and 12 universities in Indonesia, provided a comprehensive list of suggestions for the local educational authorities and stakeholders when delivering professional development programmes for language teachers. These proposals included the establishment of the *Center for Effective Schools* in each province managed by a reliable university, the provision of support for school facilities, and the delivery of ongoing professional development for teachers. Lengkenawati (2015) argued that teacher professional certification should be continuously reviewed on the basis of proficiency and merit. Once teachers are granted certification, the next step is to assess teachers' performance regularly, in addition to paperwork evaluation, to ensure that teachers maintain their professional growth over a period of time. Furthermore, Astuti (2016), drawing on cooperative learning and self-development theories, provided several recommendations to improve professional development programmes for novice English teachers. In her opinion, English teacher learning developers should connect prospective teachers with professional communities, such as TEFLIN (Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia), where they can communicate and share ideas with other teaching practitioners to develop their professional identity. In addition, an English teacher professional development programme should equip would-be teachers with the knowledge and skills of teacher identity development so that they can proceed smoothly through their early years in the teaching profession. She further pointed out that English teacher development programmes should be seen as collective endeavours and be based on cooperative learning principles in which student-teacher participation and interaction in the programmes are of paramount importance.

The drawbacks of language teacher development programmes in Indonesia have also encouraged local teacher learning specialists to find models of effective learning for English language teachers. Hayati (2015), for instance, offered a model of English teacher learning in Indonesia called 'critical pedagogy'. Critical pedagogy holds that for teacher professional growth to occur, teachers who undergo a development programme should be actively involved in crafting the syllabus, teaching it

and critically reviewing their own teaching performance. In Hayati's view, critical pedagogy helps to ensure substantial change for a number of important reasons. It promotes student teachers' critical thinking about issues surrounding their classroom practice, develops their confidence in teaching, increases their ability to adapt teaching approaches with local contexts, provides a better understanding of socio-cultural implications of English teaching, and allows teachers to participate in the construction of the professional learning content. Hayati's critical approach to teacher professional learning is relevant to my task-based professional development programme because, in the programme, I gave an opportunity for the teacher to participate in the construction of his own task-based syllabus actively, to teach the materials in his own classroom, and to reflect on his own teaching practice critically.

Zacharias (2014) proposed another model of teacher education premised on English as an International Language (EIL) pedagogy. The EIL pedagogy holds that as an international language, English should be learned in the context in which it operates, not in the English-speaking context, and therefore local content and culture should be incorporated into the English syllabus to facilitate learning. Working with 10 teacher candidates in a year-long teacher professional development programme, Zacharias initiated the programme by conducting a workshop on EIL pedagogy in order to equip the prospective teachers with the basic concepts of EIL pedagogy before they were asked to design a lesson plan and perform a practicum (teaching practice) in real classrooms. Through teachers' reflective journals and individual interviews, he concluded that the EIL-based teacher professional learning programme developed teachers' enthusiasm and confidence in teaching as they were given opportunities to add local wisdom and cultural elements into their teaching materials. Nonetheless, he reminded us of the importance of viewing teacher learning as ongoing because an innovative approach takes time to implement. Zacharia's idea of using local content to teach English is applicable to my task-based teacher professional development programme. In formulating the task-based materials, I included locally familiar names, places, and cultures to make the materials more engaging and learning more enjoyable.

3.2.4 Summary

From the literature on professional development programmes for language teachers above, some important points which are pertinent to my task-based professional development programme are listed as follows:

1. An effective language teacher professional development programme should view student teachers as active learners and thinkers who should be involved in constructing and implementing their own teaching.
2. A language teacher professional learning programme should be built on the basis of evidence-supported theories about second/foreign language learning, including important notions such as comprehensible input and output, social interaction, and attention to form.
3. A powerful language teacher professional development programme should provide student teachers with ongoing opportunities to connect what they have learned with what they really face in the classroom.
4. Professional growth for language teachers is likely to occur when local teachers display self-directed qualities in their learning and when there are mutually supportive practices between teachers and the school where they work.
5. A language teacher professional learning programme should enable teachers to evaluate their teaching content and classroom practice critically.
6. Language teacher professional development organisers should consider the importance of incorporating local culture into instructional materials.

3.3 Professional development for TBLT teachers

While numerous studies have investigated task-based language teaching, little attention has been paid to researching professional development programmes intended to help teachers design and implement TBLT (Ellis, 2020). TBLT teacher preparation programmes can be pre-service or in-service. The former refers to a professional learning programme for prospective teachers in the hope that they can/will use TBLT in their future classes, while the latter refers to a professional learning programme that is specifically designed for practising teachers so that they can introduce TBLT as an innovative approach into their current teaching context.

In this section, I will review the literature on professional development programmes which are specifically designed to prepare teachers to introduce task-based language teaching in particular institutional contexts. I will first discuss factors that contribute to effective professional development for TBLT teachers and proceed to consider pre-service and in-service professional development programmes. My main concern is with in-service programmes, but I include a review of pre-service professional development programmes because they provide me with valuable insights into the practical issues that teachers encounter in adopting and enacting TBLT principles.

To conclude this section, I will provide guidelines for designing a task-based programme for practising teachers of English language in Indonesia.

3.3.1 Essential components of teacher professional development programmes

In his article, *Teacher preparation for task-based language teaching*, Ellis (2020) identified three major areas in effective professional development for TBLT teachers: a *content-related* area, a *methodology-related* area and a *teacher-uptake-related* area. The first area refers to the learning content that should be incorporated into a TBLT teacher professional development programme. This includes a discussion of teaching belief systems, the conceptualisation of tasks, the provision of a ready-to-use task-based syllabus, the presentation of critical issues surrounding the construction and application of tasks, the value of using input-providing tasks with low-level learners, and the importance of equipping teachers with teaching strategies to solve classroom problems. The second area concerns the methodology of the programme. For instance, a TBLT preparation programme developer should ensure that the programme accords with TBLT principles, namely an emphasis on experiential learning, which requires teachers to learn about tasks by doing them. Instead of presenting TBLT theories to teachers, they should be directly involved in designing, teaching and evaluating tasks. The last area has to do with how teachers can best internalise TBLT. A powerful TBLT teacher professional development programme should incorporate the principles of school-based and practice-oriented coaching, collaboration with experts on TBLT, sustained support from the school, task evaluations and the formation of a task-based learning team.

Similarly, Lai (2015) listed the factors that should be taken into consideration when conducting teacher professional development programmes for TBLT. First, teachers need to be provided with a sense of ownership of the programme. This can be done by introducing a task-based approach to teachers as 'a set of provisional specifications', or as operational constructs which can be adapted later on rather than as a fixed approach they must strictly follow. Also, teachers should be actively involved in the formulation of a task-based syllabus. Second, TBLT professional development should be institutionalised. This points to the need to conduct a school-based and practice-oriented professional development programme which links theoretical tenets of TBLT with actual classroom practices. Furthermore, teachers should be accompanied by an academic partner in their attempts to introduce TBLT to their students. Third, task-based materials that are ready to be used should be made available to teachers. The provision of a ready-made task-based syllabus for teachers can serve as a model of what task-based lessons look like. Finally, Lai pointed out that further studies on TBLT teacher professional development programmes in the Asian contexts are needed because, to

date, there has been very little research on this. It is in this spirit that I conducted my task-based professional development programme.

3.3.2 Pre-service professional development for TBLT teachers

Some researchers have attempted to investigate the effects of pre-service task-based professional development programmes on teacher candidates' attitudes towards TBLT. Roessingh (2014), for instance, examined a 12-week initial professional development programme for prospective elementary school teachers in Canada. In this task-based programme, scheduled to meet 3 hours a week, the teacher candidates were actively involved in performing various types of tasks (e.g. word sorts, K-W-L and jigsaw tasks) where they were directly shown how the tasks could be taught in their future classes. In addition, the student teachers were also required to design task-based materials for elementary-level students and write a reflective journal commenting on what they had learned in the programme. Roessingh concluded by saying that the elementary school teachers-to-be found this programme valuable and enjoyable, as evident in their high rate of attendance, high level of classroom participation and high-quality assignments.

In a similar study, Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) investigated the extent to which a task-based pre-service professional development programme influenced student teachers' views about task-based language teaching. Using a constructivist-oriented approach to teacher learning, they developed a 37-hour introductory course on task-based language teaching for third-year education students in a Canadian university. The data they collected for this exploratory study consisted of a reflection assignment (i.e. students' written ideas about task-based versus PPP-based lessons), a questionnaire administered to explore students' opinions about their teaching beliefs, and an interview held with the students upon completion of their teaching practicum. The results of the study indicate that there was a significant change in the way the student teachers perceived TBLT. At the beginning of the course, they reported a more positive attitude to the PPP instruction than to task-based instruction, which is understandable given their previous experiences with form-focused instruction. At the end of the course, they developed a more positive disposition towards TBLT than towards PPP, as can be seen in the reduced focus on explicit grammar instruction and error correction. Despite the positive views held by the student teachers towards task-based language teaching, they did not fully utilise TBLT in their teaching practicum. Ogilvie and Dunn argued that this was due to three main factors: the students' epistemological frame (e.g. their view that the teacher should provide language practice prior to doing communicative activities), cultural norms (e.g. teacher-controlled classroom practices), and lack of support (e.g. insufficient assistance from mentors).

It is interesting to see that the notion of the teacher as a learning authority is not only held by teachers in the Asian contexts. In fact, as Ogilvie and Dunn revealed, pre-service teachers in a Canadian context demonstrated conflicting views about their implementation of TBLT. The same situation was also found in France, where a group of local teachers that McAllister et al. (2012) surveyed were disinclined to employ TBLT because they worried that task-based instruction might interfere with their authoritative role in the classroom and give them more work to do. As Lai (2015) stated, "teachers in the non-Asian contexts are found to struggle with similar incompatible epistemological beliefs as their Asian counterparts" (p. 20).

Although my task-based professional development programme focused exclusively on in-service work with a practising teacher, the two studies above have provided important information about the practical issues that might arise during the implementation of TBLTsuch as the impact of teachers' pedagogic beliefs on their teaching practices and the role of expert assistance in applying TBLT. In fact, as Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) claimed, their study findings "corroborate other research that has demonstrated the complexity of implementing TBLT among in-service teachers" (e.g. Markee, 1997; Tinker-Sachs, 2007; Van den Branden, 2006)" (p. 176).

3.3.3 In-service professional development for TBLT teachers

The most detailed account of in-service task-based professional development for TBLT teachers can be found in Van den Branden (2006). Reporting on a 2-year study of the introduction of TBLT into 20 primary schools in Flanders, Van den Branden described the implementation of a task-based teacher professional development programme. At the beginning stage of the programme, TBLT was introduced to local teachers by the Centre for Language and Education at the University of Leuven through short seminars or workshops featuring TBLT experts. This approach, which is similar to Wallace's (1991) applied science model of professional development, was a failure as the teachers were unable to put what they had learned into practice in their classrooms. Drawing on their negative experiences of this passive-learning approach, the Centre for Language and Education adopted an approach that provided teachers with both TBLT tenets and content-provided task-based materials which were ready to use in their classrooms. In addition, the student teachers were asked to set up a task-based learning group in their own schools with assistance from the school counsellors who were well-versed in task-based language teaching. This alternative approach, which connected TBLT theory with practice, enabled the practising teachers to see the actual issues surrounding the implementation of TBLT. The teachers responded positively to the material and academic support provided. Van den Branden (2006) concluded that effective professional development programmes

for TBLT teachers should be conducted in the teachers' own classrooms, continuously visited and evaluated by TBLT experts, supported with sufficient teaching resources, and involve collaborative practices between the teachers and school staff. He added that the TBLT teacher preparation programmes in the Flemish project, which were conducted in this manner, resulted in three major changes. First, teachers' awareness of communicative language goals increased (e.g. "language activities are now far more geared towards functional language skills than to the teaching of isolated linguistic elements") (p. 245). Second, the quality of the teachers' input improved (e.g. teachers' questioning was more natural). Third, students' motivation to perform the task-based activities increased (e.g. they found the tasks more enjoyable and relevant to their personal experiences).

Despite the success, however, Van den Branden pointed to some significant contextual constraints faced by the local teachers at the practical level. These implementation issues included teachers' difficulty in selecting tasks appropriate for their students' level (i.e. ensuring suitable task complexity), managing classroom discipline during the performance of tasks, and handling group work and language level differences between the students. Van den Branden also reminded us that integrating TBLT theories with classroom practices takes time, and thus teachers should be provided with adequate time to adjust to task-based language teaching as a new approach.

Erlam (2015) investigated the views of practising language teachers who had attended a year-long language professional development programme in New Zealand. Out of 48 research participants, 75% were primary and intermediate school teachers (Years 1 to 8), and 25% were secondary school teachers (Years 9 to 13). The teachers varied in their teaching experiences and educational backgrounds. The state-funded professional development programme was conducted in three main stages. First, the teachers were given a chance to take a language course to develop their proficiency in the target language that they were teaching. Second, they were enrolled in a university-level task-based course where they were introduced to task-based language teaching and required to craft and assess their own tasks. Third, they were asked to apply what they had learned in the task-based course in their own classrooms, where their teaching performance was observed four times during the year of the first implementation and evaluated by facilitators. After completion of the professional programme, Erlam phone-interviewed the teachers to explore their experiences in learning about and implementing task-based language teaching. The results of the interviews indicate that the task-based professional development programme had a significant effect on the teachers' teaching beliefs and practices. For example, the teachers reported that they regularly used tasks in the classroom, they were more inclined to carry out learner-centred activities than teacher-dominated ones, and that their students found the language tasks fun and relevant. Nevertheless, the

interviews also identified some implementational barriers that the teachers encountered, including time restrictions (e.g. time to design tasks and limited teaching hours), lack of task-based teaching resources, structural issues (e.g. national exams and curricula), unclear grasp of what a task involves, how to choose tasks that are well-suited to particular students, and a low level of student proficiency in the target language. In conclusion, Erlam said that the task-based professional development programme resulted in significant learning for the language teachers as they reported "a range of benefits of implementing this new approach in their language classrooms, many of which are documented elsewhere in the literature" (p. 11). She further suggested that future professional development programmes for TBLT teachers should consider the contextual factors impeding the implementation of TBLT and that teachers and students be given sufficient time to internalise and adopt task-based language teaching.

East (2019) conducted a similar study with language teachers in New Zealand. Using semi-structured interviews, he explored the opinions of seven practising teachers about their attempts at implementing TBLT in their own classrooms three years after they had completed an initial task-based professional development programme. Findings from the study suggest three important things. First, each of the teacher participants demonstrated a good understanding of task-based language teaching, and they admitted acquiring this understanding from their initial professional development, which had sufficiently exposed them to TBLT tenets and practices. Second, the teachers described a number of challenges to implementation that they faced when introducing TBLT, which included unavailability of ready-to-use task-based materials, limited time to craft task-based resources and to teach tasks, a mismatch between TBLT and local language learning cultures that valued teacher-directed learning, and school practices which do not support the implementation of TBLT (e.g. curricular and assessment demands). Third, the teachers reported that they used a mixture of TBLT and other practical approaches to cope with the contextual barriers. In other words, they opted for eclecticism, that is, experimenting with different ideas and techniques to deal with classroom problems and to make students learn. Given the findings, East concluded that despite the benefits of an initial task-based professional development programme in developing teachers' understanding of TBLT, teachers' efforts to introduce TBLT in their classroom needed to be supported on an ongoing basis through collaborative practices between the government and the school to ensure the smooth long-term implementation of TBLT. Otherwise, "teachers will make their own decisions about implementation as they respond to contextual realities " (East, 2019, p.113).

As mentioned earlier, the introduction of TBLT in both Asian and Western contexts presents challenges for local teachers. In the case of a Belgian context, Van den Branden (2006) reported that many practising language teachers were hesitant to assign group work as it might lead to noisy and uncontrollable classroom atmospheres. This was also the case with the New Zealand teachers (East, 2019; Erlam, 2015), who in many respects struggled with the same implementational issues facing the Asian teachers, including teacher-related factors (e.g. a poor understanding of TBLT), student-related factors (e.g. a low command of the target language), institutional-related factors (e.g. lack of school support) and structural-related factors (e.g. a conflict with the local curriculum). Lai (2015) summed up this phenomenon by saying, "TBLT may not be a pedagogical challenge unique to the Asian context, but a universal challenge to the predominant culture of language teaching in general" (p. 20).

Ellis's (2020) criteria for a successful TBLT teacher professional development programme and the accounts of task-based professional development programmes reported by Van den Branden (2006), East (2019) and Erlam (2015) above have taught me important lessons about my own work with mentoring a teacher in TBLT. For example, to address the issue of lack of task-based resources and time limitations, for the first 6 weeks of my programme, I provided the teacher with ready-made task-based materials that he could use in his classroom. This not only saved the teacher's time in preparing language tasks but also provided enough time for him to see how TBLT could be introduced to students in motivating lessons. In response to the issue of limited support for teachers, for the last 6 weeks of the programme, I involved the teacher in the construction of his own task-based syllabus in the hope that he would be able to learn from and reflect on his previous experiences in using and teaching my task-based syllabus. I strove to build a nexus between theory and practice by helping him to enhance his understanding of what comprises a task. During the design and teaching of his own task-based lessons, I worked closely with the teacher and provided feedback in post-lesson discussions. This was done as a collaborative effort to support the teacher and increase his motivation and participation in the programme.

3.3.4 General summary

After reviewing the literature on teacher professional development in general, teacher professional development for language teachers, and teacher professional development for TBLT teachers, I have reached the following conclusions:

1. The literature on teacher professional development, in general, suggests that an effective professional development programme for teachers should be research-oriented, school-based, learner-directed, involve teacher engagement, collaborative practices, sustained support and an evaluation of teacher performance.

2. The literature on teacher professional development for language teachers indicates that a powerful professional development programme for language teachers should treat teachers as active learners, be underpinned by current theories about second/foreign language learning, provide ongoing practical experiences for teachers, involve self-motivated teachers, engage teachers in critical thinking, and incorporate local components.

3. When conducting programmes that prepare teachers to implement TBLT, the literature on teacher professional development for TBLT teachers mentions the importance of focusing on what a task is; a methodology that reflects TBLT principles; the teachers' uptake of TBLT through practice-oriented learning; the teachers' ownership of TBLT (i.e. their involvement in devising task-based materials and their freedom to alter them to suit their students); the institutionalisation of TBLT professional development programmes in the form of school-based practices; the need to provide teachers with task-based resources.

3.4 Guidelines for developing a TBLT teacher professional development programme

Based on my review of the research on professional development programmes for TBLT teachers, the following is a summary of guidelines for designing a programme for in-service teachers of English language in Indonesia:

1. A professional development programme for practising teachers should begin with an introductory course on the nature of a task-based approach to language teaching. This course should consist of some basic tenets of TBLT such as the four criteria of a task, educational and SLA theories that underlie task-based language teaching, how to choose appropriate tasks, the methodology of TBLT, the role of the focus on form, assessing tasks, and TBLT implementational issues. In formulating the content of my own introductory course with the teacher, I used Ellis's (2019) book *Introducing task-based language teaching* as a reference. In this 2-day introductory session, I worked with a practising local teacher who was new to task-based language teaching and was accustomed to form-focused instruction.

2. A TBLT teacher professional development programme should be school-based and involve practice-oriented learning for teachers. My task-based professional development programme

was located in the school where the teacher worked, and the programme included the teacher's active involvement in teaching TBLT in his own classroom. This aimed to enable the teacher to build the nexus between what he had learned in the introductory course and what he really faced in the classroom.

3. A professional development programme for TBLT teachers should provide teachers with sufficient teaching resources before asking them to develop their own task-based materials. In my own in-service work with the teacher, I provided the teacher with six ready-made task-based lessons to be used in the first 6 weeks of the programme. My purpose for doing this was to give a model of task-based lessons for the teacher who had had no experience with task-based syllabus design before. Drawing on this model, I involved the teacher in constructing his own task-based materials to be used in the final 6 weeks of the programme.

4. A TBLT teacher professional development programme should give freedom and flexibility for teachers to adjust their teaching materials to suit their students' needs. In helping the teacher in my task-based programme develop his own task-based syllabus and implement TBLT, I adhered to the 'tasks-as-operational-constructs' view, which holds that tasks are work plans that do not always work when they reach the teacher's real classroom. When this happened, I encouraged the teacher to make any modifications that he needed to make for the tasks to work for the students.

5. A professional development programme for TBLT teachers should offer adequate support and feedback to teachers. In my own task-based programme, I collaborated with the teacher to design task-based materials and teach them to students. After each lesson, we held a post-lesson discussion where we discussed important issues surrounding his design and implementation of TBLT. I also provided the teacher with the necessary materials or literature that he needed, gave feedback on his performance, and made suggestions for teaching improvements.

6. A TBLT teacher professional development programme should be learner-directed. The post-lesson sessions that I held in my own task-based programme were not only designed to evaluate the teacher's pedagogic practices but also the students' performance, such as how the students reacted to the tasks taught by the teacher, how the students used their first language in comparison to the target language during the performance of tasks and whether task-based activities resulted in particular negotiation of meaning among students.

7. A TBLT teacher professional development programme should be sustained over a period of time. My task-based professional development programme was conducted for a semester (i.e. 12 consecutive weeks) in the teacher's regular classroom. During this period, I worked

closely with the teacher by visiting his classes and monitoring his progress on an ongoing basis.

8. A professional development programme for TBLT teachers should be supported by the school where TBLT is introduced. In my task-based programme, I tried to establish a good relationship with the school principal and other English teachers in the school, in addition to the teacher with whom I worked. In fact, prior to the commencement of the programme, I first sought the principal's permission and held a joint meeting with him, students, and a group of English language teachers in the school to inform them about the rationale of my task-based language teaching programme and how they could contribute to this programme.

9. When possible, a TBLT teacher professional development programme should be first trialled in the same school with a different teacher and different groups of students. Three months before my main task-based language teaching professional development programme, I conducted a pilot programme where I tested the practicality of the professional development procedures, materials and methods. In addition, this pilot programme helped me identify implementational issues that occurred during the programme. Details of the programme that I developed based on these guidelines are provided in the Method Chapter that follows.

Chapter 4. Method

4.1 Introduction

My research project is about the introduction of an innovation involving task-based language teaching (TBLT) in an Indonesian school, which involved training a local teacher in task-based language teaching to teach beginner-level students. Indonesia was chosen as this study's instructional context for four important reasons. First, Indonesia shares the common problems experienced by many other EFL countries in Asia, which include the low proficiency of students in English and the teachers' own limited English proficiency. Second, the Indonesian Ministry of Education has mandated teachers to produce competent graduates who can communicate in English for further study or in their jobs. Third, the efficacy of TBLT in developing student English skills has been reported in many EFL contexts (Ahmed & Bidin, 2016; Rahimpour, 2008; Thompson & Millington, 2012), and thus its practicality needs to be tested in the Indonesian context. Fourth, this innovation cannot run effectively unless local teachers are equipped with sufficient knowledge and skills through a teacher-training programme, and so there is a need to develop a training programme for typical Indonesian English teachers.

This chapter will describe the methods used in the research project. Taking the research questions as a point of departure, the chapter presents an overview of instructional context, reports a pilot study, and locates the project as a longitudinal case study involving mixed methods research before describing the instruments and data analysis methods.

4.2 Research questions

The main objective of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of the training in enabling a teacher to implement TBLT. As such, four research questions were proposed:

1. To what extent is the teacher able to design and implement a task-based course for beginner-level learners of English in his classroom following training in this approach?
2. What are the teacher's opinions regarding his experience of implementing a task-based course in his own classroom?
3. What are the students' opinions about task-based language teaching?
4. To what extent is task-based language teaching effective in improving students' English proficiency?

If we were able to demonstrate that the teacher successfully shifted from his traditional grammar-focused teaching to task-based language teaching; if he and his students held positive views about task-based language teaching; and if the task-based instruction resulted in better student learning gains; then there would be justifications for us to say that the training was effective.

4.3 Instructional context

The research project was conducted in a Junior High School in Medan, North Sumatera Province, Indonesia. This private secondary school has 530 students, 22 classes and six English teachers. With around 25-30 students in each class, English is taught two times a week (70 minutes/meeting). Each academic year is divided into two semesters, odd and even semesters, where each semester lasts for 4 to 5 months.

The school follows an English syllabus based on the 2013 National Curriculum, commonly called K-13. In line with the Minister of Education and Culture Regulation No. 58 of 2014 on Junior High School Curriculum, the English curriculum in the school is structured around two basic competencies (i.e. spoken competency and written competency), which can be summarised as follows:

1. Being able to understand and apply the social functions, text structures, and linguistic elements of the specified language items.
2. Being able to state and ask questions about the language items based on their contextual use.
3. Being able to write simple texts about the language items by taking into account the appropriate use of social functions, text structures and linguistic elements.

The syllabus for Year VII – the focus of this study – is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

K-13 Language Items for Year VII

Year VII	-Greetings, saying goodbye and apologies -Self-introduction, possessive pronouns -Days of the week, ordinal numbers, prepositions of time -Names of common animals, things and public places -Common adjectives for people, animals and things

	-Labels and lists, prepositions of place, demonstrative pronouns -Public notices (warning, instruction, prohibition), simple present tense -Songs

Note. Translated from *Buku guru bahasa Inggris: When English rings a bell* [Teacher's English handbook: When English rings a bell] (p. 9) by S. Wachidah, A. Gunawan, Diyantari, & Y.R. Khatimah, 2017, Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan. Copyright 2017 by Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan.

In order to evaluate student progress in English, the school uses the K-13 based assessment criteria, an outline of which is presented in Table 3. However, it should be noted that although the 2013 Curriculum mandates teachers to develop students' communicative competence, the English teachers in the school were accustomed to following the structural approach in their classroom to satisfy the local and national exam requirements.

Table 3

Assessment Criteria

Type of Exam	Nature of Exam	Function
Mid-Semester Exam	School-based; form-oriented (reading comprehension and essay writing)	First-half progress
Final Exam	School-based; form-oriented (reading comprehension)	Passing Requirement for next grade (Year VII to Year IX)
National Exam	National-based; form-oriented (reading comprehension)	Passing Requirement for next level (Junior to Senior High School)
Others	School-based; form-oriented (projects or quizzes)	Weekly progress

4.4 Pilot study

The research project was carried out in two stages: pilot and main studies. As Mackey and Gass (2015) point out, a pilot study can assess the viability and suitability of the training and research procedures, instruments, and methods that will ultimately be used in the main study. The pilot study was conducted over a 4-week period from May to June 2019 in the secondary school mentioned above. The pilot study involved a teacher trainer, a single classroom teacher and two intact classes. The teacher trainer was myself. The teacher participant was a female English teacher aged 26 years

old who held a Bachelor's degree in English language education. She was the regular English teacher of the two intact classes involved in the pilot study. She had a 5-year experience of teaching English in the school but had never had any contact with task-based language teaching before and did not use tasks in her regular classes.

The student participants came from two intact classes. Class 7PA was selected as the TBLT Group that experienced task-based instruction, and Class 7PB was chosen as the Traditional Group that continued with their regular grammatical-based instruction. They were studying in their first year of Junior High School and were false beginners of English as they had had little experience with the English language in their previous education level.

The pilot study aimed to:

- trial the task materials used in the classroom
- assess the validity of questionnaires and test materials
- test the practicality of the training and research procedures
- identify any problems that arose during the training and research.

The study collected both quantitative and qualitative data to investigate the teacher and the students in the task-based programme. The quantitative data, collected through an experimental study embedded in the programme, comprised students' questionnaire responses and test scores. The qualitative data included interviews with the teacher, the trainer's classroom observations, and the trainer's reflective journal. An outline of the pilot study is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Pilot Study Design

Stages	Actions
Pre-Test	The trainer conducted an initial test on both TBLT and Traditional Groups.
Teacher Preliminary Interview	The trainer administered an interview with the teacher asking questions about her existing knowledge about task-based language teaching.
Teacher Training	The trainer provided a half-day training workshop for the teacher covering the basic tenets of TBLT, which included what makes a task different from

	an exercise, the three phases of a task-based lesson, how to choose tasks, and the key roles of a TBLT teacher.
First Lesson	The trainer delivered the first lesson in the teacher's classroom as a model of how to perform a task, and the teacher observed.
Lesson Observations	In Weeks 2, 3, and 4, the teacher taught her students using the trainer's sample lessons. The trainer observed and video-recorded each lesson.
Reflective Journal	At the end of each lesson, the trainer noted down the teacher's behaviours and attitudes in the classroom in a personal journal.
Student Questionnaire	At the end of Week 2 and Week 4, the TBLT students filled out a TBLT experience questionnaire in Indonesian.
Post-Test	The trainer carried out a final test, the same test as in the pre-test, for the two groups.
Teacher Exit Interview	At the end of the study, the trainer questioned the teacher about her experience of implementing TBLT in her own classroom.

The data collected from the pilot study were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively as follows:

1. Observation data were transcribed and analysed using an observation checklist to identify task-based interactional behaviours.
2. Reflective journal entries were used to support and illuminate findings drawn from the observational data.
3. The teacher interview data were transcribed verbatim and coded for categories.
4. The student questionnaire data were processed to find their central tendency and spread (descriptive statistics).
5. Test scores were first calculated and then compared using the SPANOVA test (mixed factor analysis of variance).

The findings of the pilot study can be summarised as follows:

1. As evident in the pre-test scores, some of the input-based task materials seemed too easy for the students.
2. Most of the students in the TBLT Group expressed general acceptance of the task-based instruction as a useful approach for their skill development, and more than half of the respondents found the approach enjoyable.

3. Task-based language teaching is effective in building the TBLT students' receptive and productive English skills, as evident in their significantly improved test scores, but the difference between the TBLT and Traditional Group scores was not significant.

4. The teacher's instructional style was quite traditional in a number of respects. For example, she used many display questions and tended to fill the talking space.

5. The trainer did not have time to conduct post-lesson discussions with the teacher as she had to teach her other regular classes right after teaching the task-based lesson.

6. The teacher only followed the sample lessons provided by the trainer and did not develop her own task-based materials due to the short period of the pilot study.

7. The teacher held positive opinions about task-based language teaching and expressed interest in maintaining the approach in her future classes.

Drawing on the insights obtained from the pilot study's findings, I decided to include an English language background questionnaire for students to check what prior experience of English they had had. I also made some important changes to the main study procedures. I decided to provide training about task-based interactional features and the negotiation-for-meaning strategies that students could use. I also realised the importance of the need for post-lesson discussions with the teacher and helped the teacher with the construction of a task-based syllabus. Finally, I adjusted the level of task difficulty by choosing tasks suited to students' level in terms of types, topics and complexity.

4.5 Main study

4.5.1 Research method

Longitudinal case study

The research project took the form of a longitudinal case study. According to L. Cohen et al. (2007), case studies enable researchers to explore rich social interactions occurring in a school or class which cannot be studied through quantitative approaches. Case studies "provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting typically utilising a longitudinal approach" (Mackey & Gass 2015, p. 222). In a similar vein, Duff (2012) maintains that case study research involving language learners and teachers typically concentrates on a small population of students or teachers where "the individual's behaviors, performance, knowledge, and/or perspectives are then studied very closely and intensively, often over an extended

period of time, to address timely questions regarding language acquisition, attrition, interaction, motivation, identity, or other current topics in applied linguistics" (p. 95). Speaking of the advantage of this approach, L. Cohen et al. (2007) go on to say that case studies can explain the cause-effect relationship in real contexts, "recognizing that context is a powerful determinant of both causes and effects" (p. 253).

These definitions fit the purpose of this study, that is, seeking to portray the classroom culture of the TBLT teacher through repeated observations of the same variables (teacher and students) over a period of time. In particular, it investigated a local English language teacher's attempt to introduce TBLT into his own classroom with the trainer's assistance and investigated the effect of task-based instruction on the students' learning of English.

This longitudinal study lasted for one semester (12 weeks). In the context of TESOL/applied linguistics research, especially TBLT-related research, a 12-week study programme study can be viewed as longitudinal. Shintani's (2013) longitudinal task-based programme with beginner-level students in Japan, for example, lasted for 5 weeks. The recent evaluative study of TBLT (Zhu, 2020) was carried out for 6 weeks. In this study, as in the current study, she examined the practicality of a practising teacher training programme in the effort to improve a primary school English teacher's skills and knowledge in implementing TBLT in China.

Mixed methods research

This case study employed a mixed-methods design to investigate the effectiveness of the training for implementing TBLT in the teacher's own classroom. In a mixed-methods study, a researcher "collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or program of inquiry" (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Greene et al. (1989, p. 259) provide five justifications for combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in educational studies: "(1) *Triangulation* seeks convergence, corroboration, correspondence or results from different methods, (2) *Complementarity* seeks elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with the results from another, (3) *Development* seeks to use the results from one method to help develop or inform results from another method, where development is broadly construed to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions, (4) *Initiation* seeks the discovery of paradox and contradiction, new perspectives of frameworks, the recasting of questions or results from one method with questions or results from the other method, and (5) *Expansion* seeks to extend the breadth and range

of enquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components". These five purposes underlie the adoption of a mixed-methods design in this study.

Using Creswell's (2009) mixed-methods model - *concurrent embedded design* - this study collected quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously to study the teacher and the students in the task-based course. In this model, "the secondary method (quantitative or qualitative) is embedded or nested within the predominant method (qualitative or quantitative). This embedding may mean that the secondary method addresses a different question from the primary method" (Creswell, 2009, p. 214). The concurrent embedded model is relevant to my study because it sought to understand a particular classroom phenomenon from qualitative and quantitative perspectives by answering different research questions. The data mixing is undertaken to answer the research questions comprehensively. The concurrent nature of my study and the types of data collected are summarised in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Concurrent Embedded Design
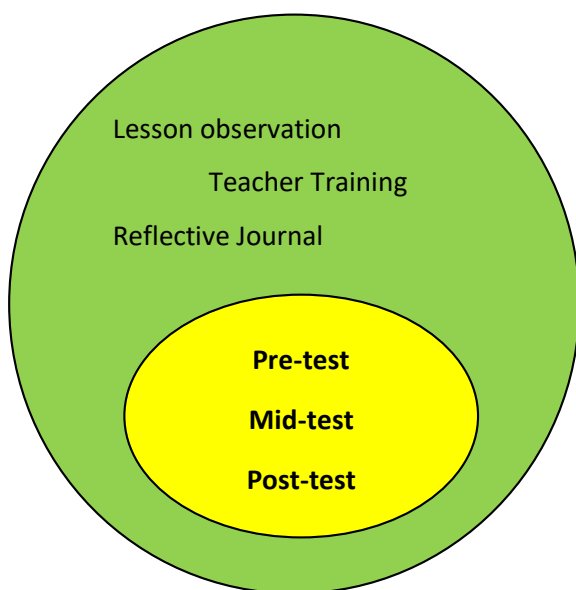
Note. Adapted from *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (p. 210), by J. Creswell, 2009, SAGE Publications Inc. Copyright 2009 by SAGE Publications Inc.

In my study, this model was employed to study different participants using different methods. For example, the teacher was observed and interviewed qualitatively, and the students' English progress and responses were measured quantitatively. In other words, the qualitative data that I collected

investigated the processes experienced by the TBLT Group, and the quantitative data examined the learning outcomes resulting from the task-based treatment. This is consistent with what Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) called a *multilevel design* where one method could be nested within a design of the other and also congruent with Mackey and Gass' (2015) description of a concurrent embedded model in which "the two data types are used for different purposes, quantitative data to determine the impact of the intervention and qualitative data to understand ways in which participants relate to the intervention" (p. 280). In other words, the experimental study that I conducted was embedded in the whole task-based programme. In this way, this study can be considered an example of the concurrent embedded mixed methods design.

In line with Greene et al.'s (1989) *expansion purpose* and Creswell's (2009) *concurrent embedded approach* mentioned above, the study set out to examine the implementation of TBLT using a variety of methods. The first research component concerns the teacher's TBLT practices. This component looked at the interactions arising out of a TBLT class, investigated to what extent the teaching was task-based, and examined student behaviours in TBLT lessons. An observation checklist, video recording and a reflective journal were used to record what happened in the classroom.

The second research component is the teacher's task-based syllabus. This component investigated whether or not the teacher's self-developed materials conformed to the task criteria. The task-basedness of the syllabus was checked against the four criteria for a task, and task variety was assessed against the psycholinguistic and pedagogic classifications of tasks.

The third research component had to do with the teacher's attitudes. This component sought to examine the teacher's views about the learning and teaching experience and whether or not the training was useful and effective for the teacher in implementing TBLT. The data were collected via teacher interviews.

The fourth research component was the students' opinions. This component explored students' views about task-based instruction in terms of three categories: task usefulness, task enjoyableness, and task engagement. A questionnaire was used to gather information from the students.

The last research component was related to test scores. This component investigated the progress made by the TBLT Group and how they differed from the Traditional Group. Receptive and productive tests were given to assess the development of students' English proficiency.

4.5.2 Design

The main study was conducted over a 12-week period from November 2019 to January 2020 in the same school as the pilot study but with a different English teacher and two different intact classes. It sought to investigate the usefulness of the training and evaluate its effect on the teacher's implementation of TBLT using the same research questions as for the pilot study.

In the main study, I assumed the role of a teacher trainer. I trained the teacher to do task-based language teaching by assisting him with the construction and implementation of a task-based syllabus. In order to investigate the effectiveness of the training on the teacher's implementation of TBLT, I planned a 12-week case study using a mixed-methods approach with a concurrent embedded design. I collected qualitative and quantitative data through observations, interviews, and questionnaires. Embedded in the 12-week training programme was an experimental study that compared the language acquisition of the TBLT Group and the Traditional Group. I administered tests at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the study to investigate if the two groups differed in learning gains. An outline of the study is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Main Study Design

Stages	Actions
Introductory Meeting	The trainer met with the school principal, teacher and student participants to explain the objectives of the study.
English Language Background Questionnaire	The trainer asked the students to fill out a background questionnaire to check whether or not they were really complete beginners.
Pre-Test	The trainer administered the pre-tests to both TBLT and Traditional Groups to measure their initial ability in English.
Teacher Preliminary Interview	The trainer interviewed the teacher to gather information about the teacher's existing knowledge about TBLT.
Teacher Training	The trainer conducted a short training course for the teacher in a 2-day workshop before the teaching began. This covered the key tenets of TBLT, such as the four criteria for a task, the types of tasks appropriate for the

	students' level, the methodology of a task, the teacher's roles in TBLT, task-based interactional features, and negotiation-for-meaning strategies.
Lesson Observations (Week 1 – 6)	The teacher taught the first 6 weeks of the task-based course. The trainer provided the teacher with six sample lessons, observed each lesson using an observation scheme and video-recorder, and held post-lesson discussions with the teacher. The task-based lessons were comprised of input-based tasks and output-based tasks.
Reflective Journal	At the end of each lesson, the trainer wrote comments about the teacher's performance in his journal. It aimed to assess whether the teacher's classroom implementation corresponded to the requirements of TBLT.
Mid-Test	The two student groups took a mid-test in the 6th week. This was done to investigate the progress they had made halfway through. The content and format of the mid-test were exactly the same as those of the pre-test.
Student Questionnaire	At the end of Week 6 and Week 12, the trainer administered a 10-minute student questionnaire for the TBLT Group in Indonesian to collect information about their experience with task-based instruction.
Construction of task-based syllabus	The teacher then constructed his own task-based syllabus for the final 6 weeks of the study (Week 7-12) by drawing on the knowledge and skills gained from his previous training and experience of implementing TBLT. The syllabus consisted of a combination of input-providing and output-prompting tasks (See Appendix B for the teacher's own task-based syllabus).
Lesson Observations (Week 7 – 12)	The teacher taught the final 6 weeks of the semester using the tasks he had developed by himself. The trainer continued to conduct observations of the teacher's lessons.
Post-Test	The students in the two groups completed a final test, the same test as in the pre-and mid-tests. This was held to investigate the progress made by the TBLT Group and how they differed from the Traditional Group.
Teacher Exit Interview	The teacher exit interview was conducted to gather information about the teacher's dispositions concerning his attempts to implement TBLT and how effective the training was in helping him implement TBLT.

4.5.3 Participants

There were 51 student participants and two teacher participants in this study, and they were all from the same private school. The teacher trainer (myself) worked in a public university in Medan, North Sumatera, Indonesia. As this study was classroom-based in nature, I worked closely with the regular classroom English teacher and the students were selected from two intact classes in the school. In other words, existing classrooms were used as ecologically sound settings for the study (Mackey & Gass, 2015).

The student participants were studying in their first year of Junior High School and were false beginners of English. They had had different experiences with English previously. They constituted the TBLT and Traditional groups in the study. While the TBLT Group received task-based instruction and completed initial, mid and final tests, the Traditional Group studied in their regular class with their usual teacher – a different teacher from the TBLT group - but took the same tests as the TBLT Group for comparative purposes. The regular class here means a non-TBLT class or a class taught in accordance with the Indonesian K-13 Curriculum and the teacher's customary practice. The teacher of the Traditional Group was different from the teacher of the TBLT Group because it was unavoidable due to the class arrangements already made by the school (i.e. each first-year class was taught by a different teacher).

The participants in this study were as follows:
1.   Teacher trainer
2.   TBLT teacher
3.   Traditional teacher
4.   Student participants

Teacher trainer

This study involved a teacher trainer (the author of this thesis) assisting a local teacher with the implementation of TBLT. I am a 42-year old Indonesian teacher educator working in a state-owned university in Medan, North Sumatera, Indonesia, with 15 years of experience teaching English to primary, secondary, tertiary, and corporate students. I have also worked on teacher training programmes for primary and secondary teachers of English for 5 years. I obtained my Master's degree from Flinders University, Adelaide, Australia, in TESL (Teaching English as a Second

Language). At the time of this study, I was doing my PhD at Curtin University, Perth, Australia, where I worked closely with my supervisors to develop a task-based programme for teachers.

TBLT teacher

This study involved a single TBLT teacher because the amount of work involved in conducting this study was very considerable, i.e. it involved:

- developing a training programme for the teacher,
- constructing part of a task-based course with the task-based materials that the teacher used,
- visiting the teacher's class for every lesson that he taught,
- conducting post-lesson discussions and interviews,
- designing tests and testing students in both the Experimental and Comparison Groups,
- administering questionnaires with the students and,
- keeping a reflective journal with regular entries.

Including other teachers in the project would have meant increasing the workload considerably and would have been impractical. Besides, my study aimed to investigate to what extent it was possible to introduce TBLT as an innovative approach in an Indonesian Junior High School. Training and working closely with a single local teacher would enable me to see the problems that arose and the strategies needed to make the task-based innovation successful. I also believed that working with one teacher would enable me to identify the training strategies needed to enable teachers to innovate with TBLT in Indonesian classrooms and the problems that needed to be addressed. I saw the project as helping to inform the development of trainee programs for teachers of English in general.

I located the teacher through formal correspondence with the school. The teacher chosen was a 36-year-old man holding a Bachelor's degree in English language education. After finishing his undergraduate programme at the university, he attended pre-service teacher education for 3 months. The teacher had taught English in the school for about 9 years. He was selected as the teacher participant because he was teaching first-year students and was the school-designated English teacher of the class I chose as the TBLT Group. Based on formal meetings held with the teacher before the training began, I found out that the teacher was accustomed to structural-based approaches in order to comply with exam requirements and that he had no prior experience of task-based instruction but expressed a wish to try out task-based instruction in his own classroom.

Traditional teacher

The non-TBLT teacher was a female English teacher aged 26 years old. She was recruited as the traditional teacher based on the school's appointment. She held a Bachelor's degree in English language education and had taught English in the school for about 4 years. Before teaching in the school, she was trained in a 6-month pre-service teacher training programme. She was asked to participate in the study because she was teaching first-year students and was the regular teacher of the Traditional Group. From the meetings held with the teacher before the teaching began, it was found out that the teacher had never had any experience of task-based language teaching and had always taught her classes using grammar-based instruction.

Student participants

Most of the students in the TBLT and traditional classes had experienced English language teaching in their primary schools to some extent, and some of them had taken additional English courses outside of classroom hours. As a result, these classes are best viewed as mixed ability, which is common in Indonesia, where some students perform better in English than others due to their different educational backgrounds. In other words, although the student participants were freshmen in their secondary school, they were not complete beginners of English as they had obviously had some contact with the English language before. However, they had limited communicative ability and therefore are best described as 'false-beginners'.

The student participants in the TBLT Group were recruited from an intact class in the school. They belonged to Class 7PC and were taught English by the teacher participant. There were 26 students in the class. The students were aged between 12 and 13 years old, with more females (14) than males (12). They had been asked to take part because they were studying in their first year. They were also chosen because they had not experienced task-based instruction previously, as shown in their responses to the English Background questionnaire (see below). They were asked to participate in all research project activities, which included task-based language teaching, tests, and questionnaire sessions.

The English language background questionnaire (see Appendix C) was administered to the TBLT Group to gain information about their age, gender, class, English-learning experience and self-reported proficiency in the four skills of English. All the students reported that their language at home was Indonesian except two students who used both Indonesian and Batak (the local

vernacular) with their family members. Out of the 25 students, the majority (72%) said that they started learning English in primary school and the other (28%) in kindergarten. With regard to self-reported English proficiency, using a 3-point Likert scale (1= Low, 2=Medium, and 3=High), the students rated their speaking ability lower than the other skills. The English proficiency scores self-reported by the students in the TBLT Group are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Self-Reported English Proficiency in TBLT Class

	Listening			Speaking			Reading			Writing		
	High	Med	Low	High	Med	Low	High	Med	Low	High	Med	Low
Number of students	6	16	3	3	12	10	11	11	3	6	13	6
Mean	2.12			1.72			2.32			2		
Stdv	0.60			0.68			0.69			0.71		

The Traditional Group was an intact class in the school called Class 7PB. The class consisted of 26 students aged between 12 and 13 years old. There were 12 male and 14 female students. They had been selected to participate because they were first-year students in Junior High School, false beginners of English who had had some contact with the English language and had not experienced task-based instruction previously. In contrast to the TBLT Group, this group did not receive task-based instruction and was only required to take the pre-, mid-, and post-tests during the study period.

Students in the Traditional Group were also asked to complete the background questionnaire containing exactly the same items as those of the TBLT Group. Two students reported that their home language were both Indonesian and Batak and Indonesian and Karonese (another local vernacular), and the other 24 students spoke Indonesian at home. Sixty-five per cent of the traditional students said that they had begun learning English in primary school while the other 35% in kindergarten. As with the TBLT Group, students in the Traditional Group also rated their speaking skills lower than the other three skills. The results of the self-reported English proficiency revealed that the students considered they had similar proficiency in the four skills, with the majority rating it as 'medium' for all four skills. The measures of their proficiency are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Self-Reported English Proficiency in Traditional Class

	Listening			Speaking			Reading			Writing		
	High	Med	Low	High	Med	Low	High	Med	Low	High	Med	Low
Number of students	4	20	2	2	16	8	6	20	0	5	17	4
Mean	2.08			1.77			2.23			2.04		
Stdv	0.48			0.59			0.43			0.60		

It is important to note that the students' ratings in the traditional class were very similar to those in the TBLT Class, indicating that they could be considered samples drawn from the same population of students.

4.5.4 Data collection

The instruments used in the study served to answer the four research questions. Altogether, seven data collection instruments were used in this study.

1.   *Student English language background questionnaire*

Prior to the start of the study, the trainer asked the students to complete a background questionnaire (see Appendix C) to collect information about their English language background and experience. This questionnaire was designed to check whether or not they were really complete beginners. The questions of the questionnaire included what language(s) they spoke at home, their starting educational level of learning English, the number of hours they spent in studying English per week, the kinds of English test(s) they took, and their self-reported proficiency in English in terms of the four English skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing).

2.   *Observation scheme and video recordings*

Observations of the teacher's performance were carried out to examine the extent to which the teaching was task-based and to explore how the students responded to the task-based lessons. Some selected lessons were videotaped, and the researcher observed other instructional activities using an observation scheme. For analysis purposes, 12 video-recorded observations were selected from all the lesson observations conducted.

An observation checklist, which was based on Ellis's (2003, p. 253) list of stereotypical classroom processes in task-based pedagogy, was used to record what occurred in the classroom. This was done by making field notes about what happened during the lesson (e.g. giving instructions, providing descriptions, and monitoring students) and the interactional behaviours of the teacher and students (e.g. use of the L1, negotiation of meaning, use of referential questions, turn-taking, initiating and responding roles, and corrective feedback). The observation items are shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Observation Scheme

No	Lesson Actions	Performed (use tick)
1	Brainstorms topic	
2	Provides a model of how to perform the task	
3	Performs a similar task to scaffold understanding	
4	Provides linguistic support	
5	Trains negotiation-for-meaning strategies	
6	Allocates time to plan and complete the task	
7	Organises participatory structure	
8	Provides access to task materials	
9	Gives surprise information	
10	Monitors students performing the task	
11	Sets a writing activity	
12	Carries out a task repetition	
13	Makes delayed error correction	
14	Performs consciousness-raising tasks	
15	Provides proof listening	

No		Notes
16	Assigns practice exercises	
17	Checks whether students have completed the task	
18	Completes the lesson within the time limit	
No	**Interactional Behaviour**	**Notes**
1	Checks students' comprehension	
2	Repeats instructions when necessary	
3	Repeats descriptions when necessary	
4	Uses communicative strategies (give clues to help)	
5	Uses L2 as a medium of instruction	
6	Makes strategic use of the student's mother tongue	
7	Asks referential questions	
8	Controls topic development (Teacher Talk)	
9	Regulates turn-taking (IRF exchanges)	
10	Scaffolds students' production	
11	Provides corrective feedback	

Note. Adapted from *Task-based language learning and teaching* (p. 253), by R. Ellis, 2003, Oxford University Press. Copyright 2003 by Oxford University Press.

3. *Reflective journal*

The trainer wrote 12 reflective journal entries commenting on any significant event that indicated the teacher's progressive understanding of TBLT. The reflective journal was based on Gibbs' (1988) cycle of reflection, which comprises five main areas to be noted upon completion of a class observation. They are Description, Feelings, Evaluation, Analysis, and Conclusion. The journal aimed to evaluate to what extent the innovation was progressing (Daloglu, 2001; Francis, 1997); to what extent its classroom implementation satisfied the requirements of TBLT; whether or not a specific task worked well, whether the teacher or students exhibited a (un)desired behaviour; what necessary actions should be taken to fix a classroom issue. An example of the trainer's journal entry is presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Reflective Journal

No	Cycle of reflection	Reflective questions	Notes
1	Description	What happened with the students/teacher?	The teacher used English most of the time. The students sometimes could not understand the teacher's explanation and did not know how to ask questions.
	Feeling	What were your reactions to the activity?	I was happy to see that the teacher used English as a medium of instruction. I noted that the students struggled to ask for clarification.
	Evaluation	What was good and bad about the activity?	The teacher's use of L2 served as a model and facilitated the students' language acquisition. Students' confusion could result in decreased motivation and participation.
	Analysis	Any support from current practice and research?	Turnbull (2001, p. 532) stated that 'the teacher is most often the sole linguistic model for the students and is therefore their main source of TL input'. Restricted opportunities to pose questions and negotiate meaning when communication problems arise (Cullen, 1998) are a characteristic of traditional form-focused pedagogy and might result in limited participation by the students (Ellis, 2003).
	Conclusion	What future actions should be taken to rectify a problem?	Although using L2 is an advantage for students, the teacher should make strategic use of students' mother tongue and train them to use negotiation-for-meaning strategies.

Note. Adapted from *Learning by doing: A guide to teaching and learning methods* (p. 46), by G. Gibbs, 1988, Oxford Further Education Unit. Copyright 1988 by Oxford Further Education Unit.

4.   Tests

For the experimental study embedded in a qualitative study of the teacher's implementation of TBLT, the trainer administered receptive and productive tests to measure students' initial ability, halfway progress, and final development in English proficiency. The tests were given to both TBLT and Traditional Groups prior to the commencement of the task-based course (pre-test), at the beginning of Week 7 (mid-test), and at the end of Week 12 (post-test). The questions and sections of the mid-test and post-test were exactly the same as the pre-test (L. Cohen et al., 2007).

The receptive test took the form of a listening test and a vocabulary test, and the productive test was administered in the form of a speaking test and a story-telling test. For the receptive tests, consisting of 25 questions each, the trainer asked the students to sit together in a room where they were required to match pictures with the descriptions that they heard (listening) or read (vocabulary) in a multiple-choice format. Examples of the receptive tests are shown in Tables 10-11.

Table 10

Listening Test

Directions :

For each of the following numbers, you will hear a short description. After you hear a description, look at the four pictures in your question sheet, marked (A), (B), (C), and (D), and write the correct answer choice on the answer sheet based on the description you heard.

1.

Image removed due to copyright restrictions **A**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **B**
Image removed due to copyright restrictions **C**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **D**
Trainer's voice: *This person cares for sick people in a hospital*	

2.

Image removed due to copyright restrictions **A**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **B**
Image removed due to copyright restrictions **C**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **D**
Trainer's voice: *The boy is taking a picture*	

*Note. The [listening test images] are unable to be reproduced here due to copyright restrictions. The content can instead be accessed via [*https://www.vectorstock.com/royalty-free-vector/people - doing - different - jobs - on - white - background - vector-19801356, https://www.123rf. com/stockphoto/people_doing_different_activities.html?sti=lu6m3fd1q5vgfo00px|&oriSearch=pe ople%20doing%20different%20activities*].*

Table 11

Vocabulary Test

Directions :

For each of the following numbers, you will read a short statement. The statements represent the intended pictures. After you read a statement, look at the four pictures in your question sheet, marked (A), (B), (C), and (D), and write down the correct answer choice on the answer sheet that corresponds to the statement given.

1.		2.	
Image removed due to copyright restrictions **A**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **B**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **A**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **B**
Image removed due to copyright restrictions **C**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **D**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **C**	Image removed due to copyright restrictions **D**
The boy is playing football		**This person cuts people's hair**	

*Note. The [vocabulary test images] are unable to be reproduced here due to copyright restrictions. The content can instead be accessed via [*https://www.vectorstock.com/royalty-free-vector/people - doing - different - jobs - on - white - background-vector-19801356, https://www.alamy.com/stock - image - people - doing - different-activities-illustration-163571904.html?imageid=4E3E36B1 - 78DB - 4BB3 - 908E - 588F5F38EA6E&p = 527966&pn = 2& searchId=c64dc3998edea98cb34d43f09ea265a8&searchtype=0, https://www. gettyimages.com /detail/illustration/african-american-barber-royalty-free-illustration /166007909? adppopup=true, https://www.shutterstock.com/id/image - vector/tailor - holding - thread - needle -smiling-fabric-138 5737649*].

For the productive tests, the trainer called the students into the room one by one as the tests needed to be audio-taped. In the speaking test, the trainer showed each student 16 different pictures and asked them to describe the pictures based on his questions. In the story-telling test, they were shown four different picture compositions. Each picture composition was comprised of four pictures about a story. The students were given one to two minutes to look at the pictures, after which they were asked to tell the story in their own words. If they failed to tell the story, the trainer asked them to move on to the next picture composition. All the tests lasted for about 2 hours for each group, with the speaking and story-telling tests consuming two-thirds of the total time. Examples of the productive tests are presented in Tables 12-13.

Table 12

Speaking Test

Directions :

You will be shown a number of different pictures. Look at the pictures carefully and answer the questions about the pictures.

1.

Image removed due to copyright restrictions

Trainer's voice:

What is the girl doing?

2.

Image removed due to copyright restrictions

Trainer's voice:

What is the man's job?

*Note. The [speaking test images] are unable to be reproduced here due to copyright restrictions. The content can instead be accessed via [*https://www.vectorstock.com/royalty-free-vector/set - of - people-in-various-actions-males-vector-20469911, https://www.vectorstock.com/ royalty - free - vector/cartoon - policeman - character - on - white - background-vector-10297429*].*

Table 13

Story-telling Test

Directions :

You will be shown a number of picture compositions. Look at the pictures carefully for two minutes and tell the story in your own words.

Image removed due to copyright restrictions	Image removed due to copyright restrictions
Image removed due to copyright restrictions	Image removed due to copyright restrictions

*Note. The [story-telling test images] are unable to be reproduced here due to copyright restrictions. The content can instead be accessed via [*Byrne, D. (1967). *Progressive picture compositions*. Longman Publishing Group*].*

5.   TBLT experience questionnaire

At the beginning of Week 7 and Week 12, the trainer administered a 10-minute student questionnaire to the TBLT Group to investigate their responses and feelings to the task-based instruction (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). The students answered 10 Likert-scale questions reflecting their experience and feelings about the task-based instruction, such as whether or not they agreed that tasks improved their English skills; whether tasks made them feel comfortable in learning English; whether the tasks matched their language level; whether they preferred using English to Indonesian throughout the

lesson (see Appendix C). All the items were translated into Indonesian to enable students to understand the questions thoroughly.

6.   *Teacher interviews*

Two interviews with the teacher were held to examine how useful the training was and how effective was the transfer of that training to the implementation of TBLT. Mackey and Gass (2015) point out that "interviews can allow researchers to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable, such as learners' self-reported perceptions or attitudes" (p. 225). Before the initial training, the trainer interviewed the teacher to gather information about his existing knowledge about TBLT, such as how to distinguish a task from an exercise; the four criteria for a task; whether tasks work effectively with a big class and with low-level learners. This 10-minute preliminary interview was held in person and audio-taped.

The teacher exit interview, administered in the 12th week, aimed to collect information about the teacher's dispositions concerning his experience of implementing TBLT in his own classroom and the usefulness of the training for the implementation of TBLT. The 10-minute exit interview included questions about how the teacher defined task-based language teaching, the different roles he played in TBLT, the implementational issues he had encountered, and the teacher's future plan to carry on with task-based language teaching (see Appendix C for complete teacher interview questions).

7.   *Trainer's sample lessons*

The project for the TBLT Group began with the teacher teaching the first lesson and the trainer observing the lesson. The teacher then taught the other sample lessons provided by the trainer. The task descriptions for each lesson are shown in Tables 14-19.

Table 14

Tasks Used in Lesson 1

LESSON 1: PEOPLE'S JOBS		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**

TASK 1 (Courier and Secretary Activity)	Students were split into groups of three people. One group member became a courier whose job was to go to the classroom wall, read the job descriptions and then dictate them to his/her group. The other two members wrote the descriptions on a piece of paper. They changed roles after eight job descriptions.	Simple information-gap task; input-based and output-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task, content provided
TASK 2 (Picture Matching Activity)	Students listened to the teacher's descriptions of different jobs. Students circled a letter on their answer sheet to indicate which picture description they had heard.	Simple information-gap task; input-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task; content provided

Table 15

Task Used in Lesson 2

LESSON 2: FACE MAP		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**
TASK (Picture Matching Activity)	The students were asked to look at a picture of an island map. The island looked like a human face. The students were shown the names of the different places on the map. The students listened to the teacher's description of where each place was on the map. The students then wrote the place names on the map of the island.	Simple information-gap task; input-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task, content provided

Table 16

Task Used in Lesson 3

LESSON 3: PICTURE COMPOSITIONS		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**

TASK	The materials were a picture composition consisting of four pictures depicting a short story. The picture composition was cut up into separate pictures. The task required students to work out the right order of the pictures based on the teacher's story by writing numbers 1-4 on the picture.	Simple information-gap task; input-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task; content provided
(Story-matching Activity)		

Table 17

Tasks Used in Lesson 4

LESSON 4: PEOPLE'S ACTIVITIES		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**
TASK (Word Guessing Activity)	Students were divided into five groups. Each group had five members. One student from each group volunteered and randomly selected four cards containing pictures of daily activities. The volunteer student gave physical demonstrations of the four activities shown on the card to his/her group members in two minutes. The group members guessed the activities being described by their friend. Another member of the performing group acted as a scorer giving scores for the correct answer, and the teacher helped as an MC and timekeeper. Students from other groups only listened and could not guess unless the performing group gave up.	Simple information-gap task; output-based task; open outcome task; unfocused task; content provided

Table 18

Task Used in Lesson 5

LESSON 5: PICTURE COMPOSITIONS		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**

| TASK
(Story-telling Activity) | The materials were a picture composition consisting of four pictures depicting a short story. The picture composition was cut up into separate pictures.

The task required students to work out the right order of the pictures and give a description of an accident.

The teacher provided a model of how to describe pictures and make a short story out of the pictures.

Four students volunteered to come to the front of the class. The teacher gave each student one picture and told them that they had three minutes to plan how to describe their picture to the rest of the class.

The four students took turns to describe their pictures. They could not see the other students' pictures. The rest of the class were told that the pictures were not being described in the correct order, so they had to listen carefully to try to work out what happened.

Individual students from the rest of the class asked the four students at the front questions about their pictures to get a clearer idea of what happened.

The teacher asked for volunteers from the rest of the class to provide a complete description of how the accident happened.

The teachers asked the students at the front to decide whether the accident had been described correctly.

Volunteers continued to describe the accident until someone provided a complete and clear description of the accident. | Simple information-gap task; output-based task; open outcome task; unfocused task; content provided |

Table 19

Task Used in Lesson 6

LESSON 6: PICTURE DIFFERENCES		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**
TASK (Spotting the Differences Activity)	There were two pictures of the same people. The teacher held one of the pictures, and the students held another picture. They tried to spot the differences between the two pictures.	Simple information-gap task; output-based task; open outcome task; unfocused task; content provided

4.6 Ethical consideration

As the study required voluntary participation from the two teachers and their students, the trainer obtained approval from them in the form of signed consent. One month before the beginning of the study, the TBLT and traditional teachers were required to sign a consent form indicating their willingness to take part in the whole programme. Before signing the consent form, they were given an opportunity to read the teacher information sheet containing information about the research procedures, benefits, risks and contact persons. Similarly, the students' willingness to participate was recorded on signed consent forms after they had read the student information sheet (see Appendix A for complete ethics forms).

4.7 Data analysis

The data collected will be analysed using qualitative and quantitative approaches to answer the four research questions as follows:

RESEARCH QUESTION 1:

Qualitative analysis was carried out on the transcriptions of the classroom lessons to check whether there was evidence of the teachers' instructional practices that conformed to task-based language teaching. This was done by using the observation scheme based on Ellis's (2003, p. 253) table of interactical features in task-based pedagogy. For example, in order to investigate whether or not the teacher used referential questions in his teaching, I first read through the whole transcript, looked for questions and put them into text blocks. After that, I labelled the text blocks and put them into two categories: display and referential questions. The final step was to find the percentage (frequency of occurrence of each question). To analyse the observation data collected using the observation scheme, I checked the field notes that I made to see the occurrence of the task-based features that the teacher had performed. For example, if the teacher made an effort to help the students speak, it served as an indication that the teacher had scaffolded his students' production. The trainer's personal journal entries, which identified the significant events that had occurred during the teacher-student interactions, were used to triangulate the classroom observation results. A particular classroom activity was evaluated based on whether it had support from current research and practices in TBLT. For example, the teacher's effort to maximise the use of L2 in his classroom could be seen as an advantage, but if he used too many display questions in his interactions with the students, that could be considered as more indicative of traditional teaching practices.

An evaluation of the task-based syllabus devised by the teacher in the final 6 weeks was conducted to investigate whether they conformed to task design in TBLT. In this case, the tasks were analysed against the four criteria for a task (Ellis, 2003). That is, I evaluated the teacher's tasks in terms of whether they (1) focused on meaning, (2) contained an information/opinion gap, (3) triggered students' use of their own linguistic resources, and (4) had a communicative outcome, by completing the table shown in Table 20 for each task.

Table 20

Task-Based Syllabus Checklist

NO	Criteria	Yes	No	Note
1	Does the task put emphasis on meaning?			
2	Does the task provide information/opinion gaps?			
3	Does the task stimulate students to utilise their existing language resources?			
4	Does the task have a communicative outcome?			

Note. Adapted from *Task-based language learning and teaching* (p. 35), by R. Ellis, 2003, Oxford University Press. Copyright 2003 by Oxford University Press.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2:

The teacher interviews were analysed inductively by first transcribing the data verbatim. Afterwards, the full transcripts were scanned and broken into meaningful text blocks. Those text blocks, which communicated a specific meaning, were then labelled/coded. Finally, the labelled text blocks were grouped into categories. The categorisation was based on the specific meaning each text block conveyed. The major constructs generated from this categorisation were then interpreted narratively.

To enhance the validity/accuracy of the qualitative research findings, I implemented a *member checking* technique (Guba, 1981) also called *respondent validation* (L. Cohen et al., 2007) after completion of the study. For instance, I gave copies of the pilot and main study reports to the teachers I had observed and interviewed. In both cases, the teachers involved stated that the reports accurately reflected their views and experiences.

RESEARCH QUESTION 3:

The students' responses to the Likert scale questionnaire were processed and then analysed with SPSS to generate measures of tendency (mean) and measures of spread (standard deviation) for the whole group.

RESEARCH QUESTION 4:

Descriptive statistics was computed, and the test scores of the TBLT and Normal Classes were compared using a mixed-factor analysis of variance (SPANOVA or three times x two groups) (Sheridan, 2005) to investigate whether there were statistically significant differences between the two groups on the pre-, mid-and post-tests. Separate SPANOVAs were carried out for the listening and vocabulary test scores. Due to non-normal distribution, the speaking and story-telling test scores were compared using a non-parametric test (Kruskal-Wallis). Where appropriate, specific posthoc tests were computed to identify if the changes in scores over time were significant and where significant group differences lay. Effect sizes or Cohen's d (J. Cohen, 1988) were also calculated.

It should be noted that although the pilot study served as "a small-scale trial of the proposed procedures, materials and methods" (Mackey & Gass, 2015, p. 52), the data collected from the pilot study were analysed separately from the main study data because the two data sets were derived from different teachers and classes. The findings of the two studies were also reported separately. In this thesis, however, only the data collected for the main study were used for analysis and discussion.

Chapter 5. Research Question 1: Getting started with TBLT

In this chapter, I will present the results for Research Question 1 (i.e. to what extent is the teacher able to design and implement a task-based course for beginner-level learners of English in his classroom following training in this approach?) and proceed to discuss the results. I will conclude this chapter by providing some important points that emerge from the research findings.

5.1 Results for Research Question 1

The findings for Research Question 1 resulted from several analyses, which included an analysis of the task-based materials that the teacher developed by himself in the final 6 weeks, the teacher's implementation of task-based language teaching in his own classroom and the reflective journal entries written by myself (as the trainer) after each lesson.

I begin by presenting an analysis of the teacher's own tasks looking at three aspects of a task: task-basedness, task variety, and task appropriateness/progression. Then I move on to an analysis of the four major topics related to the teacher's implementation of TBLT: task-management activities, use of the L1, use of questions, and focus on form. Following the analysis of the teacher's implementation of TBLT, I present an analysis of five prominent aspects that I selected from my reflective journal: introducing the topic of a task, teaching strategies, students' responses, corrective feedback and extension activities. I conclude with a summary of the chapter. Each of the different analyses will be dealt with in detail below.

5.2 An analysis of teacher's own task-based syllabus

This section covers an analysis of the task-based materials that the teacher developed for the final six lessons. My focus here is on the design of a task-based programme (task as a work plan), not its implementation, which I cover when analysing the observational and journal data.

As a trainer, I provided the teacher with the materials for the first six lessons and then asked him to develop his own task-based materials for Lessons 7 to 12. During the construction of his own task-based syllabus, I reminded the teacher to think about the definition of task, task selection and task sequencing. I also asked him to reflect on the six task-based lessons he had already taught in his classroom and told him he could contact me by phone or email if he had any questions regarding

the syllabus design. In short, the teacher developed the task-based materials by himself, drawing on the knowledge and skills he had obtained from the first 6 weeks.

The teacher's own syllabus, which consisted of input-based and output-based tasks, was analysed to determine whether or not the teacher was successful in designing task-based materials that conformed to task design in TBLT. In other words, the analysis of the teacher's syllabus was conducted "on the premise that adequate understanding of the construct of task underpins successful implementation of TBLT" (Erlam, 2015, p. 1). To evaluate the teachers' syllabus, I developed a set of criteria drawing on the literature on task-based syllabus construction (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Prabhu, 1987). The criteria that I developed were as follows:

- **Task-basedness**: Are the activities that the teacher designed 'tasks'? I chose this criterion because, in TBLT, tasks serve as the key unit in the design of a language course as they are used to select and sequence course content. Thus, it is essential that the teacher has a clear understanding of what a 'task' is and can distinguish tasks from other types of activities such as those that figure in the traditional language classroom. In this regard, I used Ellis's (2003) four criteria to evaluate whether or not the teacher's task-based materials constituted tasks. Ellis argues that an activity can be considered a task if (1) the activity involves a primary focus on meaning, (2) there is some kind of gap (e.g. an information or opinion gap), (3) the activity requires learners to utilise their existing linguistic and non-linguistic resources, and (4) there is a communicative outcome.

- **Task variety**: Are the tasks sufficiently varied? Dörnyei (2001) pointed out that students' lack of participation in the classroom is often associated with boredom arising from the lack of variety in the activities presented by the teacher. In other words, this criterion will be used to see whether the teacher developed different types of tasks in his final six lessons or simply copied the types of tasks that I provided for him in the first 6 weeks.

- **Task appropriateness and progression**: Are the tasks at an appropriate level of difficulty for the students? Is there a sense of progression in the tasks the teacher developed? The reason for choosing this criterion was to see whether the tasks were "matched to the learner's level of development" to facilitate optimal learning (Ellis, 2003, p. 67), whether the teacher graded the tasks from the simple to more complex and whether he made a link between tasks. Nunan (2004) emphasised the importance of sequencing and integrating tasks and proposed that task developers consider the 'psycholinguistic processing' and 'task continuity'

approaches when constructing a task-based syllabus (p. 125). While the former approach refers to the need to devise tasks which are increasingly demanding and complex (e.g. moving from comprehension-based activities to production-based activities), the latter refers to the idea that "one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before" (p. 35).

5.2.1 Task-basedness

The first criterion concerns whether the task-based activities the teacher devised could qualify as tasks. After evaluating the teacher's activities, I concluded that, by and large, his activities manifested the four criteria proposed by Ellis (2003). Table 21 below summarises the task-basedness of the teacher's own tasks.

Table 21

Tasks that Met Ellis's Four Criteria

Lesson	Task Description	Criteria			
		Focus on meaning	Some kind of gap	Use of linguistic resources	Communicative outcome
7	Task 1: Students listened to descriptions of different people. They used their index finger to point to the relevant pictures.	Yes; The students were concerned with decoding messages (identifying pictures through listening).	Yes; The information was split, with the teacher holding all the information and the students none.	Yes; The students had to utilise their existing linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic skills (e.g. pointing to a picture) to demonstrate comprehension.	Yes; Identification of 24 pictures.
	Task 2: Students listened again to	Yes; The students were	Yes; The information	Yes; The students had to carry out	Yes;

	descriptions of different people. Students wrote a letter on their answer sheet to indicate which picture description they had heard.	concerned with decoding messages (identifying pictures through listening).	was split, with the teacher holding all the information and the students none.	non-verbal activities (writing on an answer sheet) to demonstrate understanding.	Identification of 24 pictures.
8	Students were divided into groups. Each group had a presenter who described a set of job pictures to his/her group. The group members tried to guess the job titles based on their presenter's descriptions.	Yes; The students were actively engaged in encoding and decoding messages (i.e. describing jobs, listening to job descriptions and guessing job titles).	Yes; The information was split with the presenter holding all the information and the group members none.	Yes; The students had to use their non-linguistic resources (gestures) and linguistic resources (speaking and guessing) to communicate their meaning.	Yes; Description and identification of 4 job titles in two minutes per group.
9	The students were shown the names of the different places on a map. The students listened to the teacher's directions and labelled the places on the map.	Yes; The students were primarily concerned with decoding messages (i.e. locating places on the map through listening).	Yes; The information was split, with the teacher holding all the information and the students none.	Yes; The students had to carry out carried out non-verbal activities (labelling the places) to show comprehension	Yes; Labelling 10 places.
	Task 1: Students formed a group of five people. Two members became couriers (finding information about an animal	Yes; The students were actively engaged in decoding and encoding messages (selecting and	Yes: There was a reasoning gap because all students in one group shared the same information and worked	Yes; The students had to utilise their non-linguistic resources (handing in the correct information) and linguistic	Yes; Putting information into order.

10	on the wall and reporting it to the group). The other three members acted as secretaries (discussing and putting the jumbled information into good order).	ordering information).	together to reason the information out (putting it into good order).	resources (speaking) to communicate their ideas.	
	Task 2: Each group worked out how to summarise the collected information in their own words. One student from each group presented their summary to the class.	Yes; The students were primarily concerned with decoding and encoding messages (summarising and presenting information).	Yes: There was an opinion gap because different students in a particular group had different opinions about how to write the summary.	Yes; The students had to carry out verbal activities (speaking) to express their meaning.	No; There was no communicative outcome beyond summarising the information. The summarising activity is more like a language exercise. Nevertheless, it possesses some task-like features (e.g. it involved a focus on meaning and activated students' own linguistic resources).
	Task 1: Students were divided into groups. Then one student from each group chose a picture of a place randomly from the teacher. Students first described a	Yes; The students were actively engaged in decoding and encoding messages (extracting information from pictures).	Yes: There was an opinion gap because the students in a group came up with different opinions/descriptions about the picture. The task constitutes an	Yes; The students had to use their own linguistic resources (speaking) to communicate their meaning.	Yes; Provision of 4 written descriptions about a place.

11	picture individually and then worked with a partner to agree on the best description of the picture.		example of an opinion-gap task not dissimilar to a dictogloss task		
	Task 2: One student from each group presented their picture descriptions to the class. Students from other groups listened to the presentation, summarised the information they heard and retold it in their own words.	Yes; The students were primarily concerned with encoding and decoding messages (presenting, summarising and retelling information).	Yes; The information was split with one group holding the information about a particular place and the other groups none.	Yes; The students had to carry out verbal activities (describing a picture and presenting a summary) to communicate their ideas.	No; There was no communicative outcome beyond presenting a summary but it does have some task-like features such as a focus on meaning and a chance for the students to use their own linguistic resources.
12	The whole class was asked to listen to a song together. After that, they worked in pairs. One student held a list of words, and the other held the lyrics with blanks. They both talked to work out how to complete the missing words in the song.	Yes; The students were primarily concerned with decoding and encoding messages (listening to a song, asking and giving information).	Yes; There was an information gap because both students could not see each other's paper (the list of words and gapped lyrics).	No; The students undertook non-verbal activities (writing) and verbal activities (speaking), but they were not using their own linguistic resources.	No; There was a clear outcome (completion of the song lyrics), but it was a traditional cloze activity.

As can be seen from the table, most of the activities that the teacher constructed satisfied the four criteria to be called tasks. The tasks that the teacher developed focused students on meaning (i.e. the tasks concentrated on language use rather than language form and thus required the students to function as language users instead of language learners). The teacher's own tasks had a communicative gap that necessitated communication (e.g. the use of information, reasoning, and opinion gaps). The tasks that the teacher designed motivated the students to rely on their existing resources, either linguistic (e.g. oral presentation/description) or non-linguistic (e.g. carrying out an action). The teacher's tasks were likely to result in a clearly defined outcome other than the use of language for its own sake, i.e. the language served as a tool to achieve the outcome, not as an end in itself. For example, the word-guessing activity in Lesson 8, where the students used language to describe jobs, led to a communicative outcome (description and identification of the names of 12 jobs). Therefore, the teacher's syllabus largely consisted of work plans that required learners "to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of content (rather than language)" (Ellis, 2003, p. 64).

However, some of the tasks that the teacher crafted did not satisfy all four requirements for a task. These exceptions were found in Task 2 in Lesson 10, Task 2 in Lesson 11, and the task in Lesson 12. In Lesson 12, for example, the students were actively engaged in talking to each other to work out how to complete the lyrics of a song. This task involved an information gap because it was clear that one student held all the information about the missing words, and the other student did not have access to the information. Nevertheless, Criterion 3 was not really satisfied as one student was provided with the exact words needed to complete the lyrics. In other words, the students were not using their own linguistic resources in this task. It was also clear that the task did not result in a communicative outcome (Criterion 4). Although it is true that the task required communication to achieve the outcome, filling gaps in a text is really a cloze exercise that cannot be said to be communicative unless the task had created a communicative need for the students to complete the lyrics of the song.

5.2.2 Task variety

This criterion was used to evaluate whether the tasks the teacher constructed were sufficiently varied in terms of task types and task topics.

1.   Task types

I analysed the teacher's selection of topics for the tasks drawing on both pedagogic and psycholinguistic typologies. In a pedagogic typology, tasks are classified based on the cognitive/linguistic operations they require of students, such as listing, ordering and sorting, comparing and contrasting, problem-solving, projects and creative tasks, sharing personal experiences, and matching (Willis & Willis, 2007, p.108). Table 22 below examines the pedagogic task types in the teacher's syllabus.

Table 22

Pedagogic Classification of Tasks

Cognitive/Linguistic Operations	Occurrence in a lesson	Example of a task
Listing: • Brainstorming • Fact-finding • Games based on listing: quizzes, memory and guessing	None	None
Ordering and sorting • Sequencing • Ranking and ordering • Classifying	Lesson 10	The students were shown jumbled information about an animal on the wall. They worked in groups to put the information into good order.
Comparing and contrasting • Games finding similarities and differences • Graphic organisers	None	None
Problem-solving tasks • Logic problem prediction	None	None
Projects and creative tasks • Newspaper • Posters • Survey fantasy	Lesson 11	Students in a group were given a picture of a place without a text. They looked at the picture and worked together to describe it in their own words. After each group member had provided ideas for the description of the picture, the group voted on what they thought were the best descriptions.

Sharing personal experiences: • Story-telling • Anecdotes • Reminiscences	None	None
Matching: • Words and phrases to pictures	Lesson 7	The students were shown a set of people pictures. They listened to the teacher's descriptions of different people and matched them with the pictures.
	Lesson 8	The students formed a group. One student in each group was shown a set of job pictures and acted as a presenter to describe the picture to his/her group. The other group members tried to guess the job titles based on their presenter's descriptions.
	Lesson 9	The students were given a map and shown different places on the map. They were required to locate and label the places on the map based on the teacher's directions.

Note. Adapted from *Doing task-based teaching* (p. 108), by D. Willis & J. Willis, 2007, Oxford University Press. Copyright 2007 by Oxford University Press.

From the pedagogic classification of tasks, it was noticeable that there was only quite limited variety in the types of tasks included in the teacher's own task-based materials. For example, out of the six lessons that the teacher crafted, the first three lessons (Lessons 7, 8, and 9) involved the same activities (matching tasks). Some other tasks in the teacher's syllabus, however, did not fit into Willis and Willis' (2007) typology of tasks. For instance, the information-summarising activity designed for Task 2 in Lesson 10 and the information-paraphrasing activity designed for Task 2 in Lesson 11 did not match any of the task types proposed by Willis and Willis. In his task-based syllabus, the teacher did not develop any listing, comparing, problem-solving, and personal experience-sharing tasks.

It should also be noted that some of the tasks that the teacher constructed bore a resemblance to the tasks that I provided in the first six lessons, although they differed in content. For example, the picture-matching task that the teacher developed for Lesson 7 (people's appearances) was similar in

procedure to the picture-matching tasks that I provided for Lesson 1 (people's jobs). This involved what Patanasorn (2010) called 'procedural repetition', i.e. "tasks that require the same procedure to accomplish the communicative goal, but require different content knowledge" (p. 13). Therefore, although the teacher adopted some of the tasks that I provided, it was not an exact repetition (i.e. using the same procedure and content). In fact, procedural repetition in the context of input-based tasks offers language-rich opportunities to students as they are exposed to new information and different linguistic forms (Ellis et al., 2019).

Tasks can also be categorised based on their potential for expediting language learning. This involves a psycholinguistic classification proposed by Pica et al. (1993). In this typology, tasks are divided into five distinct types with regard to their interactional activity and communicative goal: jigsaw, information gap, problem-solving, decision making and opinion exchange (p. 19). In terms of the interactional activity that a task requires, Pica et al. distinguish a mutual/two-way task whereby the interactants share the same responsibilities to complete the task from an independent/one-way task whereby they do not share the same responsibilities. Pica et al. went on to say that the communicative goals of a task can be single/closed (one possible outcome only) or open/multiple (one or more different outcomes). Thus, jigsaw is defined as a task type in which two students have different pieces of information but share the same responsibilities, so they must work together in a two-way relationship to achieve the outcome. In contrast, in an information-gap task, one student has the information, and the other does not have access to the information, so the student who lacks the information must request information from the student who possesses the information to reach a particular goal. Problem-solving involves both interactants having access to the same information that they use to find a solution to a problem. In a decision-making task, two students have the same information, and they must accomplish the same goal by making one or more decisions. The last task type, opinion exchange, is a task in which both task participants possess the same information, and they are required to reach different goals by exchanging opinions.

A complete psycholinguistic classification of the tasks that the teacher devised in his final six lessons is shown in Table 23 below.

Table 23

Psycholinguistic Classification of Tasks

Task Type	Occurrence in a lesson	Example of a task
Jigsaw • Different information • Two-way relationship • Closed outcome	Lesson 12	The song-completion activity in Lesson 12 was a jigsaw task because the two students had different pieces of information (one student held the list of words, and the other student held the gapped lyrics). There was a two-way relationship because the two students shared the same responsibilities to complete missing words in a song. There was a closed outcome of this activity (completion of 9 song lyrics). However, the exchange of information in this task was very limited and focused on form (i.e. the choice of which word to fill a blank in the lyrics).
Information Gap • Split information • One or two-way relationship • Closed outcome	Lesson 7	The picture-matching activity in Lesson 7 was an information-gap task because the information was split with the teacher holding all the information and the students none. There was a one-way interactant relationship because the teacher and students shared different responsibilities (.i.e. the teacher provided descriptions of different people, and the students matched the descriptions with pictures). The task resulted in a closed outcome (identification of 24 pictures).
	Lesson 8	In Lesson 8, the word-guess activity is an information-gap task because the information was divided between one student (a presenter) having all the information and the other students (group members) having none. The interactants had independent responsibilities (one-way relationship) because the presenter had to describe the job pictures and the group members had to guess the job titles. The students worked together to accomplish a single goal (i.e. description and identification of 4 job titles in two minutes per group).
	Lesson 9	The street-map activity in Lesson 9 constituted an information gap task because one interactant (the teacher) acted as the only information holder and the other interactants (the students) acted as the information receiver. The teacher and students each had different responsibilities (one-way relationship), i.e. the teacher gave directions to different places on the map, and the students labelled places based on the teacher's directions. There was a closed outcome of this activity, i.e. identification of 10 labelled places.

	Lesson 10	The courier and secretary activity in Lesson 10 was an information-gap task because one task participant (the courier) possessed all the information and the other participants (group members) had none. Their interactant relationship was independent or one-way as both participants had different roles (i.e. the courier read information from the wall and reported it back to his/her group, and the group members arranged the information in good order). The result of the activity was a single outcome (i.e. provision of 4 pieces of information about an animal).
Problem Solving • Shared information • One or two-way relationship • Closed outcome	None	None
Decision Making • Shared information • One or two-way relationship • Open outcome	Lesson 11	The place-describing activity in Lesson 11 constituted a decision-making task because the task participants (all the group members) shared the same information. They also shared the same responsibilities to provide their own descriptions of the chosen picture (two-way relationship). In this task, the task participants discussed multiple options and decided what the best descriptions (open outcome) were.
Opinion Exchange • Shared information • One or two-way relationship • Open outcome	None	None

Note. Adapted from "Choosing and using tasks for second language instruction and research," by T. Pica, R. Kanagy & J. Falodun, in G. Crookes & S.M. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks and language learning: Integrating theory and practice* (p. 19), 1993, Multilingual Matters Ltd . Copyright 1993 by Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Using this psycholinguistic classification of tasks, it was apparent that the teacher's own task-based syllabus demonstrated little variety. For example, the tasks that the teacher constructed involved only three psycholinguistic task types, i.e. a jigsaw task in Lesson 12, information-gap tasks in Lessons 7, 8, 9, 10 and a decision-making task in Lesson 11. However, two task categories: (problem-solving and opinion exchange) did not figure in any of the tasks that the teacher devised.

2. Task topics

Task variety can also exist in terms of different topics. From the syllabus data, it was found out that the teacher chose different topics for different lessons. This can be seen in Table 24 below.

Table 24

Task Variety Based on Topics

General topics	Occurrence in a Lesson	Content area
Family	Lesson 12 (father)	Discussing a song entitled ' Daddy.'
Community	Lesson 7 (physical appearances) Lesson 8 (jobs) Lesson 9 (local amenities)	How people look and what they wear People work at many different jobs. Showing and finding directions.
The world around	Lesson 10 (animals) Lesson 11 (places)	Some facts about common animals. Describing famous places.

As we have seen, the task topics that the teacher designed consisted of a variety of every day topics that the students were likely to be familiar with as they were closely related to the students' personal life and experiences. The local amenities topic in Lesson 9, for example, connected with their existing knowledge of public buildings such as post offices, banks, and cinemas.

The topics led to tasks that were interactionally authentic (i.e. they involved the use of language similar to real-life communication), but they were not situationally authentic tasks (i.e. tasks that involved the use of language that learners will actually use in the real world). For these students, it was not really possible to identify 'target tasks' as they had no real need to use English in the outside world. Lesson 11, for example, asked students to describe famous places – a topic that did not

correspond to real-life behaviour but provided opportunities for using English in interactionally authentic ways.

The topic for Lesson 8 (jobs) was similar to the topic provided by the trainer for Lesson 1, although this task differed in the procedure. While Lesson 8 involved a word-guess activity, Lesson 1 involved courier and secretary and picture-matching activities. This type of task repetition is often referred to as 'content repetition' (Patanasorn, 2010, p. 13). Patanasorn's study suggests that content repetition helps to develop fluency.

5.2.3 Task appropriateness and progression

The third criterion was task appropriateness and progression. This criterion served to evaluate whether or not the tasks that the teacher devised were well-adjusted to the students' level of ability and whether they were effectively sequenced.

1.   Code complexity

In terms of code complexity, it was apparent that there was an increase in the complexity of the task input over time. For example, the teacher's descriptions in the picture-matching task in Lesson 7 consisted of short clauses (i.e. around four to seven words per clause). In the street-map task in Lesson 9, the teacher used longer clauses for the directions (i.e. a combination of independent and dependent clauses with around eight to nine words per clause). In Lesson 10, the teacher's task input comprised much longer clauses (i.e. a combination of independent and dependent clauses with around 17 to 23 words per clause). The task input in Lesson 12, however, was made up of short clauses (i.e. around four to eight words per clause). It was also important to note that the pictorial input that the teacher devised in the word-guess task in Lesson 8 required high-frequency job names such as *chef, doctor, pilot* (Cambridge Assessment English, 2012, pp. 10-28). Also, the pictures that the teacher used for the place-describing task in Lesson 11 involved familiar content relating to top tourist destinations such as *Borobudur Temple, Istiqlal Mosque* and *Monas Tower*. Table 25 below summarises the characteristics of the input found in the teacher's tasks.

Table 25

Code Complexity in the Teacher's Own Tasks

Lesson	Task	Example of Input	Code features
7	Students were required to identify pictures of people that matched the teacher's descriptions.	The man is bald. The woman is wearing a necklace. The man is wearing a striped shirt	Short clauses, main clauses only.
8	Students had to describe a set of pictures depicting different jobs in their group.		High-frequency job names.
9	Students were asked to locate the labelled places on the map based on the teacher's directions.	Opposite the gym, there is a big school. If I go straight, I will see a roundabout. After drinking coffee, I go to the hospital to see a sick friend.	Medium-length clauses, a combination of main and subordinate clauses.
10	Students were required to put information about an animal into good order and summarise it in their own words.	They have powerful legs and feet that are equipped with large talons used for killing their prey. In times of shortage, they also catch and eat a variety of smaller animals from rodents to reptiles. Although they spend a majority of their total foraging time feeding on fruits whenever they are available, these animals also eat insects and flowers.	Long clauses, a combination of main and subordinate clauses.
11	Students worked in groups to provide their own descriptions of a picture of a place.		Names of famous tourist attractions in Indonesia.

12	Students worked in pairs to work out the blanks in a song.	I love you, Daddy. You teach me how to pray. I have no fear when you are near.	Short clauses, a combination of main and subordinate clauses.

*Note 1. The [Lesson 8 images] are unable to be reproduced here due to copyright restrictions. The content can instead be accessed via [*https://stock.adobe.com/si/search?k=pilot+cartoon&asset _id=37342663, https://www.vectorstock.com /royalty-free-vector/people - doing - different - jobs - on - white - background - vector -19801356, https://www.dreamstime.com/royalty - free - stock - photo-cartoon-professor-vector-illustration-image30463505*].*

*Note 2. The [Lesson 11 images] are unable to be reproduced here due to copyright restrictions. The content can instead be accessed via [*https://www.kompasiana.com/asitasuryanto/624952005a74dc 7b9223b212/merasakan-sholat-di-masjid-istiqlal-setelah-direnovasi, https://id.wikipedia.org/wiki/ Monumen_Nasional, https:// medium.com/@Kalpavriksha/the - borobudur - temple-a-cosmic-stupa-9a2ad95fbd53*].*

The teacher's own syllabus consisted of single- rather than dual-demand tasks. An example can be seen in the word-guess task in Lesson 8. In this activity, the students were required to describe pictures to their group members so that they could guess the names of jobs. Another example was evident in Lesson 9, where the students were required to locate some places on the map by listening to the teacher's directions. However, the tasks that the teacher crafted for Lessons 10 and 11 seemed more complex. The activities in Lesson 10, for example, required the students to complete the tasks using several steps, which included choosing the correct information, putting jumbled information into good order, summarising the information in their own words, and presenting their summaries to the class.

2. *Task difficulty*

To evaluate task progression, I considered two important factors: 1) the nature of the gap (i.e. information or opinion-gap) and 2) whether the task was input- or output-based. There was evidence of a move away from information to opinion-gap tasks. For instance, the tasks in the first three lessons (Lessons 7, 8 and 9) involved the use of information gaps, while the tasks in Lessons 10 and

11 made greater cognitive demands on the students as they included reasoning (e.g. deriving new information from given information) and forming opinions (e.g. stating a personal preference). However, the task in Lesson 12 did not increase in complexity as it was an information-gap cloze exercise.

Over the five lessons, there was no progression from input-based tasks that involved listening to output-based tasks that involved speaking. For example, the teacher moved from an input-based task in Lesson 7 to an output-based task in Lesson 8 but then returned to an input-based task in Lesson 9. A complete list of tasks with regard to their appropriate level of difficulty is shown in Table 26 below.

Table 26

Task Difficulty in the Teacher's Own Tasks

Lesson	Task Description	Task Demand	Type of task
7	Matching pictures with descriptions.	Single demand, few steps, information gap.	Input-based task.
8	Describing/guessing pictures.	Single demand, few steps, information gap.	Output-based task.
9	Finding places based on directions.	Single demand, few steps, information transfer.	Input-based task.
10	Selecting information, ordering information, summarising information, and presenting information.	Multiple demands, many steps, reasoning gap.	A combination of input-based and output-based tasks.
11	Creating information, presenting information, summarising	Multiple demands, many	A combination of input-based

	information, and retelling information.	steps, opinion gap.	and output-based tasks.
12	Finding missing words.	Single demand, few steps, information gap.	Cloze exercise.

3.   Task continuity

In his task-based syllabus, Prabhu (1987) devised six versions of a map task under the topic of 'maps'. Similarly, in designing the syllabus I gave the teacher for the first six lessons, I tried to create continuity between the tasks. For example, the output-based task in Lesson 5 drew on the input-based task in Lesson 3 under the same topic of 'picture composition'. In terms of task continuity, it was apparent that the teacher's own task-based syllabus consisted mainly of unrelated tasks from one lesson to the next. Each task had a different topic and did not build upon the previous tasks. Nevertheless, there was evidence that the teacher linked his task in Lesson 8 to the trainer's sample task in Lesson 1. The tasks in the two lessons had the same topic ('people's jobs') but were sequenced differently and showed an increase in complexity. For example, in Lesson 1, the students were required to identify jobs based on the given information, but in Lesson 8, they were asked to describe jobs in their own words. It was also noticeable that some of the tasks that the teacher constructed showed continuity within the same lesson. For instance, Tasks 1 and 2 in Lesson 7 were interconnected as they had the same topic ('people's appearances), and Task 2 served as an extension of Task 1. This was also the case in Lessons 10 and 11, where the tasks in each lesson were connected in terms of topic and activities. Table 27 below summarises the continuity evident in the teacher's own task-based syllabus.

Table 27

Task Continuity in the teacher's Own Tasks

Lesson	Task Description	Task Continuity
7	Task 1: Matching pictures with descriptions (finger-pointing).	Unrelated to the task in Lesson 6.

	Task 2: Matching pictures with descriptions (writing on an answer sheet).	Related to Task 1 in this lesson.
8	Describing/guessing pictures.	Related to the task in Lesson 1.
9	Finding places based on directions.	Unrelated to the task in Lesson 8.
10	Task 1: Selecting and ordering information.	Unrelated to the task in Lesson 9.
	Task 2: Summarising and presenting information.	Related to Task 1 in this lesson.
11	Task 1: Creating and presenting information.	Unrelated to the task in Lesson 10.
	Task 2: Summarising and retelling information.	Related to Task 1 in this lesson.
12	Finding missing words.	Unrelated to the task in Lesson 11.

5.2.4 General findings

The following are the main findings that emerge from the analysis of the teacher's tasks:

1. In terms of task-basedness (Ellis's four criteria for a task), most of the teacher's own tasks qualified as tasks with some exceptions found in Lessons 10, 11, and 12. Some tasks in these lessons did not meet all four criteria for a task (e.g. there was no communicative outcome).

2. There was only limited variety in task types in the teacher's syllabus because many of the tasks that teacher crafted involved the same pedagogic operation (i.e. matching tasks) and were information-gap tasks.

3. Most of the task input comprised short and medium-length clauses, but there was a marked increase in the code complexity of the tasks in Lesson 10. The teacher's syllabus showed a sense of progression from the use of information gaps to the use of reasoning and opinion

gaps. The teacher made minimal attempts to link tasks between lessons (Lessons 8 and 1), but there was continuity between some tasks in the same lesson.

5.3 An analysis of the teacher's implementation of TBLT

This section presents an analysis of the teacher's implementation of task-based language teaching in his classroom. My main data source for this analysis was Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12. Lesson 1 was selected because it was the first lesson that the teacher taught using the materials supplied by myself as the trainer; Lesson 6 because it was the last lesson before the teacher started to use his own tasks; Lesson 7 because it was the first lesson where the teacher used his own task-based materials; Lesson 12 because it was the teacher's final lesson. Although I have focused mainly on Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12, sometimes I will draw on examples from other lessons to illustrate key points.

To analyse the data, I adopted both inductive and deductive approaches. I first drew up a list of different aspects of classroom interaction, drawing on my knowledge of what the literature on task-based teaching has identified as important for ensuring its effective implementation. I then read through transcripts of the lessons and made preliminary notes on those aspects in the list that were prominent. After that, I chose four aspects and read through the transcripts lessons again, making notes about salient points and identifying examples that I could use to illustrate them. Finally, I calculated the frequency of the different features that figured in each of the four aspects.

I will report on four main aspects: task-management activities, use of the L1, use of questions, and focus on form. The reasons for choosing each of these aspects are given below:

- Task-management activities

Task-management activities were chosen because, in task-based language teaching, one of the critical roles that a teacher must perform is as a task manager (Ellis, 2019). As a task manager, the teacher may need to organise activities that prepare learners for task implementation or ensure that the performance of the task proceeds smoothly. Task-management activities include activating the students' knowledge about the topic of the task, specifying the pattern of interaction a task involves, and allocating time for the main task. In the words of Van den Branden (2009b), a key role for the TBLT teacher is "making sure that students know what they are expected to do and organising temporal and spatial aspects of task performance' (p. 284). Therefore, understanding the teacher's management activities will enable me to examine the

extent to which the teacher was able to implement this fundamental aspect of task-based language teaching.

- Use of the L1

I chose the teacher's use of the L1 because this topic is relevant to my study, which was conducted in an EFL (English as a Foreign Language) setting where the teacher and the students shared the same L1 (Indonesian). In task-based language teaching, the teacher provides students with the opportunities to experience the target language through meaningful activities. During these meaning-making activities, the students are encouraged to communicate with the teacher and each other in the L2. However, when there is a communication breakdown, they may use communication strategies such as negotiation of meaning and corrective feedback to resolve it. Very often, these strategies involve the use of the L1 (Atkinson, 1987; Harbord, 1999; Nation, 2003). This is consistent with what Ellis (2012) said, "in foreign language contexts, where the students all speak the same L1 and the teacher is likely to be a native speaker of their language, use of the L1 is both feasible and, in many ways, natural " (p. 127). Therefore, understanding the teacher's and student's use of the L1 will help us examine the extent to which the teacher was successful in using it to overcome communication difficulties during the performance of tasks and whether the teacher became over-reliant on it.

- Use of questions

I focused on the teacher's procedural and information questions. I chose these two types of questions for two reasons: (1) to limit the scope of my analysis, and (2) procedural and information questions are widely used in language classrooms – especially task-based ones - and have been frequently discussed in the literature (Brock, 1986; Hattie, 2012; Wright, 2016). Although studies have shown that questioning provides opportunities for student learning and interaction in the classroom (Black, 2001; Fusco, 2012; Walsh & Sattes, 2015), display questions are often criticised for being non-communicative and for limiting opportunities for student talk (Cullen, 1998; Long & Sato, 1983). In a similar vein, Ellis (2003) points out that the excessive use of display questions limits the opportunities for students to negotiate for meaning and is a typical feature of traditional form-focused instruction. Therefore, understanding the teacher's use of questions will enable me to investigate the extent to which the teacher has been successful in implementing task-based language teaching in his classroom, especially concerning whether his mode of questioning led to the kind of meaningful communication that TBLT aims to generate.

- Focus on form

Ellis et al. (2001) provided three reasons why focus on form has a special place in TBLT: 1) acquisition of particular linguistic elements is more likely to occur if learners attend to them in contexts where the primary focus is on meaning, 2) learners have limited information-processing ability which makes it difficult for them to acquire and produce linguistic features in communication and therefore, 3) communicative opportunities that include focus on form can benefit learners acquisitionally. This is consistent with Shintani (2014), who said, "a key principle of TBLT is that even though learners are primarily concerned with constructing and comprehending messages, they can also focus on form when the need or opportunity arises" (p. 281).

As such, an analysis of focus on form can help show whether or not the teacher has provided enough opportunities for the students to engage in communication and attend to form through negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form. I looked at both the conversational and didactic focus on form strategies that the teacher used in his teaching to see to what extent the teacher has been successful in implementing focus on form in his classroom.

5.3.1 Task-management activities

Task-management activities refer to how the teacher organises the lesson to help the students understand and perform the task. The main characteristics of the teacher's task-management activities in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 included :

- The teacher's review of the previous lesson,
- The teacher's organisation of group work,
- The teacher's time allocation for task completion.

In what follows, each of these different features will be covered in detail with relevant examples.

a. Review of the previous lesson

One of the characteristics of the teacher's tasks management had to do with his review of the previous lesson. The observational data clearly showed that the teacher did not review his previous lessons in Lessons 1, 6 and 7. In Lesson 1, the teacher did not do the reviewing because it was his first task-based lesson. In Lessons 6 and 7, the teacher started the lesson by simply checking the

students' attendance before introducing the new topic or by jumping ahead into the new topic without touching upon the previous topic.

In the feedback sessions held after Lessons 2, 3, 6 and 7, I discussed this aspect with the teacher. I asked him why he did not review the previous lesson. He told me he was not accustomed to doing it in his common practice. He also asked me how to overcome this problem. I suggested that one way of keeping track of everything was by jotting important points down in a small book that he could carry around. I mentioned that a brief recap of the previous lesson helps reactivate the students' knowledge, connect new information with previous learning, reinforce new concepts/vocabulary, and prepare the students for the next task.

Following the feedback sessions above, the teacher made a change in the way he started his class in Lessons 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12. He consistently reviewed his previous lesson before introducing the new lesson. When starting Lesson 4, for example, he said:

> T: **Do you still remember about our material last time? Yesterday?**
> SS: Yes
> T: Ya, what about?
> S: Flood
> T: Flood. Yeah, OK. What else? What else?
> S: What else? Hemm...story-telling.
> T: Yeah, about story...?
> SS: Telling
> T: Telling. How you try to tell about picture and set the picture to be good sto…?
> SS: Story

The teacher's review of the previous lesson was also evident in Lesson 12 at the beginning of the lesson, where he said:

> T: OK, today**, before we start to the next lesson, yeah I would like to ask you about our last meeting.** OK, we study for our ehm...... previous lesson. Yeah, what is our previous last time?
> S: Describing
> SS: Describing
> T: Describing?
> SS: Place
> T: Place. OK, who wants to give some example for describing place, ha? Mosque. Others?

SS: *Jam Gadang*

b.   Organisation of group work

Another noticeable characteristic can be seen in the teacher's organisation of group work, i.e. the type of participation required of the students for a particular task/activity. In Lessons 1, 7 and 12, the teacher provided explicit instructions for group or individual work. Examples of explicit instructions that the teacher gave are presented below:

- In lesson 1, the teacher explicitly organised group work:

   T: I will give you tasks, ya. **So, we will make a group, each group three person**. OK? I think this is enough. This is one group, one group, one group. One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight. It means we have........?
   S: Eight group
   T: Ya, we have eight groups.

- In Lesson 7, the teacher first failed to make it clear to the students that they had to work individually but did so after one student asked:

   T: I will read some pictures, yeah, describe some pictures, and you try to understand. OK, listen. Yeah, the first, don't make any sign with the paper. The first is you just point the picture.
   S: Group?
   T: **No, by yourself.**

- In Lesson 12, the teacher provided an explicit instruction about pair work:

   T: So, I want to give you the listening first, yeah, you have to listen first, about the...the song, and then I will give you the lyric, **and then you will do your lyric by your pair**, yeah. Do with your pairs, OK?

In Lesson 6, however, the teacher failed to make the participatory structure needed for an activity clear to the students:

   Yeah, I will give you some picture. This is talking about how.. how focus are you. To look, to see, to analyse about the picture. Because, yeah. You should know how to describe someone. Do you know describe? Yeah, describe someone. How to describe....(*writing the word on the board*).

In the post-lesson discussion held with the teacher after Lesson 6, I mentioned the importance of being explicit about the need for group work, pair work or individual work before assigning a

particular task so that the students were clear about what was expected of them. However, the absence of explicit instructions for organising group work often did not cause any problems. One contributing factor that assisted students' understanding in this aspect might be the fact that the teacher consistently provided comprehension checks. In Lesson 9, where individual work was required but no explicit instruction was given, for example, the teacher checked students' understanding of what they had to do and supported it with examples:

> Yeah, yeah. This is the first time. OK, for example. Actually, I have give you an example. I want to go to parking area; yeah, I walk out the class and go straight. Go straight. On my left side is the garden and my right side is the classroom. I will say the name, and you write the name on your paper. When I say someplace, the first is A, B, C, D, E. On my description maybe I will say someplace, zoo. B. Yeah. Or Bank. But I will say it in description in sentence. So, you have to understand what I'm saying. Do you understand? Do you understand? Yeah, when I say the place, A or B, you may write here (*showing the task paper*). What place I said, yeah. I say I read OK, do you understand? You? OK, when I say walk on my left is bank. Oh bank you write here bank. And then A, zoo. Do you understand? You write here. .OK, ...(*calling a student's name*)? You? Do you understand?

c.   Time allocation for task completion

The last salient aspect from the teacher's task-management activities had to do with his allocation of time for task completion. The teacher set the students 5 minutes to complete the task in Lesson 1:

> So, the next, the first courier? Yeah, I give you a limit for this, to explain, OK? Enough for you 3 minutes for eight people jobs? OK, I give you 5 minutes, yah. **I give you 5 minutes for eight people jobs.**

However, he did not do this in Lesson 6. I asked the teacher about this aspect in the post-lesson discussion. The teacher admitted that he directly asked for volunteers and did not allocate time for the students to describe the picture cards because he was confident that the students could complete the task easily. We then discussed whether it might still be a good idea to set a time limit to encourage all the students, including those who tend to work slowly, to try to speed up. In Lessons 7 and 12, the teacher resumed setting time for task completion. In Lesson 7, for example, he set a time limit (5 minutes) for the description task:

> T: Yeah. OK, now. **I give you 5 minutes to describe your friends in front of you**.

SS: (*noise*)

Similarly, the teacher explicitly mentioned the time limit (10 minutes) for the song lyrics completion in Lesson 12:

OK, Nah. **I give you 10 minutes. OK, 10 minutes to do with your friend**. OK, OK now discuss with your friend.

General findings

The main features of the teacher's task-management activities from Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 included reviewing the previous lesson, organising group work and setting time for task completion. In general, the teacher made changes after post-lesson discussions were held with him. One main change that took place, for example, was the teacher's review of the previous lessons. In Lessons 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 and 7, he did not make any review of his previous lessons but starting from Lesson 8 onwards; he consistently provided a brief recap of the previous lessons before introducing a new topic. The changes that occurred are presented in Table 28 below.

Table 28

Changes in the Teacher's Task-Management Activities over Four Lessons

Lesson	Reviewing the previous lesson	Organising group work	Setting time for task completion
Lesson 1 People's Jobs	No; the first lesson	Explicit instructions (group work)	5 minutes
Lesson 6 Picture Differences	No	No explicit instructions (pair work)	No
Lesson 7 People's Appearances	No	Explicit instructions (individual work)	5 minutes
Lesson 12 Song	Yes	Explicit instructions (pair work)	10 minutes

5.3.2 Use of the L1

This part presents an analysis of the use of the L1 (student's mother tongue) in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12. The topic of L1 use in the classroom has generated a considerable amount of interest and debate among second and foreign language researchers (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2007; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; G. Chambers, 1992; Kahrma & Hajjaj, 1989). Again and again, the discussion returns to the question of whether or not students' first language should be used in ESL/EFL teaching. Some researchers (e.g. De la Campa & Nassaji; 2009; Macaro, 2001; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Turnbull, 2001; Van Lier, 1995) suggested a middle-of-the-road position saying that despite the critical use of the target language (L2) in a foreign language setting, the use of the L1 should not be totally abandoned as its use may facilitate L2 learning. In this section, I aim to describe the teacher's and students' strategic use of the L1 in the four lessons, reserving my evaluative comments at the end of this chapter.

This analysis looks at the classroom discourse over the four lessons with two important foci: the teacher's use of L1 and the student's use of L1. In general, the teacher used the L1 to help the students better understand how to do/complete the task and assist them with a difficult concept/word. On the other hand, the students used the L1 because they needed more information about a particular task procedure or a keyword and were not confident in using the target language yet. As evident from the lesson transcripts, the teacher used the L1 on several occasions:

- When giving task instructions
- When checking comprehension
- Responding to students' English questions

Whereas the student's use of the L1 occurred in the following activities:

- Information requests
- Responding to teacher's English questions
- Asking for translations

Each aspect of the teacher's and student's use of the L1 in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 will be dealt with in detail below.

Teacher's use of the L1

a.   *Use of the L1 in giving task instructions*

The first aspect of the teacher's use of students' first language had to do with how he provided the task instructions to the students. In Lesson 1, for example, the teacher used a mixture of English and Indonesian but with a tendency to overuse Indonesian. An example of the teacher's overuse of the L1 when giving instructions can be seen below. Here, the teacher provided immediate Indonesian translations of complete sentences rather than repeating or paraphrasing what he had said in English:

> T: Later, I will stick this paper outside the room in the wall. Ya, *Sir akan tempel ini* (Indonesian for *I will stick this*) on the wall, outside. And then, ya, one of you to be courier. *Satu diantaranya akan menjadi ku..?* (Indonesian for *one of you will be a courier*)
>
> SS: rir
>
> T: *Kurir* (Indonesian for *courier)*. Nah, others will prepare a piece of paper. You get it? *Setiap satu orang menjadi kurir,* (Indonesian for *each of you will be a courier)* two more, *dua orang lagi akan menjadi penulisnya* (Indonesian for *the other two members will be the writer)*. Secretary, be the secretary. So, how Sir? One of you will go out of the class and look for number one. He will read, OK? And then, the other again will go out of the class and tell to his friends. OK, this is talking about something. *Dia akan menjelaskan sesuatu tentang apa yang dibaca, yeah* (Indonesian for *he will describe what he read*) We will explain about what your friend reads outside. *Dia akan menjelaskan apa yang akan...Apa yang dibacakan tadi. Teman yang dua orang lagi, akan...?* (Indonesian for *he will describe what will....what he read. The other two members, will...?*
>
> SS: *Menulis* (Indonesian for *write)*.

The teacher's use of the L1 seemed to dominate all the activities in Lesson 1. To address this, I held a feedback session with the teacher after the lesson. The teacher told me that he overused the L1 in order to make his task instructions and explanations easier to understand. He also said that he was unsure what use to make of the L1 and L2 in his first task-based lesson. I told him that although the L2 has a significant role in providing valuable input for the students, which supports their language acquisition, the L1 can also be used to facilitate L2 learning. In this regard, I suggested that the teacher translate a keyword or two instead of providing a word-by-word translation of a whole sentence when giving task instructions.

In the following lesson (Lesson 2), the teacher still used a mixture of English and Indonesian when providing the task instruction but less so than in Lesson 1:

> T: OK, everyone. All of you get the paper? Ya, OK. OK, listen. I will tell you about the instruction. *Ya, dengarkan, Sir akan membacakan instruksinya (*Indonesian for *Yes listen, I will read the instruction).* So, you have to listen carefully. I will read fast, ya. OK. The instruction is when I tell

about the name of the city, ya, and then I will tell you about the location in the map, ya. *Sir akan membacakan sebuah lokasi, sebuah kota yang berlokasi pada bagian map yang ada yang sama kalian face map-nya.* (Indonesian for *I will read a location for you, a city located on the face map).* Ya, I will read about the location and try to make a number or checklist or cross ya, but you just give the sign with the face map.

In Lessons 6, 7 and 12, the teacher used English more or less entirely when giving instructions about tasks. An example of the teacher's use of the L2 when giving task instructions in Lesson 6 can be seen below:

Today, yeah. We will start. We will study about how to find the differentiation with the picture. OK, yeah. OK, look!. I will give you the same picture (*drawing two face pictures on the board*). Nah, I will give you the same picture but with different character. Yeah, with difference attribute, difference symbol, yeah. You know? So, with this picture, you will find...you will find the difference between picture one and picture two, yeah.

It is important to note that despite the teacher using English for instructions more or less entirely, he also sometimes checked his students' comprehension afterwards and, if necessary, translated a keyword. In Lesson 5, for example, when the teacher saw some students struggling to understand his English instructions, the teacher helped them understand using Indonesian. Here, the teacher tried to help the students understand 'jumbled' using an Indonesian translation of the word ('acak'):

T: And all of you try to understand the story and try to set is it correct one like this, one-two-three? Or we will set them? Where is number, where is the first story, yeah...this is...I give them the *acak* (Indonesian for *jumbled)* picture.
SS: *Acak*?
T: *Acak.* Yeah, jumbled, random. Yeah... random picture. So, when they try to explain, to retell the story, you try to understand and then you ask to, Oh, this is the second, this is the first story. You understand?

Similarly, in Lesson 9, the teacher used some Indonesian to assist the students' comprehension of the task instructions. In the extract below, the teacher translated two keywords 'picture' and 'place' into Indonesian ('gambar' and 'tempat') to explain the procedure of a street-map task:

T: I will read the text, and then I will say the place based on this map. Sir will explain this *gambar* yeah (Indonesian for *picture*). This place, the white place, yeah. And then you should try, try here.

What is the B? The B place and here, the name of the place. You know? Name, name. The name of the place. Place is *tempat* (Indonesian for *place)*. Yeah. The name of *tempat* is. The place. OK?

As the two examples show, the teacher followed a process of (1) first using English, (2) then using an Indonesian word for a key concept, and (3) finally repeating the word in English.

b.   Use of the L1 to check comprehension

Another aspect of the teacher's strategic use of the L1 was related to his checking of students' comprehension. Here, the teacher provided comprehension checks in two important ways: asking comprehension questions and asking for translations.

Asking comprehension questions

There were occasions when the teacher checked his student's understanding using an Indonesian comprehension check such as *Paham*? (Understood?), *Ada pertanyaan*? (Any questions?), *Ada yang mau ditanya*? (Anything to ask?). In Lesson 1, for instance, the teacher often checked his students' comprehension during the performance of the courier and secretary activities using both full Indonesian and a mixture of English and Indonesian:

> T: *Sampai disini paham*? (Indonesian for *have you understood so far?)*
>
> SS: *Paham* (Indonesian for *understood)*
>
> ==========
>
> T: OK? Any question? *Ada pertanyaan yang lain?* (Indonesian for *any other questions?)* Do you understand?
>
> SS: Yes.
>
> T: Are you sure? Yeah, *ada yang mau ditanya? Kira-kira paham?* (Indonesian for *anything to ask? Understood?)*
>
> ===========
>
> Do you understand? Yeah, *paham, nak? Paham?* (Indonesian for *understand, son? Understand?)*

These extracts show how the teacher provided immediate Indonesian translations of complete sentences to check comprehension. This may be because the teacher was accustomed to using this translation method in his regular teaching. As previously mentioned, I discussed the teacher's use of the L1 after Lesson 1. My suggestion for comprehension checking was to always use the L2 because expressions like 'Do you understand?' and 'Is it clear?' occurred so frequently and would soon be picked up by the students. Nevertheless, I told him that it was acceptable to use the L1 to

deal with a communication problem if it could not be solved using English. The teacher took some notes about this strategy and agreed to try to implement it in his following lessons.

Following the post-lesson discussion, the teacher showed a significant change in his use of the L1 to check students' understanding. It occurred in Lesson 2 during the face-map task where the teacher used some Indonesian at the end of a sentence to check his student's understanding of a description:

> Medan is the capital city of the island. It is located on the head. Yeah, *paham*? (Indonesian for *understood?)*

On this occasion, the teacher only used a single Indonesian word ('paham?). This indicates that the teacher had minimised his use of the L1 by only translating a keyword. There is no evidence to show that the teacher used the L1 when checking comprehension in Lessons 6, 7 and 12. This was perhaps because the students were already familiar with the English expressions to check comprehension, so the teacher did not feel the need to translate them into Indonesian.

Asking for a translation

The second type of comprehension check was asking for a translation. Here, the teacher asked the students for the English translation of Indonesian words to check their understanding of the words. In Lesson 1, for instance, the teacher asked a student for a translation of a word used in the courier and secretary activity:

> T: How to say *pendeta* in English? (Indonesian for *priest*)
> S: *Paus…Paus…Paus* (Indonesian for *Pope*)
> T: *Paus*? It's the name.

The student responded in Indonesian, and the teacher used a repetition strategy (Paus?) to indicate that the student's utterance was incorrect. However, he did not provide the correct version of the erroneous utterance.

Further evidence can be seen in Lesson 6, when the teacher frequently asked for translations of words to check his students' comprehension when giving task instructions. For example, in the spot-the-differences task, he said:

> T: How to say *pesek*? (Indonesian for *flat nose?)*

S: Flat

T: Flat, yeah.

===========================

T: How to say *lebih gendut?* (Indonesian for *fatter*)?

S: Fatter

T: Fatter yeah…fatter…fatter...

In these dialogues, the student gave answers, and the teacher confirmed their correct answers ('flat' and 'fatter').

Another example showing the teacher's use of comprehension checks by asking for translations can be seen in Lesson 7:

T: Yeah, how to say *mantel?* (Indonesian for *raincoat)*

S1: *Jas hujan* (another Indonesian for *raincoat)*

S2: Raincoat

T: Raincoat

In this episode, the teacher asked his students the English translation for the word 'mantel'. One student answered in Indonesian, but then another student answered correctly in English. The teacher repeated the correct answer ('rain coat') to confirm it was correct.

In Lesson 12, there were no instances where the teacher asked students for translations. This might be due to the fact that the students were quite familiar with the task instructions and keywords used in Lesson 12, and the teacher felt confident that they understood his English.

As we have seen from the examples above, it is clear that the first type of comprehension check (asking comprehension questions) was only apparent in two initial lessons (Lessons 1 and 2) but was not found in Lessons 6, 7, and 12. In Lesson 1, the teacher used complete sentence translations, whereas he only used one-keyword translations subsequently. The second type of comprehension check (asking for translations) was evident in three lessons (Lessons 1, 6 and 7) but was absent in Lesson 12.

c. *Use of the L1 when responding to student's English questions*

The teacher also made strategic use of the L1 when he responded to his students' English questions. During the teacher's instructions in Lesson 1, for example, two students negotiated for meaning in English and the teacher clarified using a mixture of English and Indonesian:

> S1: Sir?
> T: Ya?
> S1: The courier, out from class?
> T: Yeah, to find..... I say, to read the first number. *Jadi harus berurut, bacanya harus* (Indonesian for *you must read it in order, you must read it)* from number one.
> S2: English, Sir?
> T: Hm? English, try to speak English. Please, If you don't, eee if you can't speak English well, yeah, mix it.
> S2: Mix it? Speak Indonesia?
> T: Yeah, by *Bahasa* is OK but not pure with *Bahasa Indonesia. Gak boleh, ini loh pekerjaannya gini-gini* (Indonesian for *you can not describe the jobs in full Indonesian)* No. Yeah, try by mix language English or *Bahasa.* You understand?
> S2: (*nodding)*

In this extract, students asked for more information about the task procedures. The teacher responded by providing Indonesian translations of full sentences to ensure that his message was clear to the students. He followed up with a comprehension check resulting in the student indicating his understanding by nodding his head. As I have already noted, I suggested that the teacher keep the use of the L1 to a minimum, i.e. translating keywords rather than complete sentences.

In Lesson 5, during a task instruction activity, a student asked about the meaning of an English word ('volunteer'). Here the teacher used the L1 ('relawan') to answer the student's question:

> T: Are you agree if both of them to be the volunteer there?
> S: What volunteer, Sir?
> T: *relawan…relawan...*(Indonesian for *volunteer)*
> S: Oh...

However, the teacher's use of the L1 in this way was not found in Lessons 6, 7 and 12, maybe because he did not feel the need to respond to the students' questions in the L1. In the post-lesson discussions conducted with the teacher after Lessons 6, 7 and 12, I reminded the teacher of the strategic use of the L1 in facilitating L2 learning when the necessity arose.

Student 's use of the L1

a.   *Use of the L1 in information requests*

The student's use of the L1 was noticeable in a number of activities. One of them was when they requested information or more details from the teacher. While there was no evidence in Lesson 1, an example of the student-initiated use of the L1 in this type was found in Lesson 2. When the class was done doing the map task, for example, a student asked for further details about the paper he/she had to hand in:

> T: Nah, I forget to remind you. Ya, write your name, please.
>
> S: *Dimana, Sir?* (Indonesian for *where to write it, Sir?*)
>
> T: Ya, just there (*pointing to the answer sheet*)
>
> S: *Lengkap, Sir?* (Indonesian for *full name, Sir?*)
>
> T: Ya, your full name.
>
> S: *Pake kelas?* (Indonesian for *do we write our class too?*)
>
> T: Ehm?
>
> S: *Pake kelas, Sir?*
>
> T: Yes.

In this episode, the student asked the teacher about three pieces of information in Indonesian: (1) where to write their name *('Dimana, Sir?'*), (2) whether he/she had to write his/her full name ('*Lengkap, Sir*?') and (3) whether he/she had to include his/her class ('*Pake kelas, Sir?*'). The teacher responded in English to all the questions.

There was also another example in Lesson 6. When the teacher was distributing the task materials and providing the task instructions, two students asked for information in Indonesian about group work and task procedure:

> T: I will give you the paper, a paper... yeah, this is for one paper two boys or two students (*distributing picture cards*)
>
> S: *Kami bertiga, Sir?* (Indonesian for *Do we make a group of three people, Sir?*)
>
> T: Yeah, wait. Yeah, yeah, yeah.
>
> ==========================
>
> T: Make a number with the picture. Yeah.
>
> S: *Disebelah-sebelahnya aja, Sir?* (Indonesian for *we write the number beside the picture?*)

T: Ya, OK, yeah. Yeah, you can...the first picture, this one. Check the picture...this one.

Student-initiated information requests were also apparent in Lesson 7. While the teacher was explaining how to do the task, some students posed questions in the L1. They needed more information about the task procedure:

> T: I will read some pictures, yeah, describe some pictures, and you try to understand, and you describe the picture.
> S1: Group?
> T: No, by yourself.
> S2: *Titik aja, Sir?* (Indonesian for *just pointing, Sir*?)
> T: For example, yeah. For example. This is my picture; yeah, I will start with number one. OK, listen. Listen. Yeah listen to me. I will start with number one, OK? Your order is you just point the picture.
> ============================
> T: OK, you start to describe your friend first.
> S: *Dibaca aja, Sir?* (Indonesian for *we just read it, Sir?)*
> T: It's OK you want to read or just keep it's OK.

In Lesson 12, a student used an information request to check whether or not he needed to write his name on the paper and where to write the response to the task:

> T: OK, hurry up! The time is only one minute more. Only a piece of paper, write down your name, yeah (*moving around the class*).
> S: *Sir, dimana, Sir?* (Indonesian for *where to do it, Sir?)*
> T: On your paper...Piece of paper.

As we have seen above, there was no evidence of the student's use of the L1 in Lesson 1, perhaps because Lesson 1 was the first lesson and thus the students were not confident to ask questions. In the feedback session conducted after Lesson 1, I asked the teacher whether he thought it would be good to train the students to use communication strategies. When he responded 'no', I pointed out the usefulness of showing students how to ask for information, a translation, or confirmation in English. I also suggested to the teacher that the students could use some Indonesian (but ideally not full sentences) when they experienced a communication difficulty.

In the following lessons (Lessons 2, 6, 7 and 12), the students regularly used information requests in Indonesian for things they were not sure or clear about. The students' consistent use of the L1 in

this category reflected their lack of confidence to use the target language when requesting information. However, it is interesting to note that the teacher avoided replying in Indonesian over the four lessons and opted to use English instead. This shows that the teacher developed a good strategy for dealing with his students' mother tongue.

b.   Use of the L1 when responding to the teacher's questions/descriptions

Another context in which the students used the L1 was when they responded to the teacher's English questions or descriptions. The first example of the students' L1 response was noticeable in Lesson 1. During a word-guess activity, a student responded in Indonesian to the teacher's description ('dosen'). The teacher then corrected the student's utterance implicitly by translating his/her Indonesian utterance into English ('lecturer'):

> T: This person teaches in a university
> S1: Teacher
> S2: Professor
> T: Professor?
> S3: *Dosen* (Indonesian for *lecturer*)
> T: Yeah. Lecturer yaa...Teacher, in school...lecturer

The second example was found in Lesson 3 during a brainstorming activity. When the teacher was posing a question, one student tried to answer. Here the teacher used the target language to ask ('what are the causes?') and the students replied using a mixture of English and Indonesian ('the water is *meluap-luap'* and 'many s*ampah'*). The teacher then showed his approval of the student's use of the L1 in this way:

> T: Ya, others? What is the causes? What are the causes?
> S: The water is *meluap-luap* (Indonesian for *overflowing)*
> T: Ya, because of that...others...others?
> S: Many *sampah* (Indonesian for *garbage)*
> T: Actually, ya.

In Lesson 6, a student tried to describe his picture card during a spot-the-differences activity. At first, he used just English, but finally, he used a mixture of English and Indonesian as he was stuck for the word '*warna'* (colour). The teacher approved the student's use of the L1:

T: OK, next?

S: He is not wearing a watch

T: Watch, yeah. OK, good.

S: On his left hand.

T: Yeah

S: And his shorts, and his socks.

T: Yeah

S: Socks is same..same...ehm same *warna* of his socks.

T: OK, good.

Similarly, during a picture-describing activity in Lesson 7, a student attempted to respond to the teacher's question using a mixture of English and Indonesian. In this extract, the student used the L1 word '*warna*' (colour) to accompany his L2 answer, perhaps because it is customary in Indonesian to put the word 'colour' before the actual colour:

T: Yeah, next?

S: The hair is *warna* pink

The student's L1 response to the teacher's question can also be seen in the final lesson (Lesson 12). During a review activity, a student responded to the teacher's question in Indonesian ('meriam puntung'), and the teacher used corrective feedback by supplying an English word ('canon'):

T: What do you see in *Istana Maimun*?

S: Ehm...*Meriam Puntung* (Indonesian for *Broken Canon*)

T: OK, canon yeah canon.

From the extracts above, it is clear that the students made strategic use of their L1 when they encountered communication problems in responding to the teacher's questions or descriptions.

c.   *Use of the L1 when asking for a translation*

In addition to asking for information and responding to the teacher's questions, the students also exhibited the use of the L1 when they asked for translations of particular Indonesian words. While no examples were found in Lesson 1, the students' use of the L1 in this category was noticeable in Lesson 2. During the face-map task, for instance, a student asked the teacher how to say '*ibukota*' (capital) in English:

S1: Sir, *Bahasa Inggris ibu kota?* (Indonesian for *What is the English for 'ibu kota'?*)

T: Major

S2: Not capital city?

T: Capital city, ya.

In this extract, the teacher provided an answer ('major') to the student, but another student asked for confirmation ('not capital city?). The teacher then confirmed the second student's answer.

There was no evidence of the student's use of the L1 in Lesson 6. However, during a picture-matching activity in Lesson 7, a student asked for a translation for the word '*atok*' (old man). The teacher did not provide the direct translation, but he gave a description of an old man instead:

S: *Bahasa Inggris atok apa, Sir*? (Indonesian for *How do you say 'atok' in English ?*)

T: The man has beard, beard. The man has beard. The man has beard.

There was also evidence to suggest that the students requested translations from the teacher in the final lessons. In Lesson 10, for example, a student asked for the translation of the words '*enam koma lima*' during a class presentation. First, the teacher elicited the correct form from the student by pausing to let the student complete his utterance. The student responded correctly, and the teacher repeated the student's utterance to indicate that it was correct:

S: How to say in English *enam koma lima*? (Indonesian for *six point five?*)

T: Six point...?

S: Six point five

T: Yeah, six point five

The last example was found in Lesson 12 during a writing activity. In this lesson, a student asked the teacher how to say '*kesalahan*' in English. The teacher provided an English translation of the word ('mistake') and repeated the word three times:

S: Sir, What is in English *kesalahan*? (Indonesian for *mistake?*)

T: My mistake... mistake....mistake

As we have seen, in Lessons 2 and 7, the students used full Indonesian to request translations from the teacher. However, Lessons 10 and 12 showed that the students asked for translations in full English. This indicates that the students were not confident enough to use the target language in the

former lessons, but they developed confidence in the latter lessons to use English when asking for translations. This might be due to the fact that the teacher had trained the use of negotiation-for-meaning strategies in lessons prior to or in Lessons 10 and 12, which included asking for a translation.

General findings

1. The teacher used the L1 for several functions, which included:
    a. To assist students' comprehension of the task instructions.
    b. To check whether or not the students had understood a particular procedure/word/concept.
    c. To make his responses easier to understand by the students.
2. Over the four lessons, there was a decrease in the amount of L1 used by the teacher. In other words, the teacher's use of the L1 declined from 11% in Lesson 1 to less than 1% in Lessons 6, 7 and 12.
3. The percentage of the teacher's use of the L1 compared to his use of the L2 can be seen in Table 29 below.

Table 29

Percentage of Teacher's Use of the L1 and L2 over Four Lessons

First-half Lessons	Use of L1 (words)	Use of L2 (words)
Lesson 1	10.9%	89.1%
Lesson 6	0.3%	99.7%
Second-half Lessons	**Use of L1 (words)**	**Use of L2 (words)**
Lesson 7	0.4%	99.6%
Lesson 12	0.7%	99.3%

4. The students used the L1 for several functions, which included:
    a. To ask for information from the teacher about how to do a particular activity/task.
    b. To respond to the teacher's questions or descriptions in English.
    c. To request translations from the teacher about particular words they did not know.

5. In contrast to the teacher's use of the L1, the students' use of the L1 rose over time (i.e. from 16% to 25%).

6. The percentage of the students' use of the L1 in comparison to their use of the L2 can be seen in Table 30 below.

Table 30

Percentage of Students' Use of the L1 and L2 over Four Lessons

First-half Lessons	Use of L1 (words)	Use of L2 (words)
Lesson 1	15.8%	84.2%
Lesson 6	15.5%	84.5%
Second-half Lessons	**Use of L1 (words)**	**Use of L2 (words)**
Lesson 7	24.8%	75.2%
Lesson 12	23.5%	76.5 %

5.3.3 Teacher's questions

In this part, I present an analysis of the teacher's questions in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12. One of the key characteristics of the teacher's language in an L2 setting is their use of questions. Teachers typically pose many questions in language classrooms (Ellis, 2012), and studies (e.g. Dillon, 1997) have sought to describe the different types that teachers ask and how frequently the teacher uses them. There are various taxonomies of teacher's questions (e.g. Hakansson & Lindeberg, 1988; Long & Sato, 1983), but I focused my analysis on two types of questions: procedural questions and information questions. Procedural questions are questions that "have to do with classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 186). Information questions serve the purpose of obtaining factual information and can be sub-divided into two categories: referential and display. Referential questions are questions where the answers are not known by the teacher. In contrast, display questions are questions to which the teacher already knows the answers. It is also important to note that while the teacher used Indonesian questions in the classroom, I have focused only on his English questions as his use of Indonesian questions was covered in a separate section (i.e. the teacher's use of the L1). In this analysis, I adopted an 'etic' approach, i.e. I first coded the questions as procedural, referential or display and then described the use of each type of question in detail.

Teacher's use of procedural questions

Over the four lessons, the procedural questions were employed to both manage routine classroom business and the performance of a task. I will discuss and illustrate the different functions of the teacher's procedural questions as follows:

a. Greeting students and checking attendance

Examples of procedural questions used in this category were evident in all four lessons. In Lesson 1, for example, the teacher started the class using procedural questions to greet students and check attendance. In the extract below, the teacher first greeted the class ('how are you today?') and proceeded to check attendance ('who don't come today?'). The students provided the absentee's name, and the teacher then asked a follow-up question ('why he doesn't come?'). These W-H questions represented the teacher's regular way of starting the class:

> T: *Assalamu'alaikumwarahmatullahiwabarakatuh*
> SS: *Wa'alaikumusalamwarahmatullahiwabarakatuh*
> T: Good afternoon everybody.
> SS: Good afternoon, Sir.
> T: **How are you today?**
> SS: I'm fine, thank you. And you, Sir?
> T: I'm fine. **Who don't come today?**
> SS: XXX (*mentioning a students' name*)
> T: XXX? (*mentioning a student's name*)
> SS: XXX (*mentioning a student's name*)
> T: **Why he doesn't come?**
> SS: Sick
> T: He's sick…OK, let's start our lesson by saying *Basmallah.*
> SS: *Bismillahirrahmaanirrahiim*

This type of questioning was repeated in other lessons. The following example in Lesson 6 is a case in point:

> T: Good morning, everybody.
> SS: Good morning, Sir.
> T: **How are you today?**
> SS: I'm fine, thank you. And you, Sir?

T: I'm fine. OK. **Who doesn't come today**?

SS: XXX…XXX…(*mentioning a student's name*)

T: **Why XXX?** (*mentioning a student's name*)

SS: Sick…sick...he sick

S1: No..,because his grandma...grandma dead...

S2: The grandma is in hospital

b. Asking for volunteers

Another category of the procedural question involved the teacher asking the students for volunteers to perform a particular task. Examples of this questioning were apparent in all four lessons. For instance, during a spot-the-differences activity in Lesson 6, the teacher asked students to volunteer ('who wants to be the volunteer for the first picture?). When there was no response from the students, he used two strategies. First, he repeated the question a few times ('yeah tell me, who wants?', 'who wants to volunteer?') and then asked a very specific question related to the task at hand ('can you describe the first picture about my daughter?'):

> T: OK, yeah. Now, for the last, I want to you describe me about your picture because I want to check my picture. Yeah, **who wants to be the volunteer for the first picture?** Yeah I will take pen. Yeah, tell me, **who wants?**...Yeah...**Who wants to volunteer?**
>
> S: XXX, Sir (*mentioning a student's name*)
>
> T: Why do you call your friends? Yeah...Can you describe the first picture about my daughter?

W-H questions of this type also occurred often in other lessons. The same pattern of questioning, for example, was noticeable in Lesson 7 during a peer-description activity. In contrast to the previous example where the teacher did not get a response from the students, in this lesson, some students volunteered to describe their friends in front of the whole class. This suggests that the students were now ready to participate more freely in the classroom activity:

> T: Next, **who wants to be the volunteer to describe your friends or couple?** Yeah. **Who wants?** Yeah you? Here. Yeah come! *Ayok*, **Who wants to be the volunteer?**
>
> SS: (*Some students raised hands*)
>
> T: You, XXX and friends? (*mentioning a student's name*) Yeah, OK. Tell me! OK, listen to your friend! Listen to your friend! Yeah stand here! Attention.

c.   Checking comprehension of task procedures

The teacher also used procedural questions to check the student's comprehension of the task instructions. In Lesson 7, for example, the teacher asked 'do you understand?', 'do you understand about my order?', and 'do you understand about my instruction?' during a picture-matching task. These Yes/No questions served to ensure the students were able to perform a particular task:

> T: So yeah, your pen now not need; you don't need your pen now. Keep your pen. Close your pen. Close. Close. OK. This is the warming up to you, yeah. OK**, do you understand? Do you understand about my order, the instruction?** XXX, (*mentioning a student's name*) **do you understand about my instruction?**
> S: Yes

We can also find similar questions used in other lessons. During a listening activity in Lesson 12, for example, the teacher used procedural questions to check students' understanding ('do you get it?' and 'do you understand?'):

> T: You write here the missing...yeah, you write here the missing word, but you should match this with the lyric. OK, **do you get it? Do you understand?**
> SS: Yes

d.   Monitoring the performance of a task

The teacher also used procedural questions to check whether students had achieved the task outcome. In Lesson 1, for example, the teacher used prompts ('next, number...?' and 'number...?') to check whether his students were on track in the picture-matching task. The students responded correctly, and the teacher confirmed the correct answers:

> T: Six. This person works in a rice field. This person works in a rice field. OK, **next, number...?**
> SS: Seven
> T: Seven. This person writes books or novels. This person writes books or novels. OK, **number...?**
> SS: Eight.
> T: Eight.

In Lesson 7, the teacher used similar questions ('next, number...?' and 'what number now?') to monitor his students' performance of a picture-matching task. Such questions helped to ensure that the task proceeded smoothly:

> T: The baby is wearing slippers. Ehm, sorry, the boy. The boy wearing slippers. **Next, number...?**
>
> S: Twenty one
>
> T: Twenty one. **What number now, XXX**? (*mentioning a student's name*) Ha?
>
> S: Twenty one
>
> T: Twenty one. OK, listen! Listen! The man is wearing a cap. The man is wearing a cap.

e. Checking completion of a task

Finally, the teacher employed procedural questions to check if the students had finished a task. This type of questioning occurred over the four lessons in the form of Yes/No and W-H questions. At the end of a picture-matching activity in Lesson 1, for example, he used 'finished' and 'already' to see if the students had finished:

> T: The last number, this is a person who keeps your garden clean and tidy. This is a person who keeps your garden clean and tidy.
>
> T: OK, **finish?**
>
> SS: Yes
>
> T: OK. Collect. This is, yeah. **Already?**
>
> SS: (*noisy*)
>
> T: Can you collect the paper sheet? Yeah, collect the, collect the line. The paper.

In Lesson 12, the teacher asked whether the students had completed all the blanks in the song lyrics activity. The teacher first asked general questions ('you get all the word?' and 'who get all the word is true?') and then proceeded to ask more specific questions ('what is the first word?', 'number second?', 'the third?', and 'the forth?') to ensure that the students had identified all the words:

> T: OK, **you get all the word?**
>
> SS: Yes
>
> T: Yes? **Who get all the word is true?** All the word is true? OK, **what is the first word?**
>
> SS: Know
>
> T: Know. **Number second?**
>
> SS: I'll

T: I'll. **The third?**

SS: Teach

T: Teach. **The fourth?**

SS: Play

T: what?

SS: Play

T: Play.

These examples illustrate the teacher's use of procedural questions to keep the classroom routines and activities moving. It is also important to note that the teacher's procedural questions took the form of both Yes/No and W-H questions and were typically short – between one and six words, making it easy for the students to comprehend.

Teacher's use of information questions

In addition to the procedural questions, the teacher used information questions in the classroom discourse over the four lessons. I analysed his information questions by distinguishing whether they were referential or display. In each case, I list the purpose of the question and provide examples and a brief commentary on each type of question, indicating whether it is open/closed, Yes/No or W-H.

Use of referential questions

Over the four lessons, the teacher used referential questions about a particular entity or task. In this section, the teacher's questions were sometimes open (more than one answer was possible) and sometimes closed (only one answer was possible). I identified the different functions of the referential questions as follows:

a. Requesting a description

The teacher used referential questions to ask about pictures. For example, in the spot-the-differences task in Lesson 6, the teacher asked some students to provide further descriptions of a picture ('what about the eyes?' and 'what about the cheek?'). The students responded to the questions sometimes in full sentences ('the picture number one is... hazelnut. The picture number two is black') and sometimes with a single word ('black' and 'mole'). These open-ended W-H referential questions utilised a fixed frame with an open slot ('What about the ___?') which structured the students'

responses while at the same time allowing them to answer based on their own ideas:

> T: OK, next. Then **what about the eye? What about the eyes?**
>
> S1: The picture number one is... hazelnut. The picture number two is black
>
> T: Yeah, with the left first, yeah, this one. We try to describe this boy first. **What about the eyes?**
>
> S2: Black
>
> T: Black. Yeah, pure black.
>
> T: **And then what about the cheek?**
>
> S3: Mole
>
> S4: There are…there are mole
>
> T: Yeah, there are moles.Yeah...or fleck or spot.

This type of questioning frequently occurred in production tasks like the spot-the-difference task in Lesson 6. It did not occur in Lesson 1 (courier and secretary and picture-matching activities), Lesson 7 (picture-pointing and matching activities), and Lesson 12 (listening and writing activities) as these tasks did not provide a context for their use.

b.   Asking for personal information

There were instances over the four lessons where the teacher used referential questions to request personal information (i.e. information relating to students' own lives). In Lesson 6, after checking class attendance, the teacher addressed a student who had just returned to school after a long period of sickness. The extract below illustrates a number of strategies employed by the teacher to make the student talk. First, the teacher started with a W-H question ('how are you?') and switched to a Yes/No question ('can you walk now?') to prompt an answer. When this failed, the teacher used mime to demonstrate the meaning of the question ('can you walk...walk? can you?'). When this also failed, the teacher abandoned a line of questioning ('you don't know?'). Finally, the teacher accepted a minimal response from the student ('yes') in order to wrap up the exchange:

> T: Hey, **How are you?...**wah...long time since we meet yeah, long time no see. Yeah, **How are you? Can you walk now?**
>
> S: Ha?
>
> T: **Can you walk... walk? Can you?** (*demonstrating a walking person*)
>
> S: (*nodding*)
>
> T: So **what happened to you?**
>
> S: (*explaining in Indonesian with an indistinct voice*)

T: Ha? What is that? You don't know?

T: OK, but now **are you OK?** Yes? **Are you ready to study?**

S: Yes

T: Yeah, OK.

We can also see examples of this type of questioning in Lesson 12. During the introduction to a writing activity, the teacher asked his students questions about Mother's Day ('what is the special word to your mother?' and 'what do you do when mother's day is coming?'). These open WH questions received a good response from the students ('love you', 'kiss mum' and 'kiss my mum') indicating that this type of questioning helped to foster communication in the classroom. It is interesting to note that in both of these extracts, the talk did not centre around the designated tasks but on other topics of a personal or social nature:

T: So, **what is the special word to your mother?**

S1: Love you

T: **What are you doing? What are you doing? What do you do when...When mother's day is coming?**

S2: Kiss mum

S3: Kiss my mum

T: Yeah, kiss the mum and say thank you. You hug. Thank you, mum; I love you so much.

c. *Asking about factual information*

The last category was related to the teacher's use of referential questions to request factual information that he was confident they would know**.** An example of this type of questioning can be found in Lesson 12, when the teacher was reviewing the previous lesson about the description of places. In the extract below, the teacher asked a number of referential questions. First, he used W-H referential questions to ask his students whether they had been to a tourist site ('who ever go to Istana Maimun?' and 'who ever enter to Istana Maimun?'). Because nobody answered, the teacher then switched to asking a Yes/No referential question ('Do you know Istana Maimun?'). The students responded 'yes'. The teacher proceeded with a similar Yes/No referential question ('do you ever enter...go...go...there?'). When the student responded 'yes', the teacher asked another referential question ('what do you see?'). The student then gave an answer in Indonesian ('*Masjid Raya*'). As we can see, the teacher's first, second, third and fourth referential questions in this extract were of the closed type, whereas the last question constituted an open question:

> T: **Who ever go to *Istana Maimun*? Who ever enter to *Istana Maimun*?**
>
> SS: (*silent*)
>
> T: **Do you know *Istana Maimun*?**
>
> SS: Yes, know.
>
> T: **Do you ever enter...go... go there, XXX?** (*mentioning a student's name*)
>
> S1: Yes...
>
> T: **What do you see?**
>
> S1: *Masjid Raya*

This type of factual question was absent in Lessons 1, 6 and 7, but a similar pattern of questioning was found in Lesson 2 in the face-map task. Here, the teacher asked the students whether they had been to a tourist destination ('Have you been to Berastagi before?). The students responded 'yes', and the teacher then gave some information related to the tourist site:

> T: **Have you been to Berastagi before?**
>
> SS: Yes.
>
> T: Yes, it is the highland with cool weather and many fruits.

As we have seen from these examples, the teacher's use of referential questions over the four lessons served to request contextual, personal and factual information which was not known by the teacher. It is also interesting to note that the teacher's use of referential questions included both closed and open questions in the form of Yes/No and W-H questions. The students' responses to the teacher's referential questions in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 did not take the form of complete sentences as there was no communicative need.

Use of display questions

The third type of question employed by the teacher was display questions. In contrast to referential questions, which the teacher used to elicit real information from the students, display questions were employed by the teacher to check students' comprehension or knowledge of particular words or facts. Display questions served several functions as follows:

1. *Brainstorming a topic*

There were occasions when the teacher used information questions to introduce a topic. This type of questioning was noticeable in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12. It occurred in Lesson 1 in the pre-task stage during a brainstorming activity. Here, the teacher introduced the topic of people's jobs by asking students about their father's profession ('what is your father?'). A student was able to respond to the question using a complete sentence ('my father is businessman'). The teacher then used the student's answer to show the other students how they should respond by giving them a sentence frame with an open slot ('My father is ___?') and went on to use this to elicit further answers from the students in a way reminiscent of a structural drill:

> T: Ehm, XXX, (*mentioning a student's name*) **what is your father?**
> S1: My father is businessman.
> T: Yeah, my father is businessman. OK, a good answer is when I ask you, what is your father? You should answer by my father is civil servant, my father is businessman, my father is...? Others?
> S2: Teacher
> T: Yeah. My father is a teacher.
> S3: Soldier
> T: My father is...?
> S3: Soldier
> T: Soldier.

In Lesson 6, the teacher used students as models to introduce the day's topic (describing people). First, the teacher called two students to the front of the class and then invited the class to describe their friends ('who can describe about XXX?' and 'what about this?'). The students answered using single words ('fat', 'happy' and 'slim'). The teacher then encouraged other students to participate ('and then?' and 'others?'), and the students provided further answers ('tall', 'handsome', and 'clean'):

> T: XXX, yeah (*calling a student's name*). OK, and then one more, XXX (*calling another student's name*). Come here. Yeah. This is, yeah, your friend, two students with same uniform, but with different character. OK, yeah. **Who can describe about XXX?** (*pointing to a model student*)
> SS: Fat
> T: What? Fat? And then?
> S1: Tall. XXX (*mentioning a student's name*) tall
> T: Tall.
> T: **What about this?** (*pointing to another model student*)
> S2: (*indistinct voice*)
> T: What? Happy?

S2: Happy... slim

T: Others? Yeah. OK.

S3: Handsome

S4: XXX (*mentioning a student's name*) clean

This pattern of questioning was also found in Lesson 7. When introducing a task (people's appearances), the teacher used himself as a model ('you can describe what I'm wearing now?). When the student did not respond satisfactorily, the teacher provided an explanation, and then some students started to answer ('cap' and 'you have a white uniform'). When one student provided a wrong answer ('wear hat...tie'), the teacher used a prompt ('I'm wearing a...?'). The student tried to correct his/her utterance ('white'), but as it was still incorrect, the teacher finally provided the answer ('a cap'):

T: OK, now yeah. **You can describe what I'm wearing now?**

SS: (*indistinct voice*)

T: Ha? You can describe. OK? You can describe me, about my clothes or my uniform. OK, you can describe me by my uniform or my clothes or my... OK?

S1: Cap

S2: You have a white uniform and....

T: OK, one by one. You? Describe me.

S3: Wear hat...tie.

T: I'm wearing a .....?

S3: White

T: A cap.

As we have seen, the teacher's display questions were sometimes an open W-H question as in the first and second extracts and sometimes a closed Yes/No question as in the second extract.

2.   Checking comprehension of a word

The teacher used display questions over the four lessons in order to check whether or not the students had understood a particular word. An example can be seen in Lesson 6 during a spot-the-differences activity. The teacher checked the meaning of 'straight hair?', resulting in the students providing a translation in Indonesian and the teacher confirming he was correct:

T: Yeah, number one. Look at the picture.

T: **What is 'straight hair'?**

S: *Rambut lurus* (Indonesian for *straight hair*)

T: Yeah...*rambut lurus*.

Further evidence of the teacher's use of display questions in this way was found in Lesson 7 at the beginning of a lesson. In the extract below, the teacher posed a question ('you know warming up?'), and two students responded ('no' and 'yes, *pemanasan*').:

T: For the warming up. Yeah attention! For the warming up. **You know 'warming up'?**

S1: No

S2: Yes*, pemanasan* (Indonesian for *warming up*)

T: Warming up

S: Yes

T: *Pemanasan...Pemanasan,* yeah.

The teacher's display questions were of the closed type in these extracts.

3.   Recalling a fact

There were a few instances where the teacher used display questions to recall a recently-learned fact. An extract representing this type of question can be found in Lesson 1. The teacher asked students about a doctor's job when reviewing the day's lesson ('what the doctor do, does?'). A student answered in Indonesian ('*mengecek*'), and the teacher translated the student's answer into English, confirming it was correct. What is significant about this extract is that it was a display question that was open rather than closed:

T: So, **what the doctor do, does?**

S: M*engecek* (Indonesian for *checking)*

T: Yeah, the doctor checks your body, right? So, the doctor checks our...? Body. OK, are you clear?

SS: Clear

Further examples of this type of question were not found in Lessons 6, 7 and 12, but a similar example showed the teacher's use of open-ended display questions in Lesson 2. In the post-task stage, the teacher asked students to recollect some facts about cities that they had just learned about ('what information do you get from Berastagi?' and 'what do you know about Medan city?). After asking these questions, the teacher used strategies such as a clarification request (Ha?), corrective

feedback ('Ya there are' and 'fruit or fruits?') and a sentence frame with an open slot ('there are many _____?) to resolve communication problems. Some students were able to answer the teacher's questions ('there is many fruits' and 'the biggest city of *Sumatera Utara'*), but some others were unable to answer ('I don't know):

> T: No. OK, ya. So this is for the... how we can get the information about all, ya, about all information. Ya. We are talking about part of face, not only face but you know about the…? The name of the city. And then? The location of the city. The part of the city, the information about the city. **What do you know? What information do you get from Berastagi?**
>
> S1: (*indistinct voice*)
>
> T: Ha?
>
> S1: There is many fruits
>
> T: Ya, there are.
>
> S1: There are many fruits
>
> T: There are many...?
>
> SS: Fruits
>
> T: Fruit or fruits?
>
> SS: Fruits…fruits...fruits
>
> T: Fruits. Ya. OK, **what do you know about Medan city?**
>
> S2: The biggest city of *Sumatera Utara*.
>
> T: What do you know about Medan city?
>
> S3: I don't know
>
> T: You don't know?

4. *Testing student's knowledge*

The last purpose of the display questions used by the teacher was to test his students' factual knowledge. This type of questioning was evident in two extracts in Lesson 6 during a peer- and picture-description activity. In the first extract below, the teacher was asking questions ('who is taller?') about two students he had asked to come to the front of the class. In the second extract below, the teacher asked a student whether someone was wearing glasses ('is there any glasses?') in a picture. The teacher used a closed W-H question in the first extract and a closed Yes/No question in the second extract:

> T: The first is what?
>
> SS: Fat
>
> T: Fat?

SS: Fat and thin. Tall.

T: Tall? **Who is taller?**

S: XXX (*mentioning a student's name*)

T: XXX (*mentioning a student's name*) is taller. OK, taller.

=======

T: I said my picture is the boy is wearing glasses, and this is your picture. **Is there any glasses?**

S: No

T: No? Nah, you should write here, number... number one.

As these extracts show, it is clear that the teacher used display questions in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 to check whether the students had understood or were able to recall particular words. The display questions took the form of both Yes/No and W-H questions. Most of the display questions employed by the teacher were of the closed kind.

General findings

The procedural questions functioned to organise classroom routines and tasks. They were asked in the form of both Yes/No and WH questions and were typically short in length. The referential questions served the purpose of obtaining genuine information from the students. They took the form of both Yes/No and WH questions with open and closed question types. The display questions asked the students to provide information already known by the teacher using both Yes/No and W-H questions which were mainly of the closed type.

Table 31 below presents the frequency count of the procedural, referential, and display questions used by the teacher in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12.

Table 31

Frequency Count of All Question Types over Four Lessons

Type of Question	Lesson 1 N (%)	Lesson 6 N (%)	Lesson 7 N (%)	Lesson 12 N (%)
Procedural	121 (80.6%)	101 (58.7%)	124 (78.0%)	36 (66.6%)
Referential	7 (4.6%)	36 (20.9%)	5 (3.1%)	13 (24.1%)
Display	22 (14.7%)	35 (20.3%)	30 (18.8%)	5 (9.2%)

Total number of questions asked	150	172	159	54

The teacher's use of procedural and information questions (i.e. referential and display questions) is presented in Figure 3 below as a percentage of the teacher's total questions. As can be seen from Figure 3, the teacher's use of procedural questions dominated the classroom discourse over the four lessons. Figure 3 also shows that the number of referential and display questions varied considerably from one lesson to another. There was no evidence of any consistent change in their use over time.

Figure 3

Proportion of the Teacher's Use of Procedural, Referential, and Information Questions
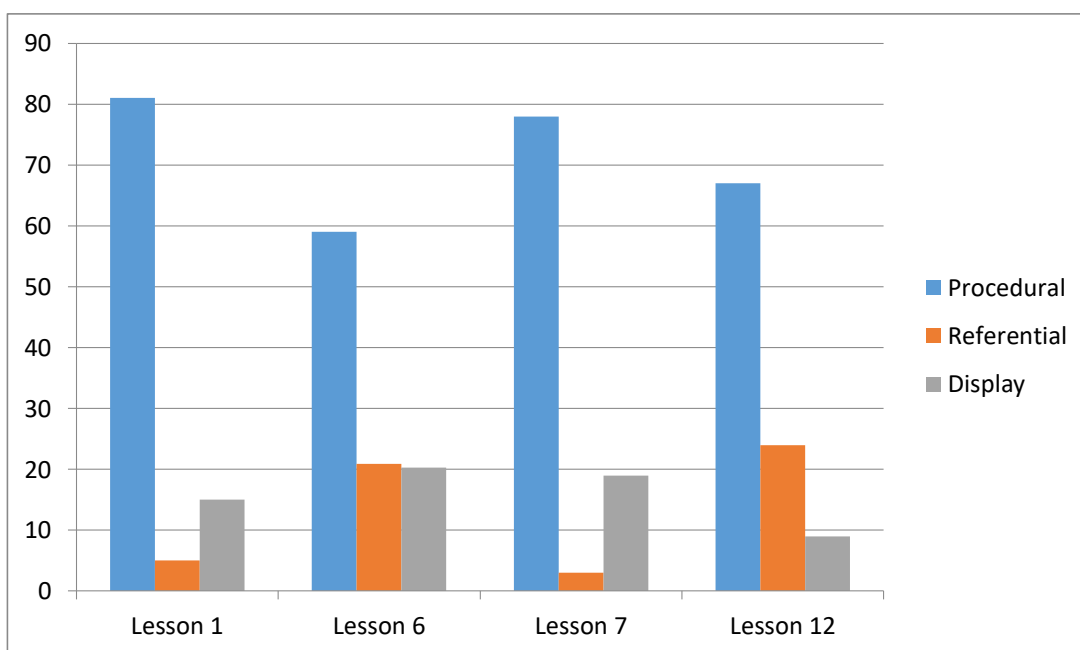
5.3.4 Focus on form

This section provides an analysis of 'focus on form' (Long, 1991) over the four lessons (Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12). Focus on Form (FonF) refers to a set of procedures where learners' attention is implicitly drawn to particular linguistic features within the context of communicative activities (Ellis, 2016). Focus on form contrasts with Focus on Forms (FonFs), a set of structural-based procedures in which specific linguistic forms are explicitly taught to students, usually in non-

communicative activities. In other words, Focus on Form caters to incidental learning of particular linguistic forms, whereas Focus on Forms aims at intentional learning of specific linguistic items. There are two important aspects of Focus on Form: Negotiation of Meaning (NoM) and Negotiation of Form (NoF). NoM refers to the strategies that a teacher uses to avoid or repair communication breakdowns, and NoF involves the communication strategies that a teacher employs even when there is no communication problem. In the literature, NoM is also referred to as conversational focus on form, and NoF is also called didactic focus on form (Ellis et al., 2001).

Focus on form can be preemptive or reactive. Preemptive focus on form refers to an attempt by the teacher or a student to attend to a particular linguistic form because it is (or is perceived to be) problematic. Reactive focus on form takes place when the teacher or another student responds to an erroneous utterance (or a perceived error) produced by a student. Teacher and student-initiated focus on form are typically preemptive. Reactive FonF is generally initiated by the teacher.

In this analysis, I identified a set of categories for NoM and NoF based on research on FoF (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and from a close reading of the lesson transcripts. These strategies are defined as follows (see also Table 32 below):

- Clarification Requests: the listener (teacher or student) sought clarity from the speaker (teacher or student) because the speaker's message was not clear or because the listener was focused on a particular linguistic item in the speaker's utterance.

- Repeating Instructions: the teacher repeated all or part of the task instructions to assist students' understanding of the task procedure.

- Comprehension Checks: the teacher checked students' comprehension by asking a question or for a translation.

- Recasts: The teacher implicitly corrected students' utterances by providing a correct version of the students' utterances either as a statement or as a confirmation check.

- Elicitations: The teacher explicitly elicited a correction from the student.

- Repetitions: The teacher highlighted the students' ill-formed utterances by repeating the utterance containing the error.

Table 32

Focus on Form Strategies

FoF strategies	Preemptive	Reactive
Negotiation of Meaning		
Clarification requests	-	Teacher and student
Repeating instructions	Teacher	-
Comprehension checks	Teacher	-
Recasts (e.g. confirmation check)	-	Teacher
Negotiation of Form		
Clarification requests	Teacher	-
Recasts	-	Teacher
Elicitations	-	Teacher
Repetitions	Teacher	-

Note. Adapted from "Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms," by R. Lyster & L. Ranta, 1997, *Studies in second language acquisition, 19*(1), p. 53 (https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197001034). Copyright 1997 by the Authors.

It is important to note that clarification requests and recasts were used for NoM and NoF depending on their function in the classroom interaction. For instance, a teacher's clarification request relating to a communication breakdown belongs to negotiation of meaning, but a teacher's clarification request about a specific linguistic item comes under negotiation of form. Similarly, a teacher may use a recast to resolve a communication problem in NoM – when it often takes the form of a confirmation check – or simply reformulate a student's erroneous utterance in NoF. The categories for NoM and NoF are explained below with examples from the classroom discourse (Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12).

Negotiation of Meaning

1. *Clarification requests (NoM)*

Examples of the clarification requests are taken from lessons 6, 7 and 12. The clarification requests presented below are both by the teacher and the students. In other words, in these examples, the listener (teacher or student) indicated that the speaker's message was not clear, and thus a clarification was sought. For the sake of clarity, the teacher's use of clarification requests will be presented first, followed by the student's use of clarification requests.

Teacher's use of clarification requests

In general, the teacher employed clarification strategies because he did not clearly hear what a student had said. In Lesson 6, in the spot-the-differences task, NoM took place on a number of occasions. For example, when the teacher was asking for volunteers to describe some pictures he drew on the board, he did not hear what the student had mentioned and requested clarification:

> T: How to say like this? (*pointing to a drawing on the board*)
> S: Flat nose
> **T: Ha?**
> S: Flat nose.
> T: Yeah

The teacher indicated that a repetition was needed ('Ha?'), and the student repeated his utterance, which was then confirmed by the teacher.

In Lesson 7, when the topic was people's appearances, the teacher's clarification requests are evident in several activities. For instance, when the teacher was inviting his students to describe what he was wearing, the students mentioned some words that he could not hear clearly and therefore asked for clarification:

> T: And then I use?
> SS: Belt
> **T: What is it?**
> SS: Belt..belt..
> T: And then?
> SS: Pen..pen...
> **T: Ha?**
> SS: Pen..pen.

Here, the teacher was unclear about the words 'belt' and 'pen' and sought clarity by saying 'what is it?' and 'ha?'. The students then repeated the unclear words 'belt' and 'pen'.

Teacher-initiated NoM in Lesson 12 (song lyrics) can only be seen in one activity. This took place when the teacher was checking his student's answers. When asking the answer to Number 4, the teacher requested clarification as he did not hear what the students had said:

> T: The fourth?
> SS: Play
> **T: What?**
> SS: Play
> T: Play

The teacher indicated non-understanding by using the word 'what?'. The student responded to this by repeating his utterance, and his repetition was confirmed by the teacher.

From the examples presented above, we have seen that the teacher did not use any clarification strategies in Lesson 1. I talked about this with the teacher in the post-lesson session. The teacher said that he was not familiar with clarification strategies and wanted to know how to use them. I then introduced the types of corrective feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) that the teacher could use to correct students. One of them was clarification requests. I also mentioned the importance of using clarification requests to repair communication problems and emphasised that the students could benefit acquisitionally from this strategy. The post-lesson discussion with the teacher resulted in a change in the teacher's use of clarification requests. It was clear that the teacher consistently used them to avoid or repair communication problems in Lessons 6, 7 and 12. It is also important to note that most of the clarification requests made by the teacher resulted in the students repeating the unclear words, indicating that the teacher had successfully dealt with the communication problems.

Student's use of clarification requests

As mentioned earlier, clarification requests in the classroom discourse were not only used by the teacher but they were also initiated by students. By and large, the students used clarification requests because they were not clear about the teacher's message.

The first extract involving student-initiated NoM can be seen in Lesson 6. When the teacher was describing some pictures in a spot-the-differences activity, a student checked whether the teacher

had said a particular word. The teacher responded to the student's question by repeating the target word ('moustache') and pointed to his lips:

> T: Moustache...This one...(*showing the picture card*)
> S: ***Sir....Tadi Sir bilang* moustache, Sir?** (Indonesian for *Did you say 'moustache', Sir?)*
> T: Yeah, moustache here...(*pointing upper lips' area*)

Another example of the student's use of NoM was found in Lesson 7. Here, when the teacher was introducing the task, a student asked for clarification. In response to the student's request for clarification ('ha?'), the teacher repeated the unclear word ('easy') and provided an additional explanation:

> T: We can start now, Yes? We can start now? OK. Yeah, for the warming up, I will...ehm we will give you the easiest material.
> S: **Ha? easy?**
> T: Easy for you to do it. Yeah, this is talking about how we can identify the word by listening.

My last example also comes from Lesson 7. While the teacher was giving the task instructions, a student requested clarification about the word 'piece' because he was unsure of its meaning. Here, the teacher responded by reformulating the sentence in which the target word occurred instead of providing the Indonesian translation of 'piece'":

> T: Yeah, nah, now, prepare a piece of paper, only a piece.
> S: **Piece *apa?*** (Indonesian for *what is the meaning of piece?*)
> T: Yeah. Take a piece of your paper from your book. Yeah, take a piece of paper.

As we have seen in these extracts, the students only used clarification requests in Lessons 6 and 7 with no evidence in Lesson 12. The student's absence of use of clarification requests in Lesson 12 might be due to the fact that they were by then quite familiar with the task activities and keywords. Despite their absence in Lesson 12, it is clear that the students engaged in negotiating for meaning when they had communication difficulties in Lessons 6 and 7.

2. Repeating instructions

Repetition of instructions constitutes a type of NoM because the teacher attempts to avoid or repair a communication problem that occurs when he was giving instructions about a task. Examples of

repeating instructions are taken from Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12. Over the four lessons, the teacher repeated the instructions to support students' comprehension of how to do a task.

In Lesson 1, for instance, the teacher repeated the task instructions in order to provide a clearer procedure about how to play the role of a courier in a courier and secretary activity:

> I will explain you again, for the courier**.** Yeah, you need to read about this job, yeah, OK. One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight. I will explain you again about the way of the games, yeah. The first, you need to read yeah, of course, number one. Read... the courier, and then go to your friend, tell it clearly. *Jelaskan sejelas-jelasnya...*(Indonesian for *describe it clearly)* until your friends, until your friends get what is the point, about the people jobs.

The teacher's repetition in this activity helped the students to perform the task better.

Other examples can be found in Lessons 6, 7 and 12 with similar purposes, i.e. the teacher repeated the task instructions when he found out that some students were still confused about what to do. For example, in Lesson 7, the teacher repeated the instructions in order to assist students' understanding of the picture-matching activity:

> **I will tell you again.** XXX, XXX (*calling two students' name*s) listen! When I read, tell, or describe the person here, the first you just point, right? Yeah, the second, on your paper, you write the letter...You just write here; you don't need to point again. You don't need to point again. OK, can we start now? Yeah. Can we start?

Again, it was evident that after the teacher repeated the task instructions, the students were able to carry out the task successfully.

From the examples above, it is clear that the teacher consistently repeated instructions to support the students' comprehension of the tasks over the four lessons. This might be because I constantly reminded the teacher in the post-lesson sessions (Lesson 1 up to Lesson 12) that the provision of task instructions is an important aspect of a task-based lesson and should be repeated if necessary to ensure smooth performance and completion of the task.

3.   Comprehension checks

The teacher checked student's comprehension in various ways, which included questions such as *Do you understand?, OK?, Do you get it?, Are you clear?, Any questions?, and Are you sure*?. The first example can be found in Lesson 1. During a brainstorming activity, the teacher performed a comprehension check:

> T: OK, when I ask you again, what is your father? It is talking about what's your father's job. **OK, you understand?**
> SS: Yes, Sir.

In this classroom dialogue, the students confirmed their understanding by responding 'yes'.

Another example can be seen in Lesson 6. Here, the teacher checked students' comprehension after he provided the descriptions from his picture card in a spot-the-differences activity:

> T: And then, he use pure yellow jacket without symbols. And then he wearing...ehm...he wears...he is wearing blue jeans and red...white and red shoes, **OK? You get it? Do you get it? Are you clear?**
> SS: Yes

Here, the students also responded 'yes' to the teacher's comprehension check. However, a 'yes' answer in this case was often ambiguous, as it was not clear whether the students had really understood or whether they responded simply to please the teacher.

In most cases, the students responded 'yes' to the teacher's comprehension checks. However, in the absence of an answer, the teacher provided an additional explanation. An example of this can be seen in Lesson 7, when the teacher was checking a student's level of understanding of his instructions. In this extract, the teacher provided an additional explanation in reacting to the student's silence:

> T: **OK, Do you understand? Do you understand about my order?** The instruction? ...XXX (*calling a student's name*), **do you understand about my instruction?**
> S1: (*silent*)
> T: You just point the picture, depend on mine, the description. Yeah, I will try first, yeah. This is for example, yeah. Number one. This is a man with moustache. This is a man with moustache.

As we have seen from the examples above, it is clear that the teacher regularly used comprehension checks over the four lessons. This indicates that the teacher was fully aware of the fact that students'

comprehension of the task procedure and keywords are central to the task performance and completion and thus monitored them throughout a lesson.

4. Recasts (NoM)

The teacher's use of recasts can occur in both a NoM and NoF. In NoM, a recast takes the form of a confirmation check of the student's deviant utterance when a communication problem arises. However, there were no examples of conversational recasts in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 – that is, when recasts were used, they were always in NoF.

Negotiation of Form

1. Clarification requests (NoF)

In contrast to the clarification requests involved in the negotiation of meaning part, the following examples show how the teacher tried to direct the student's attention to a particular linguistic feature (i.e. a specific word) even when there was no communication problem. An example can be seen in Lesson 6 when the teacher was inviting the students to describe their picture card in a spot-the-differences activity:

> SS: Suitcase
> T: Suitcase, *tas koper* (Indonesian for *suitcase)*. Yeah, why with the suitcase?
> S1: Star
> T: **Ha?**
> S1: Star
> T: Oh, there is a star...OK...

In this example, the teacher understood what the student said but still asked for clarification ('ha?') to push the student to reformulate his utterance. However, the student failed to do so, and the teacher ended up reformulating the student's utterance ('there is a star').

Another example was also found in Lesson 6 during the spot-the-differences activity. When a student was describing his picture card, he was stuck for a word. The teacher realised this and asked for clarification (how to say?) to push the student to try to complete his sentence. The student was

then able to recall the target word ('hairband'), and the teacher confirmed the correct word:

> S: and he is wearing a red...ehm...(*silent)*
>
> T: Ehm...? **How to say?**
>
> S: Hairband
>
> T: Yeah.

As we have seen, the teacher's use of clarification strategies (NoF) was only evident in Lesson 6. The students made no clarification requests directly at specific linguistic items in Lessons 1, 7 and 12. Perhaps the teacher used didactic clarification requests in Lesson 6 because of the nature of this lesson (individual describing activity), which did not create opportunities for the teacher to clarify students' problematic utterances.

2. Recasts (NoF)

Recasting refers to the teacher's effort to correct his students' error indirectly by supplying a correct version of the utterance or by reformulating an utterance. A recast was apparent in a spot-the-differences activity in Lesson 6 when the teacher was asking for volunteers to describe some pictures on the board. The teacher provided a correct grammatical form when recasting the student's ill-formed utterance:

> T: About the picture, the first. Who wants to be the volunteer? Yeah, you
>
> S: Frame picture two
>
> T: What?
>
> S: Frame picture two, ehm...**more biggest** than picture one
>
> T: **Bigger** (*recasting the student's utterance*) OK...

This example involves both a clarification request and a recast. The clarification request occurred when the teacher indicated non-understanding by using the question word 'what?'. The recast is clearly negotiation of form as the teacher understood but decided to correct 'more biggest' as 'bigger'.

Another example representing the teacher's use of recasts can be seen in the following dialogue in Lesson 6:

> T: And then what about the cheek?

S: Mole

S: There are...**there are mole**

T: Yeah, **there are moles** (*recasting the student's utterance*)

In this picture-describing activity, the teacher corrected the student's error in the use of plural forms ('there are moles').

Similarly, the teacher's recasting of a student's utterance was also apparent in Lesson 7, where the teacher indirectly dealt with the students' lexical error – the use of 'be' where 'have' is needed - during a describing activity:

S1: My friend's full name is XXX (*mentioning a student's name*). She is taller. She is 12 years old; **she is** pointed nose

T: She has....? (*recasting part of the student's utterance*)

S1: Pointed nose

T: Pointed nose. OK, good.

As we have seen, the teacher's recasting of the students' deviant utterances was evident over these two lessons indicating that he was accustomed to using it in his regular teaching.

3. Elicitations

In addition to recasts, the teacher used elicitations as a didactic strategy in his teaching. An elicitation differs from a recast in that it is explicit. An elicitation occurs when the teacher asks students to reformulate an erroneous utterance. Examples of the teacher's elicitations can be found in Lessons 1, 6 and 7 when he tried to elicit specific linguistic forms from the students. The students were generally able to respond by giving the desired answer. In Lesson 1, for example, the teacher elicited a correct response from the student during a brainstorming activity:

T: Yeah, it is just the same question, what is your father? What is, and what are...when someone ask you what are you? **You say, I am......?**

SS: I am a student

T: I am a student. Yeah, because your job now is a......?

SS: Student

When he was asking the students to describe their picture in Lesson 6, the teacher elicited a response by pausing to allow a student to complete his utterance. The student answered correctly, and the teacher confirmed his correct answer:

> T: Yeah. Let's say together about your picture. One, two, three. What is the first?
> S1: He is...he is not wearing... He is wearing a red…Eh, he is wearing a red hairband.
> T: Red hairband...Hairband. OK, next?
> S2: She is not wearing....blablabla
> T: OK, wait.. Not...**Not wearing.......?**
> S2: Overall
> T: Overall

Elicitation also occurred in Lesson 7 when the teacher was inviting his students to describe their friends:

> S: She is longer.
> T: **She is.....?**
> S: Longer....*Panjang* (Indonesian for *long*)
> T: **Longer?**
> S: Longer
> T: Yeah, **it's tall**. You can say **tall**, yeah. Yeah.

Here, we can see that the teacher used elicitation and repetition in the same episode. The elicitation took place when the teacher said 'she is...?' to let the student correct part of his sentence. However, the student supplied the same ill-formed word ('longer'). In response to this, the teacher then used repetition to indicate that it was not the desired word ('longer?'). When the student repeated the same erroneous word ('longer'), the teacher provided the correct word ('tall').

It is, however, interesting to note that the teacher used an elicitation in Lesson 1 before I held a post-lesson session with him. This may be because elicitation is a common corrective feedback strategy used in traditional language teaching.

4. Repetitions

The last NoF strategy that the teacher employed in the classroom discourse was repetition. This strategy occurred on three different kinds of occasions: 1) when the teacher repeated the students'

error and adjusted his intonation to highlight the student's erroneous utterance, 2) when the teacher repeated a student's correct utterance and, 3) when the teacher repeated his own utterance. Some extracts representing the teacher's repetitions are taken from Lessons 1, 6 and 7. For example, when checking the students' answers at the end of Lesson 1, the teacher repeated the word 'cooker', highlighting that the utterance was incorrect. Initially, he repeated the students' erroneous utterance ('cooker?') and then repeated the students' correct utterance ('chef') to indicate approval of the word:

> T: Nah, this is a person whose job is to cook and prepare food in restaurant.
> SS: Cooker
> **T: Cooker?**
> SS: Chef
> T: Chef

In Lesson 6, during a picture-describing activity, the teacher also used a repetition strategy. The teacher demonstrated two types of repetition. First, the teacher repeated the words 'afro' and 'curly', indicating that they were not the intended words, and afterwards, he repeated his own utterance ('kinky') to indicate that it was the correct word.

> T: Yeah. How to say?
> S: Afro
> **T: Afro?** Others?
> S: Curly
> **T: Curly?**
> T: Ya, you may say kinky. Yeah kinky.
> S: Kinky

Another example of the teacher's use of repetition can be seen in Lesson 7. In an activity where the teacher was inviting volunteers to describe their friend, he repeated the students' error ('fat?') without correcting the utterance.

> SS: Fat
> **T: Fat?** Others?
> S: Chubby

General findings

Based on the analysis on focus on form above, some important points emerged:

1. Table 33 below shows the frequency of the different strategies that the teacher used to negotiate for meaning and form. As can be seen from Table 33, some major characteristics of NoM and NoF included the following:

   a. The most common type of negotiation used by the teacher over the four lessons was negotiation of meaning with 77 sequences in comparison to the negotiation of form with only 24 sequences,

   b. It is also clear from the table that the teacher used clarification requests mainly in NoM and that the students used clarification requests only to negotiate for meaning,

   c. Another important feature was that the teacher used recasts only in NoF.

Table 33

Frequency Count of FoF Strategies over Four Lessons

Strategies	Lesson 1	Lesson 6	Lesson 7	Lesson 12	Total
Negotiation of Meaning					
Clarification requests: -teacher	none	5	5	1	11
-student	none	1	2	none	3
Repeating instructions	5	10	3	3	21
Comprehension checks	22	8	7	5	42
Recasts (e.g. confirmation check)	none	none	none	none	0
Negotiation of Form					
Clarification requests -teacher	none	3	none	none	3
Recasts	none	3	2	1	6

| Elicitations | 1 | 4 | 2 | none | 7 |
| Repetitions | 3 | 2 | 3 | none | 8 |

5. There were some changes in the teacher's use of FoF strategies over the four lessons. For instance, the teacher's use of conversational clarification requests was absent in Lesson 1 but frequently occurred in Lessons 6, 7, and 12. Another change occurred in the teacher's repetition of instructions which decreased in number after Lesson 6 (five times in Lesson 1, 10 times in Lesson 6, and three times in Lessons 7 and 12), indicating that over time the students had grown used to the task-based procedures and therefore the teacher's repetition of instructions was not needed. There was also an interesting change in the teacher's use of recasts, elicitations and repetitions. While the teacher used these strategies in three lessons (Lessons 1, 6 and 7), there was no evidence that the teacher used them in the final lesson (Lesson 12). This was possible probably because the nature of tasks in Lesson 12 (listening, discussing and writing activities) did not provide a context for recasts, elicitations and repetitions.

6. The conversational clarification requests were all reactive in nature, i.e. they occurred because a participant (teacher or student) had said something unclear and another participant (teacher or student) responded. The didactic clarification requests were also reactive, and they occurred when the teacher reacted to a linguistic form uttered by the student that was unclear (or was perceived to be unclear).

7. The teacher's repetition of instructions and comprehension checks were all preemptive, indicating that the teacher repeated instructions and checked comprehension because of his need to avoid or repair communication problems during task performance/completion, not because he was responding to the students' linguistic errors.

8. The teacher's use of recasts in NoF constituted a habitual teaching strategy to deal with errors in the students' utterances.

9. While the teacher's elicitation and repetition could be both preemptive and reactive, his use of elicitations and repetitions was mainly reactive. The teacher elicited a correct form from the student in reaction to a student's error, and he repeated the student's utterance to draw attention to a problematic utterance.

5.4 An analysis of trainer's reflective journal

This section focuses on my reflective comments on the teacher's implementation of task-based language teaching in his classroom. The data source for this analysis were 12 journal entries written

by myself (the trainer) after each lesson. My reflective journal entries, which outlined the important activities that had taken place during the classroom interactions, were used to triangulate with the classroom observation findings. The journal was based on Gibb's (1988) reflection model, which consists of five major aspects of a class observation: Description, Feelings, Evaluation, Analysis, and Conclusion. The analysis of the reflective journal entries aimed at providing an evaluation of the extent to which the teaching innovation was progressing (Daloglu, 2001; Francis, 1996) and to what extent the teacher's classroom practices provided evidence that a particular task had 'worked', that the teacher and students were able to manage a task, and that focus on form had occurred.

To analyse the data, I first read through the 12 reflective journal entries and identified main themes and subtopics in each theme. Based on the main themes, which covered pre-task activities, main-task activities, post-task activities and general activities, I identified what I saw as positive and negative aspects of the teacher's lessons. I then proceeded to make a list of different aspects that provided evidence of the teacher's understanding of task-based language teaching. I then selected five prominent aspects and extracted examples from the journal to illustrate them. Finally, I identified changes that took place in the teacher and students over time.

The five aspects that I chose are as follows:

- Introducing the topic of a task: The teacher introduced a topic to students by activating their knowledge about the topic in the pre-task stage.
- Teaching strategies: the teacher's use of comprehension checks, clarification questions, repetitions, Indonesian, asking for volunteers, and scaffolding production.
- Students' responses: How the students responded to the tasks given by the teacher.
- Corrective feedback: The strategies used by the teacher to correct his students' ill-formed utterances.
- Extension activities: Activities carried out by the teacher to extend the main task.

5.4.1 Introducing the topic of a task

The first important aspect of the teacher's lessons was how he introduced the topic of a task. My journal entries showed that the teacher made an effort to activate students' schematic knowledge before asking them to perform tasks. In my reflective journal for Lesson 3, for instance, I wrote:

> The teacher introduced the topic of a picture story by helping the students see the key concept of the story (how a flood happens). He drew some pictures on the board, such as a forest, a person cutting

trees and a flood and asked students to connect one picture with another. The students responded well by making comments about the pictures. I was happy to see the teacher was able to stimulate students' thinking about the task topic and to see the students spontaneous participation.

This strategy helped establish topic familiarity, which "may have a positive impact on motivation" (Ellis et al., 2019, p. 221). I could see that the teacher was helping the students to be more prepared for the main task. Given the advantages of familiarising students with the task topic, I suggested the teacher carry on with this technique in the next lesson.

Another technique the teacher used was to ask questions and give examples. Here are my reflective comments on Lesson 9:

> The teacher introduced the topic of a street map by providing the students with some personal examples and using questions (*e.g. I want to go to the school parking lot because I left my wallet there. So, I walk out of the classroom and turn left. Then I go down the stairs. On my right, I can see a classroom. On my left, what can I see? Then where should I go? Straight or left?*). The students responded well by actively answering the teacher's questions. It was good to see the teacher's ability to develop ideas about the task topic and to witness students getting connected with the topic. After the teacher introduced the task topic, I could see that the students were ready and confident to perform the street-map task. Therefore, I thought that the teacher should continue using this kind of warm-up activity in the future.

I commented on the teacher's use of schemata building techniques in Lessons 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11. Over the nine lessons, the teacher used different ways of introducing the topic of a task. The most dominant type was the use of questioning (Lessons 1, 4, 9, 11), followed by the use of students as models (Lessons 6 and 8), the use of drawings (Lesson 3), self-modelling (Lesson 7) and word-mapping (Lesson 10). In general, all these techniques helped prepare the students for the main task, and I could see that the teacher demonstrated increasing confidence in carrying out the activities. However, there were no introductory activities in Lessons 2, 5 and 12, which may have been because he thought that the students were already familiar with the task topics. This is my reflective comment about Lesson 5:

> The teacher did not introduce the topic in this lesson (output-based picture composition) because the topic was similar to the topic given in Lesson 3 (input-based picture composition). It was apparent that the students were already familiar with the task topic and thus prepared to perform the main task.

5.4.2 Teaching strategies

The second aspect of the teacher's performance that I looked at was the teaching strategies that he used to make the tasks work. From Lessons 1 up to 12, the teacher employed different strategies to support the performance of tasks. These teaching strategies are presented below with comments from my reflective journal entries:

1.   Use of comprehension checks

Over the 12 lessons, the teacher checked his students' comprehension of the task procedures and content. We can see this, for example, in my reflective comments on Lesson 8:

> The teacher checked students' understanding in this lesson about people's jobs by either checking their level of comprehension or testing their knowledge of a particular word/concept. He did this throughout the lesson, for example, when reviewing the previous lesson (*Do you know pacifier? For a baby who wants to drink like this*), before the performance of the main task (*OK, any question about this before we start?*) and when reviewing the day's lesson (*Now, I give you the job and you describe the work. Like what? For example, teacher. teacher is the man or the woman who teach in the class. OK? You understand?*).

Research has shown that checking comprehension in real time (i.e. while the teacher is teaching) engages students and helps teachers identify comprehension problems (Fisher & Frey, 2014; Rosenshine, 2012). From my classroom observation, it was clear that the teacher's use of comprehension checks helped keep the students on task and assisted their understanding of the task. It was noticeable that the teacher regularly used comprehension checks over the 12 lessons in pre-task, main-task and post-task activities. The most dominant type of comprehension check he used was asking Yes/No questions (e.g. *Do you understand?, Are you clear?, and Do you have any questions*?) followed by Yes/No and W-H word-checking questions (e.g. *Do you know 'person'?, what is 'skinny'?, what does 'diapers' mean?*).

However, it must be noted that asking comprehension questions did not always result in the teacher knowing that the students had really understood. There were instances (e.g. Lessons 6, 7, and 8) where the students responded 'yes' to the teacher's comprehension questions even though it was clear they had not understood. I thought this was probably either because they wanted to please the teacher or because they did not want to look foolish in front of other students.

2. *Use of clarification requests*

Another pedagogic strategy that the teacher used to make the tasks work was requesting clarification from the students about unclear utterances. My reflective journal entries for Lesson 4, for instance, commented on the teacher's use of clarification requests:

> In this lesson (people's activities), the teacher used clarification requests to indicate that the students' messages were unclear and needed them to repeat. He used a lot of clarification prompts during the performance of the word-guess task, especially when he was not clear about what the students said when describing or guessing an activity. It was also apparent that the teacher used this strategy in the pre-task stage when introducing topics and in the post-task stage when conducting an extension activity.

The teacher's clarification requests took the form of clarification prompts such as ' 'What?', 'What is that?', 'What you say?', and 'Ha?'. As with comprehension checks, the teacher's use of clarification strategies was evident in all the lessons except in Lesson 1. Here is my comment about this lesson:

> There were two tasks in this lesson about people's jobs: a courier and secretary task and a picture-matching task. The first task involved a combination of output-based and input-based activities (the courier retold the information stuck on the wall to his secretary in his/her own words). The second task was purely input-based as it required the students to match pictures based on the teacher's descriptions. The teacher did not use any clarification requests in the first task because it was a student-student activity, and he did not ask for clarification in the second task because it did not involve student production. However, I could see that clarification requests frequently occurred among the students during the performance of the courier and secretary activity, i.e. the secretary (as an information receiver and writer) asked for clarification from the courier (as an information carrier and conveyor) because the message being transferred was not clear. However, the students did not ask for clarification from the teacher in the second task, perhaps because they were not yet attuned to doing so.

The use of clarification requests is advocated by second and foreign language researchers (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Sheen and Ellis, 2011). I noted that the teacher's ability to address miscommunication in the classroom, which demonstrated his clear grasp of TBLT methodology, resulted in the students responding to his clarification requests by trying to reformulate their unclear utterances.

3. Use of repetitions

There were many instances where the teacher used repetitions in the 12 lessons. For example, in my reflective comments on Lesson 3, I wrote:

> The teacher repeated the task instructions for this lesson (picture composition) to help students who were still confused about what to do. It was clear to me that the teacher was responsive to the students' lack of comprehension.

The importance of repeating instructions to assist students' comprehension is widely accepted by ESL/EFL experts and practitioners (e.g. Scrivener, 2011, Sowell, 2017). During my observation in the classroom, I found out that the teacher's use of repetition of instructions helped repair comprehension problems about task procedures.

In addition to repeating the task instructions, I noted that the teacher often repeated task descriptions. Here are my reflective comments about Lesson 7:

> The teacher repeated the stimuli in the input-based task about people's appearances to help the students' complete the picture-matching task. He repeated the job descriptions if the students did not understand. It was noticeable that the teacher managed to overcome his students' comprehension difficulties during the task performance by repeating the task descriptions whenever necessary (e.g. *OK, listen! Listen! The man is wearing a cap. The man is wearing a cap*). The teacher's repetition of the descriptions also helped the students to perform and finish the task. While I suggested that the teacher keep doing this strategy in the following lessons, I also mentioned the importance of using an audible voice when providing the task descriptions to avoid students' non-understanding.

The use of repetition in task instructions was apparent in Lessons 1 up to 12. In addition, the teacher repeated the task descriptions in Lessons 1, 2, 3, 7 and 9. These lessons involved input-based tasks (e.g. picture-matching tasks) that provided contexts for the use of repetition when the teacher saw the students were not comprehending.

4. Use of the L1

As I have already shown, examples of the teacher's use of the L1 can be found throughout the 12 lessons. I wrote about the significance of this strategy in Lesson 8:

In this lesson (people's jobs), the teacher made strategic use of the students' mother tongue to support his use of the L2. When a student was at loss for words to describe his picture, the teacher tried to help him/her by first speaking in English and then resorting to Indonesian to make his explanation easier to understand (e.g. *Make another explanation. Describe again with another word. Jelaskan again. Jelaskan again*).

Although the use of the target language is needed for acquisition, the use of the L1 in the classroom should not be forbidden as it can also facilitate L2 learning (De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009). In this regard, I could see that the teacher's use of the L1 helped the students better understand his explanation, and thus I continuously supported the teacher's use of it with one important caution: he should only use the L1 when there was a need to do so and to the minimum extent needed (e.g. translating keywords). I noted that in the first two lessons (Lessons 1 and 2), the teacher made excessive use of the L1, often translating complete sentences. In Lessons 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10 and 11, the teacher restricted his use of translation to keywords. In Lessons 7 and 12, he used only English throughout the lessons. I commented about this absence of the L1 in my journal entry for Lesson 12:

The teacher's use of English in this lesson (song lyrics) was dominant. On the one hand, I was pleased to witness the teacher's attempt to expose his students to the target language maximally. On the other hand, I was worried that his overuse of the L2 might cause comprehension problems. However, as I observed the whole activity in this lesson, I did not see any communication breakdowns between the teacher and students. This may have been because the students were already familiar with the keywords used in the task procedures and content.

5. Asking for volunteers

The fifth key pedagogic strategy I looked at involved the teacher asking for volunteers. Instead of nominating students, the teacher asked whether some students were ready to participate in a task activity. Here is an example in an extract from my journal entry for Lesson 11:

This lesson was about describing places through the use of pictures. When students had finished discussing their pictures in groups, the teacher invited volunteers to present their discussion results to the class.

Research suggests that providing opportunities for students to self-select or volunteer makes students feel more comfortable in expressing their opinions (Radford et al., 2006). From my

observation, it was clear that the strategy of asking for volunteers helped the students feel comfortable. This indicates that requesting volunteers to participate is a better choice than calling out a particular student's name, which can cause anxiety and reluctance to speak.

My reflective comments on the 12 lessons showed that the teacher regularly employed the strategy of asking for volunteers except in Lessons 1 and 2. Here are my comments about Lesson 2:

> As in Lesson 1, the teacher's way of asking for participation in this lesson was to nominate students by name. I wondered about the effectiveness of this practice as there was no chance for the students to self-select, and they were placed in a passive responding role. It was apparent that nominating students not only made the nominated student uneasy but also created anxiety among other students as they knew that their names would be the next to be called. I decided to discuss this with the teacher.

Despite the benefits of asking for volunteers, this strategy did not always work. In Lesson 9, during an extension activity, for example, the teacher did not get an immediate response from his students the first time he asked for volunteers to give directions about a street map. This may have been because they were not confident about what to do. To deal with this problem, the teacher used himself as a model to demonstrate the task and then went back to asking for volunteers. The students were finally ready to take part in the activity. I saw the need for the teacher to not rely exclusively on asking for volunteers but also to use other strategies to encourage participation.

6. Scaffolding students' production

There were instances in the classroom discourse where the teacher helped the students speak up by modelling what to say or providing keywords. My reflective journal entry for Lesson 4, for instance, talked about this scaffolding:

> In this lesson (people's activities), the teacher demonstrated some scaffolding techniques to enhance his students' productive ability. For example, before the performance of the word-guess task, he encouraged his students to use the target language to describe the pictures. Nevertheless, he allowed them to use some Indonesian at the same time. The teacher also used himself as a model to demonstrate how the describing activity should be done. During the task performance, the teacher assisted the students with some keywords when they were stuck for words.

I could see that the teacher's use of scaffolding helped engage the students in the word-guess activity and enhanced their performance of the task. This was evident in Lessons 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11 because

these lessons involved output-based tasks. The importance of scaffolding in helping learners to communicate in the target language is recognised in the educational literature (e.g. Hartman, 2002, McKenzie, 2000).

5.4.3 Students' responses

Another critical aspect of the classroom interactions had to do with the students' responses to the tasks. In general, the tasks were at the right level for the students, and the students responded well. However, there were instances where the students found the task too easy or too difficult. My reflective comments for Lesson 2 described a lesson where the task was too easy:

> In this lesson (face-map), the teacher provided a picture-matching activity for the students in which they had to identify places on a map that looked like a human face. The students had no problems in understanding and performing the task as they were familiar with the vocabulary for parts of the face. Even though the task was a bit too easy for these students, I thought it still worked for them. I could see that they enjoyed the lesson not only because it was a strange map but also because the teacher presented it in an interesting way (i.e. asking some personalised questions when providing the task instructions or referring to particular places, such as *Do you like dodol? Tanjung Pura is famous for its dodol*). It was also rewarding to see that the teacher managed to organise the task into three phases: pre-task, main-task and post-task. In other words, although this was the teacher's second task-based lesson, he had demonstrated an understanding of TBLT methodology. I must acknowledge that I had provided the teacher with this task, but as with the other tasks that the teacher and I agreed to deliver (task as a work plan), we would not know whether those tasks were too easy or too difficult until the teacher taught them in the classroom (task as process). I discussed this with the teacher, and we agreed on the importance of adjusting the tasks based on the students' level.

In contrast, the students did not respond well to the particular task in Lesson 10 because the language input in the task was too complex. Here is what I said in my journal:

> There were two group work tasks in this lesson (describing animals). The first task was courier and secretary, and the second one involved a summary and presentation. I found out that both tasks were problematic for the students. In the first task, the couriers from each group were asked to go outside the classroom to choose four small papers containing relevant information about their chosen animal. Then they were supposed to go back to their secretary (group members) and hand in the correct papers. Although the students were familiar with the first task as it was similar to the task in Lesson 1, they had difficulties in performing it because the language used in the written input was too complex for the students (e.g. *Physical Description: They have strong, compact bodies and powerful*

forelegs, teeth and jaws for pulling down and killing prey. Their coats are yellow-gold, and adult males have shaggy manes that range in color from blond to reddish-brown to black. The length and color of their mane are likely determined by age, genetics and hormones). As a result, the couriers had difficulty in understanding the language on the paper and thus were unsure about what information to give to their group members. Although the language was too difficult for the students to handle, the teacher tried to help with some keywords, and this provision of keywords eventually helped them complete the first task. The language barrier that the students experienced in the first task seemed to influence their participation in the second task, in which each group had to summarise the main points based on the information written on the papers and present them to the class using their own words. To assist the performance of the second task, the teacher provided an example of how the summary notes should be delivered and then asked for volunteers. Some students volunteered to indicate that the teacher's example helped them understand and complete the second task.

The literature on task-based language teaching refers to the importance of selecting and sequencing the tasks appropriately (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Long, 2015; Prabhu, 1987; Robinson, 2001). In my reflective journal entries for Lessons 2 and 10, I highlighted an important point about the tasks in these lessons: We need to ensure that the tasks are at the right level of difficulty in terms of input (e.g. short sentences, simple sentences, and complex sentences), task type (e.g. information-gap, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap), and topic (e.g. family, school, and community).

5.4.4 Corrective feedback

The third prominent aspect in my journal was the teacher's use of Corrective Feedback (CF). The teacher employed several strategies to correct his students' erroneous sentences, such as recasts, elicitations or repetitions. Here are my comments on Lesson 6:

> It was interesting to see that in this lesson (picture differences), the teacher employed correction strategies in response to his students' utterances that contained an error during a describing activity. He used a recast to implicitly correct the students' deviant utterances (e.g. *S: More biggest T: Bigger*). He used an elicitation by explicitly requesting a student to correct an erroneous utterance (e.g. S: *She is not wearing...(silent) T: Not wearing...? S: Overall T: Overall, OK*). Moreover, he used a repetition to direct his students' attention to their ill-formed utterances (e.g. *S: Afro T: Afro? S: Curly).*

As this extract shows, the teacher's use of recasts did not generate learner uptake because it was input-providing CF (i.e. the teacher had provided the student with the correct form). On the other

hand, the other feedback types (repetitions and elicitations) promoted student-generated repairs as they were output-prompting (i.e. the students were pressured to correct their own utterances).

5.4.5 Extension activities

I observed the teacher carrying out a number of extension activities over the 12 lessons. In Lesson 12, for example, the teacher used a writing activity to extend a listening/speaking activity. Here are my comments in my reflective journal:

> The topic of this lesson was a song entitled 'Daddy'. During the performance of the main task, the students were paired and listened to the song. One student had a paper with blanks, and the other had a paper with answers. They could not see each other's paper. They worked in pairs to complete the missing words by talking to each other. The main task went well. Afterwards, the teacher extended the main task with a writing activity in the post-task stage. In this activity, the teacher asked his students to write a short letter to their father on Father's Day. Beforehand, he discussed with the students about Mother's Day and Father's Day and provided an example of how to write a short letter.

It was apparent that the students were actively engaged in the extension activity. They gave their opinions about Mother's Day and Father's Day, and they looked excited about writing the short letter. It was satisfying to see that the teacher was becoming more skilled in organising post-task activities that provided students with more opportunities to communicate in the target language. This additional activity helped to reinforce and develop the language used in the main task, as evident in the students' response to the activity. As Ellis (2006) pointed out, post-task activities "can serve a crucial role in ensuring that the task performance is maximally effective for language development" (p. 20).

The teacher's use of extension activities was absent in Lesson 1 but noticeable from Lesson 2 up to Lesson 12. The absence may have been because Lesson 1 was the teacher's first task-based lesson, and thus the teacher was unfamiliar with extension activities and how to carry them out. The teacher's extension activities took the form of writing, speaking and similar task activities. However, I noted that was no evidence that the teacher addressed the language problems that arose in the main task in the post-task stage of a lesson.

5.4.6 General findings

From my reflective comments above, several key points are presented as follows:

1. By introducing the topic of a task, the teacher was able to activate his students' knowledge about the task topic. However, in cases where students were already acquainted with the topic, introductory activities were not necessary.

2. The use of teaching strategies helped the teacher make the tasks work. However, some of the strategies, such as checking comprehension, were more effective if used in combination with other strategies, such as modelling, to ensure a smooth performance of tasks.

3. Most of the tasks taught by the teacher were at the right level. Although Lesson 2 proved somewhat easy and Lesson 10 difficult for the students, it was evident that the teacher used appropriate teaching strategies to make the tasks work for the students in these two lessons.

4. The teacher used recasts as input-providing corrective feedback and used elicitations and repetitions as output-prompting corrective feedback.

5. Extension activities helped to provide opportunities to expose students to the target language, but the teacher did not directly address language problems in the post-task stage.

5.5 Discussion

As pointed out in Chapter 5, teachers play an essential role in leading an educational innovation like TBLT (Van den Branden, 2016). Their expertise in utilising task-based language teaching is crucial in determining its success (Long, 2016). This expertise includes an understanding of what a task is and what it involves, an ability to design and select appropriate tasks for students, a recognition of the roles that a teacher should play in TBLT, a familiarity with the strategies needed to negotiate for meaning and provide feedback and an ability to evaluate whether certain tasks work as intended. These skills are considerable and, in fact, more demanding than those required for traditional structural-based teaching. It is for this reason that many EFL teachers find it challenging to introduce TBLT. In addition, a number of contextual constraints inhibit the implementation of TBLT in Asia, including in Indonesia (Butler, 2011, Fachrurrazy, 2000; Griffiths, 2001; Littlewood, 2007). These impediments include learner-related factors (e.g. low command of the target language, dominant use of the native language, and preference for form-focused instruction), institution/classroom-related factors (e.g. big class sizes, grammar-based examinations, and unavailability of resources), and sociocultural-related factors (e.g. conflicting educational values and teaching beliefs).

Therefore, to address the problems surrounding the implementation of TBLT, a professional development programme for TBLT teachers is needed (Ellis, 2017; Lai, 2015; Long, 2016; Van den Branden, 2006; Zhu, 2020). It is in this spirit that my task-based programme was developed. Overall, it aimed to gain insights into assisting teachers in innovating with task-based language teaching. To this end, I formulated four research questions to help me determine the effectiveness of the programme in enabling a teacher to implement TBLT.

This section discusses the research findings for Research Question 1. In this section, I will discuss the extent to which the teacher was able to design a task-based syllabus and implement it in his own classroom and conclude with a general discussion on Long's (2015) methodological principles.

5.5.1 Teacher's own task-based syllabus

As mentioned earlier in the Method Chapter, after I provided the teacher with a ready-made task-based syllabus for the first six lessons, I involved the teacher in the development of his own task-based syllabus for Lessons 7 to 12 so he could draw on the knowledge and skills he had gained from the first 6 weeks. In evaluating whether the teacher successfully formulated a task-based syllabus, I considered three indicators: task-basedness, task variety, and task appropriateness and progression. For the sake of convenience, I will discuss each indicator in turn.

The first indicator, task-basedness, was analysed using Ellis's (2003) four criteria for a task: 1) a primary focus on meaning, 2) a gap in information/opinion, 3) activation of the students' own linguistic or non-linguistic resources, and 4) whether there is a communicative outcome. The analysis showed that most of the activities that the teacher devised constituted tasks except for Task 2 in Lesson 10, Task 2 in Lesson 11, and the task in Lesson 12. The tasks in these lessons did not satisfy all four requirements for a task. The information-summarising activity in Task 2 in Lesson 10, for instance, failed to meet Criterion 4. The task in this lesson focused students on meaning (i.e. the students were primarily concerned with encoding and decoding messages such as summarising and presenting information), involved an opinion gap (i.e. different students in a particular group had different opinions about how to write the summary), and triggered students' use of their own linguistic resources (i.e. the students had to speak to express their meaning). However, it did not result in a communicative outcome (i.e. the activity looks more like language practice than purposeful language use).

Erlam (2016) conducted similar research in the area of task design with New Zealand teachers. She attempted to address three research questions: 1) the extent to which the teachers were successful in formulating task-based materials which satisfied Ellis's (2003) four criteria for a task, 2) the criterion which the teachers found most difficult to implement, and 3) the criterion which the teachers found easiest to follow. Findings from the research suggest that only 47% of the teachers involved in the programme were able to design tasks that conformed to Ellis's four criteria. The most difficult criterion was triggering the use of learners' own linguistic resources, and the easiest criterion was a communicative outcome. Erlam further explained that the teachers experienced difficulty in crafting tasks for low-proficiency learners, perhaps because they misunderstood tasks as only involving production. As a result, their task-based syllabuses consisted mainly of output-based tasks which required students to produce language using their own linguistic resources, a condition which their students found difficult to deal with as they were beginners who had limited proficiency in the target language. Erlam added that the teacher's difficulty might have stemmed from their failure to understand what 'own linguistic resources' really involves. Erlam concluded by saying that her research, which resulted in teachers viewing Criteria 1 and 4 (i.e. focus on meaning and a communicative outcome) as relatively easy to implement, lent support to Ellis's (2009a) claim that the two criteria that most clearly distinguish a language task from a language exercise. In other words, Erlam (2016) contended that the teachers who participated in her study "were able to design activities that would place them more at the 'task' end of a continuum and that were more likely to promote a focus on meaning than on language forms" (p. 294).

In contrast to Erlam's (2016) study, my study involved a teacher professional development project where I not only explained the theory supporting TBLT but also provided the teacher with the tasks for the first six lessons. I am not surprised to see that in Erlam's study, the teachers dominantly crafted output-prompting tasks due to their wrong perception that a task involves only speaking. This condition is congruent with Zheng and Borg's (2014) research findings. In this study, which investigated how Chinese teachers of English implemented TBLT in their classroom, they found that task-based language teaching was perceived narrowly by local teachers as creating opportunities for students to talk in English in pair work or group work. In my study, the teacher was able to devise both input-providing tasks and output-prompting tasks. This suggests that the teacher had come to understand that tasks may involve both students' reception and production of the target language. As mentioned above, prior to the commencement of my task-based programme, I conducted a 2-day workshop for the teacher in which I introduced him to the basic concepts of TBLT. One of the sessions in this workshop included a discussion on input-based and output-based tasks. Also, for the first 6 weeks of the programme, I provided the teacher with a ready-made

syllabus consisting of both input-based and output-based tasks and held post-lesson discussions to help him with the design and implementation of TBLT. The teacher may have fully grasped the difference between input-providing and output-prompting tasks because he was given an ample opportunity to see the connection between the theory he had learned in the workshop and the real example of a task-based syllabus he taught in his own classroom. Van den Branden (2006) reported that teachers in the Flemish Project appreciated the provision of ready-to-teach task-based materials and feedback given by the school counsellors during the introduction of TBLT in their schools. McDonough and Chaikitmongkol (2017), reporting on their task-based course in Thailand, also noted the importance of providing guidance for teachers who transition from structural-based instruction to task-based instruction in the form of *an introductory workshop* to "raise their awareness about the principles of task-based language teaching" and in the form of *supplementary materials* to help them "recognise the course content" (p. 124).

The teacher in my study demonstrated the ability to design tasks in lessons (i.e. Lessons 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11). In Lesson 7, for example, the teacher developed an input-based task. In this task, students listened to descriptions of different people and showed their understanding by pointing to the relevant pictures. There was a focus on meaning because the students were involved in decoding messages (i.e. identifying pictures through listening). There was an information gap because the information was split, with the teacher holding all the information and the students none. The students had to use their existing knowledge of English and signals (pointing at a picture) to understand and demonstrate comprehension. Finally, the task resulted in a communicative outcome (i.e. the correct identification of the pictures). The teacher's ability to design tasks was also evident in Task 1 in Lesson 11, where he devised an output-based task. In this task, students formed groups and then one student from each group was invited to choose one card randomly out of a set of cards provided by the teacher. The cards contained pictures of famous tourist destinations in Indonesia. Students worked in groups to give relevant descriptions of their selected pictures in their own words. This task focused students on meaning because they were concerned with decoding and encoding messages (i.e. extracting information from a picture). There was an opinion gap because the task required the students first to exchange opinions about the picture and then come up with an agreed description. The students had to use their own linguistic resources to communicate their meaning, and there was a communicative outcome (i.e. a single agreed description about the picture).

However, the teacher experienced difficulty in designing some tasks (i.e. Task 2 in Lesson 10, Task 2 in Lesson 11, and the task in Lesson 12). In Lesson 12, for example, he was not completely clear about what Criterion 3 (i.e. stimulating students to use their own linguistic resources) and Criterion

4 (i.e. a communicative outcome) involved. In other words, he was not clear whether his students' use of the exact words given by the teacher to complete the song lyrics constituted 'students' own linguistic resources'. One possible explanation for this is that the teacher may have thought that any activity involving communication can be considered a task. In fact, although the students were actively engaged in verbal activities (i.e. speaking to each other to work out the missing words), filling in the blanks in a text using the language provided by the teacher is actually more like a language exercise as it is far from being genuinely communicative. This is consistent with R. Hu's (2013) findings that the Chinese teachers he surveyed had vague ideas of what a task entailed "based on what they believed as important" (p. 18).

In terms of task variety, the teacher's own task-based syllabus was assessed against Willis and Willis' (2007) pedagogic classification of tasks and Pica et al.'s (1993) psycholinguistic classification of tasks. From both typologies, it was found out that there was only limited variety in the tasks that the teacher developed. From the pedagogic categorisation of tasks, for example, it was evident that the first three lessons (i.e. Lessons 7, 8, and 9) where the teacher used his own tasks involved the same activities (i.e. picture-matching tasks). From the psycholinguistic categorisation of tasks, it was noticeable that the teacher's task-based syllabus involved only two psycholinguistic task types (i.e. information-gap and decision-making tasks). There are two possible explanations for this. First, the teacher may have based his tasks on the first six lessons, which were also quite limited in terms of task types. The task-based syllabus that I provided for the teacher in the first 6 weeks consisted of both input-based and output-based tasks with different topics, but it was limited in task variety as it mainly involved one pedagogic task type (i.e. matching task) and one psycholinguistic task type (i.e. information-gap task). Second, it was important to ensure that the tasks were well-suited to the students both in terms of their life experience and language proficiency. In selecting tasks, the teacher may have considered his students' ability as false beginners in English and their personal experiences. Commenting on the selection of tasks for students, Willis and Willis (2007) pointed out, "you would almost certainly not want to use all seven types of task for each topic with the same group of learners" (p. 108) and further suggested that we consider task difficulty when choosing suitable tasks our students.

Despite the limited variety, the task-based syllabus that the teacher devised consisted of various everyday topics that the students found familiar and relevant to their personal lives. Some of the topics were completely new (e.g. topics concerning local amenities and animals), but some others had the same topics as the tasks that I designed for the first six lessons (e.g. topics regarding jobs and famous places). Prabhu (1987) contended that students were likely to perform better in tasks

related to their personal experience (e.g. making and spending money) than in tasks that they were unfamiliar with (e.g. bank account).

The last indicator, task appropriateness and progression, was used to determine whether the teachers' tasks were properly graded and sequenced. As the analysis of task complexity shows on pages 109-110, there was an increase in the language input complexity of the tasks that the teacher developed over time. For instance, the picture-matching task in Lesson 7 was comprised of short clauses (i.e. around four to seven words per clause); the street-map task in Lesson 9 consisted of longer clauses (i.e. a combination of independent and dependent clauses with around eight to nine words per clause); the teacher used much longer clauses in Lesson 10 (i.e. a combination of independent and dependent clauses with 17 to 23 words per clause). The teacher exhibited the ability to design task-based materials where the input became more complex over time perhaps because this aspect of task design was evident in the first six lessons that I provided for him. For example, the teacher's descriptions in the picture-matching task in Lesson 1 consisted of short clauses (i.e. around four to seven words per clause, e.g. *this person flies an airplane*). In the story-matching task in Lesson 3, the teacher used longer clauses for the descriptions (i.e. around eight to 11 words per clause, e.g. *One day, a man was sweeping tree leaves in a park*). In Lesson 5, the teacher's task input comprised much longer clauses (i.e. around 12 to 16 words per clause, e.g. *The man called the lady and asked her whether she left a bag on a bench*).

Skehan (1996) pointed out that tasks "should not be so difficult that excessive mental processing is required simply to communicate any sort of meaning" (p.55) and further recommended that task designers consider the lexical and syntactic difficulty of the input in a task as it might affect learners' performance of the task. In a similar vein, Ellis (2003) and Nunan (2004) both mentioned the importance of grading input for learners and pointed out that code complexity is influenced by a number of factors, such as the length of a text and the use of low-frequency words.

In terms of task difficulty, there was no progression from input-providing tasks to output-prompting tasks in the teacher's syllabus. Nunan (2004) proposed 'the receptive-productive principle' for developing a task-based syllabus. This principle holds that learners need to be exposed to receptive tasks in the early stages of a course and productive tasks at later stages. Given that this was the teacher's first attempt at TBLT, it is possible that he may not have been entirely clear about how to put this principle into action although this aspect of task design was reflected in my sample lessons (i.e. the syllabus that I provided for the teacher moved from input-based tasks in Lessons 1 to 4 to output-based tasks in Lessons 5 to 6).

Despite the absence of progression from receptive to productive tasks, the tasks the teacher devised progressed from the use of information gaps to reasoning and opinion gap tasks. For example, the tasks that the teacher devised in the first three lessons (i.e. Lessons 7, 8 and 9) were simple information-gap tasks, whereas the tasks he crafted in Lessons 10 and 11 placed greater cognitive demands on the students as they involved reasoning (e.g. providing new information from given information) and giving opinions (e.g. expressing a personal preference). Prabhu (1987) distinguished three levels of task difficulty involving information, reasoning and opinion gaps and suggested that task developers sequence their tasks from the lowest level of cognitive demand (information gap) to the highest level (opinion gap).

A possible explanation for the teacher's ability to grade and sequence tasks is that the assistance I provided helped him recognise the importance of choosing tasks that matched students' level of English. In the post-lesson discussions, I not only discussed with the teacher how to grade tasks but also showed him examples of how tasks could be adjusted to suit students' proficiency. For instance, the teacher initially intended to design a task for Lesson 7, which involved forming opinions about how people look and dress, but I told him that such a task would be difficult for his students at this stage. Instead, I suggested that he craft an information-gap task (i.e. a task less demanding cognitively) for Lesson 7 in the form of a listen-do-task where his students would be exposed to rich input about how people look and dress through the teacher's oral descriptions.

The teacher in my study was not able to make a link between one lesson and another. This finding is similar to what Erlam (2015) found out in her research in New Zealand. Some of the teachers in her study crafted tasks that did not build on the previous lessons. Erlam argued that it was possible that the teachers may have strictly followed their assignment requirements which required them to devise a 'one-shot lesson' and thus did not motivate them to think about how to link tasks across lessons. With regard to my teacher, there are two possible explanations. First, the teacher may not have fully understood what 'continuity between lessons' meant, although I had shown him how to achieve continuity (i.e. the tasks that I developed in Lesson 5 drew on the tasks in Lesson 3). Second, perhaps the lack of continuity in his own tasks was the result of the teacher developing the tasks lesson by lesson rather than developing a coherent syllabus for all the six lessons he taught.

Although the teacher's tasks did not follow "the principle of task dependency' that Nunan (2004, p.35) proposed for the design of a task-based syllabus, there was continuity within lessons. For example, there was a link between Tasks 1 and 2 in Lesson 7 because they covered the same topic (people's appearances), and Task 2 functioned as a follow-up to Task 1. There was also evidence

that the tasks in Lessons 10 and 11 were interconnected in terms of topic and activities. Probably it was easier for the teacher to link tasks within the same lessons than between lessons.

5.5.2 Teacher's implementation of TBLT

As explained earlier in the results section, I used Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 as the main data source for analysis. I chose Lesson 1 because it was the first lesson that the teacher delivered using the tasks that I provided for the teacher; Lesson 6 because it was the last lesson before the teacher began using his own task-based materials; Lesson 7 because it was the first lesson in which the teacher taught his own tasks; Lesson 12 because it was the teacher's final lesson. Despite my main focus on Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12, I also draw on examples from other lessons to describe important points.

Teacher's ability to plan TBLT lessons

Following the introductory workshop where I explained and gave examples about the three phases of a task-based lesson, the teacher demonstrated the ability to construct lessons involving the three stages. He was able to develop pre-task activities where he introduced the topic and prepared the students to perform the task by brainstorming (e.g. asking students about their father's jobs in Lesson 1), using students as models (as evident in Lesson 6), and reviewing the previous lesson (as evident in Lesson 12). There were main-task activities where he performed the task with his students, monitored their performance of the task, helped them when the necessity arose (e.g. repeating task descriptions to support comprehension in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12), and checked task completion. There was also a post-task stage where he reviewed key vocabulary and conducted extended activities such as repeating the task (as evident in Lesson 7) and setting a writing activity (as evident in Lesson 12). In my reflective journal, I kept a record of the teacher's ability to organise task-based lessons through the three stages. It was evident that the teacher always included the three stages over the four lessons (i.e. Lesson 1, 6, 7 and 12).

5.5.3 Aspects of teacher's implementation of TBLT

Out of the many aspects of the teacher's implementation of TBLT, I selected four prominent areas: task-management activities, use of the L1, teacher's questioning, and focus on form. I selected task-management activities because one of the crucial roles that a teacher plays in task-based language teaching is being a task manager. As a task manager, the teacher needs to ensure that students are ready for performing tasks and that task implementation runs smoothly. This can be done, for

example, by reviewing previous lessons, setting up the type of interaction that a task requires, and providing time for the main task. Therefore, investigating the teacher's task-management activities enabled me to see the extent to which the teacher was capable of managing tasks in his classroom. The use of the L1 was chosen because it is a critical factor in the EFL context of my study where both the teacher and students spoke the same native language (i.e. Indonesian). In task-based language teaching, students are exposed to the target language and motivated to talk through meaning-making activities. In their attempts to understand and produce the target language, the students often experience communication problems and resort to their mother tongue to solve them. Thus, understanding the teacher's and students' use of the L1 will help me determine whether they were able to utilise it effectively. I look at the teacher's questions because they give students opportunities to interact with the teacher. Despite the many types of teacher questioning, I concentrated only on procedural and information questions in my analysis. Investigating the teacher's questioning helped me see whether or not his type of questioning led to meaningful communication. Focus on form was chosen because "learner attention to problem areas of grammar, lexis, collocation, and so on, is needed in the interests of rate of acquisition and level of ultimate attainment" (Long, 2015, p. 27), and communicative activities provide a context for drawing learners' attention to linguistic issues (Ellis et al., 2001). Thus, an analysis of focus on form will assist me in determining the extent to which the teacher successfully provided opportunities for students to communicate and attend to form through negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form. In the following sub-sections, I will discuss each aspect of the teacher's implementation of TBLT.

1. *Task-management activities*

The teacher's task management activities included but were not limited to reviewing the previous lesson, organising group work, and allocating time for task completion. I chose these three activities because they were the major features of the teacher's task management in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12 (i.e. the main data source for the analysis of the teacher's implementation of TBLT).

The first aspect was reviewing the previous lesson. The analysis results showed that there was a change in the way the teacher reviewed the previous lessons. It was evident that in the earlier lessons (i.e. Lessons 1 up to 7), the teacher did not review any of his previous lessons. However, starting from Lesson 8 onwards, he consistently reviewed the previous lessons prior to starting a new topic. Rosenshine (2012) contended that review of previous lessons is a crucial element because it helps students retain important concepts or words, and it provides a link between what they had been taught and what they were about to be taught.

Another aspect of the teacher's task-management activities concerned how he organised group work. For instance, in Lessons 1, 7 and 12, the teacher gave explicit instructions for individual, pair or group work. In Lesson 6, the teacher did not provide any explicit instruction for group work, but this did not cause any comprehension problems for the students. A possible explanation for this was the teacher's consistent use of comprehension checks during each task. This strategy can also be seen in Lesson 9, where the absence of an explicit instruction for individual work did not result in the students' confusion because the teacher checked his students' understanding of what to do in the task and supported it with examples.

The last aspect of task-management activities had to do with the timing of activities. The teacher allocated time for students to complete the task in Lesson 1, but he did not do it in Lesson 6. I discussed this with the teacher in the post-lesson discussion, and the teacher resumed allocating time for task completion in the following lessons (e.g. Lessons 7 and 12). After setting time limits, the teacher always moved around the class to monitor students' performance of the task and reminded them of the remaining time they had to complete the task. If he found that the students had not finished in the time set, he asked them to stop and moved on to a whole-class activity.

As we have seen, the changes the teacher demonstrated may have arisen as a result of the feedback sessions where I talked about the importance of managing task activities.

2. Use of the L1

The use of the L1 in L2 settings, or what Macaro (2005) called 'codeswitching', is a topic subject to frequent debate (Cummins, 2007; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). On the one hand, the opponents of L1 use believe that the target language should be taught to learners by immersing them in the L2 and using it as the medium of instruction (F. Chambers, 1991). They argue that L1 use should be discouraged from L2 classrooms because too much L1 use might reduce the L2 comprehensible input needed by students and thus impede their learning of the target language (Franklin, 1990). This belief may derive from naturalistic approaches, which view language pedagogy as giving learners maximum exposure to the target language. In addition, it has been argued that teachers should avoid using L1 in the classroom because reliance on the L1 indicates their incompetence in the target language (G. Chambers, 1992). On the other hand, advocates of L1 use argue that L1 use in the L2 classroom is beneficial as it can manage classroom activities and avoid misunderstanding between the teacher and students (Harbord, 1992). They also contend that L1 use can minimise students' anxiety in learning the L2 as they have the freedom to switch languages when they

experience communication breakdowns (Auerbach, 1993). Many advocates of the use of L1 draw on sociocultural and L2 motivation theories, which view the native language use as "a useful cognitive tool for scaffolding L2 learner production" and "as a means of reducing learner anxiety and creating rapport in the classroom" (Ellis, 2012, p. 128).

In response to these differing opinions, I took a middle-of-the-road position: While I believe that L2 is an essential source of input for the non-native speaking students, the student's native language can be used for specific instructional purposes (Storch & Wiggleworths, 2003; Turnbull, 2001; Van Lier, 1995), such as to introduce a new topic/task and to assist student's comprehension of difficult concepts or words. As Cook (2001) pointed out, "the maximal provision of L2 input does not deny the L1 a role in learning and teaching" (p. 410). This view informed the advice I gave to the teacher.

From the observational data analysis, I found out that the teacher used the mother tongue for several functions, which included giving task instructions, checking comprehension and responding to students' questions. This finding is in line with previous research conducted by De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) in Canada, which also found that the two university instructors of German as a Foreign Language in their study used the L1 for different instructional purposes, three of which included the language functions found in my study (i.e. task instructions, comprehension checking, and reacting to student questions). In general, the teacher's use of the L1 helped support students' comprehension and performance of tasks. For example, his use of the L1 in Lesson 5 helped students better understand the picture-composition activity and thus supported their performance of the task. Similarly, the teacher's use of some Indonesian in Lesson 8 helped resolve a communication issue during the performance of the picture-describing task.

I also found out that the teacher's use of L1 decreased over time (i.e. from 11% in Lesson 1 to less than 1% in Lessons 6, 7 and 12). Changes in the L1 use by the teacher showed that he had become more aware of the fact that the L1 can play a facilitative role but that he needed to keep it to a minimum by using it only when necessary. The feedback sessions I held with the teacher may have contributed to this development. For example, when providing the task instructions in Lesson 1, the teacher tended to overuse Indonesian (i.e. giving instant Indonesian translations of complete sentences). The teacher admitted this was a strategy that he usually employed in his regular form-focused teaching. This reflects Ellis's (2012) conclusion that the instructional approach is one of the main factors influencing the teacher's overall use of language. I suggested that the teacher provide only a translation of keywords instead of a whole sentence. Macaro (2001) described this as *intra-sentential code-switching*, i.e. using the L1 strategically to make the meaning of keywords clear rather

than translating the whole sentence into the L1. In Lesson 2, the teacher's use of the L1 still dominated but was less so than in Lesson 1. In the feedback session after Lesson 2, I reminded the teacher again of the keyword translation strategy, which he then adopted in the following lessons (e.g. Lesson 5 and Lesson 9).

Another possible explanation for the relatively small amount of L1 used by the teacher (i.e. 11% of the total number of words in Lesson 1, 0.3% in Lesson 6, 0.4% in Lesson 7, and 0.7% in Lesson 12) may have been the fact that the lessons were based on tasks. Kim and Elder (2005), in their study of the language choices used by foreign language teachers in New Zealand, found out that lessons that involved the use of tasks helped promote the use of the target language and resulted in less use of the native language. It could be that the teacher in my task-based study may have found task-based activities increasingly more conducive to using the L2, as evident in his decreasing use of the L1 over time.

Concerning the students' use of the L1, the analysis revealed that the students used the native language in their classroom for three major functions, namely to ask for information from the teacher about how to perform a specific task, to respond to the teacher's descriptions about a task, and to request translation from the teacher about words they were not familiar with. These findings are similar to those of Bao and Du (2015). Results from their study of two groups of Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) learners in Denmark showed that the students used the L1 mainly to facilitate completion of the tasks in three main areas - task management (how a task should be completed), vocabulary attention (searching for unknown words), and task clarification (seeking clarity about task instructions or descriptions).

In comparison to Bao and Du's study, which resulted in a relatively high amount of L1 use across three tasks (i.e. a minimum L1 use of 29% and a maximum L1 use of 86%), the students in my study made little use of the L1 (i.e. a minimum of 16% and a maximum of 25%) in four tasks. These different percentages of L1 use might be related to the task types that students dealt with. In Bao and Du's study, the lowest percentage of L1 use occurred in sentence-ordering tasks, whereas the highest took place in role-play tasks. In contrast, in my study, the lowest amount of L1 use was found in the spot-the-differences task, while the highest amount of L1 use was seen in the picture-matching task. Perhaps, the nature of sentence-ordering and spot-the-difference tasks may have restricted students' use of the target language to a greater extent than the role-play and picture-matching tasks. This is congruent with the results reported by Alegría de la Colina and Del Pilar García Mayo (2009), who found that despite the useful role of L1 in mediating L2 learning for

Spanish EFL learners, there was a difference in the amount of L1 used by the learners across three different tasks (i.e. 78% in a text-reconstruction task, 75% in a dictogloss task, and 55% in a jigsaw task). Storch and Aldosari (2010) also found that the extent of L1 use among Arabic students of L2 English was affected by the type of task assigned to them (e.g. editing tasks generated more use of the L1 than composition and jigsaw tasks). Other reasons may have influenced the students' use of the L1, particularly task difficulty and language proficiency. It is most likely that the students in my study used relatively little L1 because the tasks were well-matched to their level of proficiency (e.g. through the use of input-based tasks and simple output-based tasks).

The analysis results of the teacher's and students' use of the L1 also revealed that there were occasions where the teacher and students used the L1 in the same way - as when responding to questions and asking for translations. However, they differed in function. For example, the teacher responded to the students' questions using the L1 to make his answers easier to understand, whereas the students responded to the teacher's questions using the L1 because they were not sure how to express something in the L2. Also, the teacher asked for translations using comprehension checks while the students asked for translations because they did not know the English words. Despite the differences in function, the use of the L1 benefited both the teacher and students as it helped them sustain communication. This finding is consistent with Macaro's (2005) principle of codeswitching that "second language learning is best carried out through communicative interaction, where teachers and learners use the L2 *predominantly* but switch to L1 in order to ensure communication" (p.81).

3. Teacher's questions

When teaching, it is natural for teachers to ask questions. In fact, research (e.g. Dillon, 1997; Gall, 1984) has shown that teachers' questioning is one of the most widely used techniques in the classroom. Although teachers' questions vary in type and functions, my task-based study focused only on two types of questions: procedural questions and information questions. Procedural questions are commonly used by teachers to manage classroom routines and activities (Richards & Lockhart, 1994), and information questions are usually asked by teachers to gain information about something. Information questions are further classified into two categories: referential and display. Teachers employ referential questions to seek real information because they do not know the answer, and they pose display questions to check or test whether students really know the answer (Long & Sato, 1983).

The teacher used procedural questions more frequently than information questions over the four lessons (i.e. 81% as opposed to 19% in Lesson 1, 59% to 41% in Lesson 6, 78% to 22% in Lesson 7, and 67% to 33% in Lesson 12). It can be argued that procedural questions reflect a natural form of communication as they are used to manage activities that occur naturally in a classroom context. In Lesson 1, for example, the teacher employed procedural questions to monitor the performance of a task ('next, number...?' and 'number...?'). In Lesson 7, during the picture-matching task, the teacher used procedural questions to check whether his students had understood the task instructions (e.g. 'do you understand?', 'do you understand about my order?', and 'do you understand about my instruction?'). The teacher also posed procedural questions in Lesson 12 to check the completion of a task (e.g. 'You get all the word?', 'what is the first word?', 'number second?', 'the third?', and 'the forth?'). This type of questioning indicates that the teacher asked questions in a natural manner to keep the task activities running. It is also important to note that these procedural questions were formulaic and repetitive in nature (e.g. using set prompts like 'next', 'number…?', 'number…?', 'what number now?' in Lessons 1 and 7 to monitor task performance) and perhaps for this reason although asked in English, they posed no comprehension problems for the students.

There were also some examples of natural referential questions relating to personal/social issues that arose in the classroom and the performance of the tasks. For instance, in Lesson 6, the teacher employed referential questions to ask for personal information from a student who had just come back to school due to an illness. Another example can be seen in Lesson 12. The teacher used referential questions about Mother's Day in the post-task writing activity. Referential questions were also asked by the teacher to support the performance of a task. In Lesson 6, during the spot-the-differences task, the teacher used this type of questioning to request further descriptions of a picture from his students (e.g. 'what about the eyes?' and 'what about the cheek?'). These open-ended questions provided opportunities for students to answer based on their own knowledge and opinions.

In contrast to referential questions, which centre around personal/social/factual information and designated tasks, display questions were used by the teacher in four major areas, which included brainstorming a topic (e.g. 'what is your father?' (*asking multiple students to introduce the topic of jobs*), 'who can describe about XXX?' (*pointing to a model student*), checking comprehension of a word (e.g. 'what is *straight hair*?', 'you know *warming-up*?'), recalling a fact (e.g. 'what the doctor do, does?', 'what do you know about Medan city'?), and testing students' knowledge (e.g. 'who is taller?' (*pointing to two students standing in front of the class*), 'is there any glasses?' (*pointing to a picture*)). These display questions were mainly didactic, but they were effective as they enabled the teacher to assess students' comprehension of particular words or facts. This is evident in the

responses given by the students. For example, the teacher's display questions "who can describe about XXX?' and 'what about this?' in Lesson 6 elicited several relevant answers from students (e.g. fat, tall, happy, slim, handsome).

In my feedback sessions, I discussed the use of referential questions and display questions with the teacher. For instance, after Lesson 1, I showed the teacher some of the questions he posed during the task-based activities and asked him to identify which type they belonged to and why he used them. This helped reinforce the teacher's understanding of the difference between referential and display questions and points addressed in the introductory workshop, such as how questions serve in managing tasks and promoting communication in the classroom.

The frequency of display and referential questions used by the teacher showed no consistent change over the four lessons I analysed (i.e. 15% as opposed to 5% in Lesson 1, 20% as opposed to 21% in Lesson 6, 19% as opposed to 3% in Lesson 7, and 9% as opposed to 24% in Lesson 12). In other words, no one type of question dominated the classroom discourse. These results differed from those of earlier studies on teacher questions. For instance, several investigators (e.g. Long & Sato, 1983; White & Lightbown, 1984) found that the teacher's use of display questions in foreign language classrooms was more common than referential questions. An explanation for this difference may again be the fact that the lessons in my study were task-based.

However, it is important to note that certain functions of both display and referential questions were present in some lessons but not in others. Referential questions in the form of requesting a description, for example, took place frequently in the spot-the-differences activity in Lesson 6, but they did not occur in Lesson 1 (word-guess activity), 7 (picture-matching activity) and Lesson 12 (song lyric completion activity). Similarly, display questions with the function of asking for factual information were only found in Lesson 1, not in Lessons 6, 7 and 12. Ellis (2012) noted that "the type of questioning varies considerably from one teaching context to another, from one teacher to another and in a single teacher depending on the nature of the instructional activity" (p. 126). Perhaps the teacher's different uses of display and referential questions stemmed from the different nature of tasks that he used in the four lessons. Different tasks might have provided different contexts for the teacher's use of display and referential questions.

Taken together, the results above have shown us that the teacher's questioning generally resembled how questions are typically used in natural communication, suggesting that the primary focus was on meaning – a central characteristic of task-based teaching. It should also be noted that, in general,

the teacher was able to use procedural and information questions effectively for a number of functions related to task management, information requests and comprehension checks. There was a dominant use of procedural questions compared to information questions over the four lessons, but display questions did not dominate the classroom talk.

4. Focus on Form

Focus on form involves the negotiation of meaning (NoM), i.e. the strategies employed by a teacher to cope with communication problems in the classroom, and negotiation of form (NoF), i.e. the communication strategies used by a teacher to draw attention to linguistic form even though no communication problem has arisen. The former is also known as conversational focus on form and the latter as didactic focus on form. Focus on form can be preemptive (initiated by the teacher or a student to avoid or repair a communication problem) or reactive (done by the teacher or another student in response to a problematic utterance). (Ellis et al., 2001).

In analysing the observational data (i.e. the classroom discourse in Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12), I identified a set of categories for NoM and NoF. These categories include clarification requests, repeating instructions, comprehension checks, recasts, elicitations, and repetitions. Clarification requests and recasts were used for both NoM and NoF, but they differed in function. I will discuss the teacher's use of FonF strategies by addressing three important areas: 1) To what extent the teacher and students implemented FonF and with what limitations, 2) whether FonF was primarily teacher-driven or whether students also actively participated in it, 3) The linguistic forms to which FonF drew learners' attention.

In negotiating for meaning, the results revealed that, in the main, the teacher was able to implement the NoM strategies to avoid or repair communication breakdowns in his classroom. For instance, there was evidence of his use of clarification requests in three lessons (Lesson 6, 7, and 12), his repetition of instructions in four lessons (Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12), and his use of comprehension checks in four lessons (Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12). It is also important to note that, overall, the teacher's use of conversational strategies resulted in the desired students' response or outcome. For example, the clarification requests made by the teacher elicited the students' repetition of unclear words (e.g. 'flat nose' in Lesson 6, 'belt' in Lesson 7, and 'play' in Lesson 12) and the teacher's repetition of instructions helped the students to perform the tasks better in the four lessons (e.g. his repetition of instructions in Lesson 3 helped confused students to understand the task procedures concerning picture composition and thus enabled them to complete the task as required). However, regarding

comprehension checks, the 'yes' answer that the students provided to the teacher's checks was often ambiguous as it was not clear whether the students had really understood or whether they responded simply to please the teacher. When the students did not provide an answer to the teacher's comprehension check, the teacher provided an additional explanation. This strategy led to students confirming their understanding. The collective evidence indicates that the teacher was able to avoid communication problems in his classroom successfully through his effective use of NoM strategies, which helped his students perform the tasks better.

The NoM strategies found in the classroom discourse were predominantly teacher-driven except for clarification requests. In two lessons, however, students asked for clarification about particular words. In Lesson 6, one student attended to the word 'moustache' because they were not clear about what the teacher had said and in Lesson 7, another student sought clarity about the word 'piece' because he/she did not know about its meaning. In response to the students' clarification requests, the teacher employed different strategies. In Lesson 6, he repeated the word pointing to his upper lips' area (i.e. 'Yeah, moustache, here...'). In Lesson 7, the teacher did not translate the word 'piece' into Indonesian. Instead, he provided a reformulation of the sentence where the target word occurred (i.e. 'Yeah. Take a piece of your paper from your book. Yeah, take a piece of paper'). These strategies seemed to work as they solved the communication problems experienced by the students. In Lesson 12, the students did not make any clarification requests. The students' absence of use of clarification requests in this lesson might be because they were by then quite familiar with the task activities and keywords. Overall, though, the students were able to negotiate for meaning when they had communication difficulties in the classroom as they got used to task-based teaching. There was probably little opportunity to seek clarification in the kind of teacher-centred classroom they had previously experienced. The task-based classroom is more student-centred, thus creating opportunities for students to initiate communication with the teacher. Tasks, too, inevitably create a need to negotiate in a way that exercises do not.

The teacher's use of NoM strategies changed to some extent over the four lessons. For instance, there was a shift in the teacher's use of clarification requests from absence in Lesson 1 to consistent use in Lessons 6, 7, and 12. Another change took place in the teacher's repetition of instructions which declined in number after Lesson 6 (5 times in Lesson 1, 10 times in Lesson 6, and 3 times in Lessons 7 and 12), suggesting that over time the students became more familiar with the task-based activities and thus repetition of instructions were not required.

In contrast to the teacher's use of NoM strategies which showed considerable consistency over the four lessons, the teacher used NoF strategies less consistently. For example, the teacher used didactic clarification requests only in Lesson 6, didactic recasts in Lessons 6 and 7, and elicitations and repetitions in Lessons 1, 6, and 7. There are two possible explanations for this. First, it could be that the nature of tasks in some lessons did not provide a context for the use of particular didactic strategies (e.g. no context for using didactic clarification requests in Lesson 7 and no context for elicitations in Lesson 12). Second, the teacher may have been accustomed to using some NoF strategies in his traditional teaching and thus was not familiar with other didactic strategies (e.g. the teacher was able to implement elicitations and repetitions in Lesson 1, i.e. the first task-based lesson). Despite the inconsistency, the teacher made effective use of NoF strategies. On several occasions, the teacher was able to draw his students' attention to particular linguistic forms, as was evident in his students' responses. For instance, when the teacher elicited a correction from his student in Lesson 6 during a spot-the-differences activity (e.g. 'Not wearing.....?'), the student managed to answer correctly (e.g. 'overall'), and the teacher confirmed the answer. However, the teacher's use of elicitations did not always result in the intended answer. This was noticeable in Lesson 7, when the students were describing their friends. Here the teacher paused to allow a student to complete his/her sentence (e.g. 'she is.........?'), but the student failed to provide a correct answer (e.g. 'longer'). The teacher then used another didactic strategy, i.e. repetition (e.g. 'longer?') to indicate that the student's answer was wrong. When the student provided the same incorrect answer (e.g. longer), the teacher finally supplied a correction (e.g. 'tall'). This example is illustrative of effective task-based teaching – namely, the teacher's ability to use a series of strategies.

In contrast to the NoM strategies, where some students were actively involved in initiating negotiation, as might be expected, the NoF strategies were all instigated by the teacher as an attempt to attract his students' attention to form. In this regard, the teacher primarily focused on two types of linguistic items (i.e. vocabulary and grammar). This finding is consistent with Ellis et al. (2001), who found in their study that "the great majority of Focus on Form Episodes addressed lexical and grammatical problems" (p. 309). Earlier, Lyster (1998) also found that attention to form was primarily directed at grammatical and lexical errors. Evidence of the teacher correcting students' lexical errors in my study involved didactic clarification requests (e.g. 'Ha?' ➜ Star, 'How to say?' ➜ Hairband), elicitations (e.g. 'Not wearing...?' =➜ Overall, 'I am...? =➜ I am a student), and repetitions (e.g. 'Cooker?', 'Afro?', 'Fat?'). Nevertheless, his correction of grammatical errors always involved didactic recasts (e.g. 'more biggest' ➜ 'bigger', 'there are mole' ➜ 'there are moles', 'she is pointed nose' ➜ 'she has pointed nose'). The teacher's correction of students' ill-

formed sentences may have facilitated the students' acquisition of new linguistic forms by drawing their attention to them while they performed making-meaning activities.

Overall, FonF strategies used by the teacher over the four lessons involved more negotiation of meaning than negotiation of form (i.e. 76% as opposed to 24%). This is perhaps a reflection of the teacher's concern for meaning rather than form in his task-based lessons. This rate can be contrasted with the proportion of didactic and conversational FonF strategies reported by Ellis et al. (2001). In their study of 10 communicative lessons involving learners of different nationalities in New Zealand, they found that the focus on form arose more out of form-related issues than out of communication-related issues (i.e. 74% as opposed to 26%). The difference in the source of FonF strategies may reflect the classroom context (e.g. instructional activity and age factors) in which the studies took place. In my study, the research participants consisted of young EFL secondary school students who were new to task-based language teaching and thus experienced frequent communication problems during their performance of tasks. In contrast, in Ellis et al.'s study, the participants were adult ESL students who were motivated to improve their English and had experienced a period of form-focused instruction prior to meaning-focused instruction and thus were more cognitively prepared to attend to form.

The observational data also revealed that the most common feedback move used by the teacher over the four lessons was the comprehension check, and the least common move was the didactic clarification request. This, again, reflected the teacher's concern for drawing his students' attention to meaning rather than to form in his attempt to avoid or repair communication breakdowns. This finding differs from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, where the most dominant feedback type was recast and the least dominant type repetition. Ellis (2009c), in his guidelines for corrective feedback, proposed that teachers ought to be able to use different types of oral corrective feedback and adapt them to suit learners' level of ability. Ellis suggested an approach where the teacher first indicates an error with an indirect or implicit feedback strategy and, then, if the student cannot self-correct, the teacher moves on to a more direct or explicit type of correction. In my study, there was evidence of the teacher's use of two different corrective strategies in one episode. In Lesson 6 during the spot-differences task, for example, the teacher first implemented an implicit feedback type (i.e. conversational clarification request 'what?') to seek clarification of a student's problematic utterance. When the student was unable to repair his/her error, the teacher then shifted to an explicit feedback type (i.e. didactic recast 'bigger'). This indicates that the teacher was able to implement and adjust his use of corrective feedback strategies. When teachers utilise different CF strategies in this way, as Sheen and Ellis (2011) further argued, "learners receive information not just about linguistic form

but also about form-meaning mappings (i.e., they are able to see how a particular linguistic form realises a particular meaning in context)" (p. 595).

In conclusion, it can be argued that overall the teacher was able to implement FoF strategies effectively. While his use of NoM strategies enabled him to avoid or repair communication problems, his use of NoF strategies helped draw students' attention to specific language items. These two types of strategies helped the teacher ensure the successful implementation of tasks in ways likely to facilitate language acquisition.

5.5.4 Long's methodological principles

So far, I have discussed the main findings for Research Question 1 (i.e. To what extent is the teacher able to design and implement a task-based course for beginner-level learners of English in his classroom following training in this approach?). I will now discuss what my results showed about Long's (2015) methodological principles. My aim was to consider the extent to which the teacher has been successful in implementing these principles.

In his book, *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*, Long (2015) used the term *Methodological Principles* (henceforth called MP) to refer to "universally desirable instructional design features, motivated by theory and research findings in second language acquisition (SLA), educational psychology, philosophy of education, general educational curriculum design, and elsewhere, which show them to be either necessary for SLA or facilitative of it" (p. 301). Long proposed 10 methodological principles that teachers or practitioners can use as guidelines in teaching a task-based course. In what follows, I will briefly address each methodological principle and support it with relevant examples from my study.

MP1: Use task, not text, as the unit of analysis

The first principle states that in contrast to other pedagogic approaches, which primarily use texts as the basis for teaching different parts of language using a synthetic syllabus, in task-based language teaching, lessons are fully structured around tasks in an analytic syllabus. In other words, while the starting point for syllabus design in the synthetic approach is the grammatical or lexical features of the target language, the analytic approach bases syllabus design on the communicative purpose for which the target language is used. In my task-based study, it was evident that, in general, the teacher was able to build his own lessons around tasks (i.e. in Lessons 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11). The

teacher's ability to implement Long's (2015) first principle indicates that he was successful in enabling "learners to experience language as a living entity through using it to practice doing the tasks they will face beyond the classroom" (p 305).

MP2: Promote learning by doing

This principle holds that students learn better when they are directly involved in doing activities that are related to their personal life. In this regard, Long (2015) argued that doing real-world tasks provides opportunities for students to learn language incidentally and "increases the likelihood that abilities learned in the classroom will transfer to the world outside" (p. 306). The teacher in my task-based study was able to craft tasks containing common topics relevant to the students' personal experiences. Nevertheless, these tasks were not real-world tasks (i.e. tasks involving the use of language that students will actually use in real life). Instead, they were pedagogic tasks that involved the use of language similar to real-world communication. Real-world tasks are not appropriate in an EFL context such as Indonesia, where there is no immediate need for students to use English outside of the classroom. Nor are real-world tasks essential for promoting learning by doing. Compared to real-world tasks, pedagogic tasks are more appropriate for EFL secondary school students. The street-map task in Lesson 9, for instance, was a pedagogic task related to directions and local amenities that the students are familiar with. Due to their familiarity with the task topic, the students were actively engaged in the task activities. In this task, they had the opportunity to learn incidentally through exposure and by practising in a communicative situation.

MP3: Elaborate input

Input elaboration is defined as "an approach to improving the comprehensibility of spoken or written texts that grew out of research findings on foreigner talk discourse in the 1970s and 1980s" (Long, 2015, pp. 251-252). Long argued that elaborated input is psycholinguistically appropriate for language learners because it matches students' processing capacity and exposes them to new or unknown language features that are essential for their language development. In the context of classroom discourse, input elaboration occurs when the interactional structure of teacher-student talk is altered during negotiation of meaning through more frequent use of communication strategies such as comprehension checks, clarification requests, and different types of scaffolding. In my task-based study, there was evidence that the teacher elaborated input as a negotiation of meaning strategy. For example, in most of the lessons that the teacher taught, I saw that clarification requests helped repair communication problems between the teacher and students. There were also instances

where the teacher used scaffolding strategies to help his students do the tasks. As was evident in Lessons 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, the teacher's use of scaffolding strategies (e.g. using himself as a model, asking personalised questions, and provision of keywords and examples) not only assisted student engagement in the tasks but also improved their performance of the tasks.

MP4: Provide rich input

According to this principle, teachers need to find ways of providing their students with numerous L2 samples to optimise language learning. However, as Long (2015) contended, rich input is not only associated with quantity but also with quality (e.g. whether the input varies in terms of linguistic complexity, types and continuity). In my task-based study, I found evidence showing that the teacher was able to design tasks that increased in complexity over time (e.g. from the use of short clauses in Lesson 7 to longer clauses in Lesson 9 and much longer clauses in Lesson 10). It was also evident that the tasks that the teacher crafted progressed from the use of information-gap tasks in Lessons 7, 8, and 9 to the use of reasoning-gap task in Lesson 10 and opinion-gap task in Lesson 11. However, as previously noted, there was only limited variety in the tasks that the teacher devised (i.e. many of the teacher's tasks involved the same operations such as picture-matching and information-gap). However, there are reasons for this limitation – neither the teacher nor students had any experience of TBLT, so it was sensible for the teacher to 'play safe' and also, the project only spanned the early stage of a TBLT course. Another limitation was that the teacher made very little attempt to design tasks that built on the previous lessons, although he managed to develop continuity between tasks within the same lesson (e.g. in Lessons 7, 10 and 11).

MP5: Encourage inductive "chunk" learning

Long (2015) suggested that teachers implement this principle by what he called 'overt plagiarism' or 'inductive chunk learning', that is, exposing learners to meaningful chunks of the target language and encouraging them to re-use the chunks in new contexts. In my task-based study, there was evidence that the teacher catered to inductive chunk learning through his use of classroom management language. This was noticeable, for example, in Lessons 1 and 6, where he greeted and checked his students' attendance exposing them to meaningful chunks of language (e.g. 'Good morning, everybody', 'How are you?', 'Who doesn't come today?'). In other instances of classroom management language, the teacher exposed students to chunks, such as 'Who wants to volunteer?' (i.e. to ask students to volunteer to perform a particular activity as in Lessons 6 and 7), 'Do you understand about....?' (i.e. to check students' understanding of a specific activity as in Lessons 7 and

12), 'What number now?' (i.e. to monitor the performance of a task as in Lessons 1 and 7), and 'Finish?', 'Okay, you get all the word?' (i.e. to check the completion of a task as evident in Lessons 1 and 12).

Ellis (2019) noted that students who have learned chunks such as *Can I have a...?* (e.g. *Can I have a drink? Can I have a lighter? Can I have a spoon?*) could work out that *drink, lighter* and *spoon* belong to the same parts of speech (i.e. nouns) and thus similar words can be placed after *Can I have a...?* (e.g. *Can I have a marker?*). In my study, there was evidence that the teacher exposed learners to chunks of language during the picture-matching activity in Lesson 7. Here, the teacher repetitively used a series of chunks with open slots (e.g. *The man/woman is wearing a...; the boy/girl has....; the man/woman looks....*) to describe people's appearances in the picture to the students. This strategy not only exposed learners to meaningful chunks of language for performing a language function but potentially helped them work out what kind of words could be used in these chunks. Millar (2011) argued that familiarity with different types of formulaic language assists both receptive and productive processing. In a similar vein, Ellis and Shintani (2014) maintained that "formulaic sequences play a major role in both L2 production and L2 acquisition, especially in the early stages" (p. 56).

MP6: Focus on form

Another methodological principle that Long proposed was the need to incorporate focus on form (FonF) into task performance. Long saw focus on form as invariably reactive, but Ellis et al. (2001) argued that it can be both reactive and pre-emptive. Ellis et al. further pointed out that focus on form can be conversational (i.e. involving negotiation of meaning) and didactic (i.e. involving negotiation of form). The observational data that I collected in my task-based study lends support to Ellis et al.'s definition of FonF. The teacher employed negotiation of meaning (NoM) strategies to avoid or repair communication breakdowns. These conversational strategies were comprised of clarification requests, repetitions of instructions, and comprehension checks. They were primarily instigated by the teacher except for clarification requests which the students actively used. Also, he used negotiation of form (NoF) strategies to attract students' attention to specific language features. These didactic strategies included clarification requests, recasts, elicitations and repetitions. Unlike the NoM strategies, all the NoF strategies were teacher-driven. Evidence showed that the teacher used NoM strategies more frequently than the NoF strategies indicating that he was more concerned with meaning than form in implementing task-based language teaching.

MP7: Provide negative feedback

Providing feedback for students is a common practice in language teaching. Feedback can be positive (i.e. praising students' correct utterances) and negative (i.e. correcting students' errors). While positive feedback is deemed necessary as a means of increasing students' motivation (Nunan, 1991), it has received little attention in Second Language Acquisition because classroom research has shown that it is often ambiguous in that it does not consistently affirm that a student utterance is correct (Ellis, 2009c). Negative feedback, by contrast, is corrective in nature because it signals that something is linguistically wrong with the student's utterance. Negative feedback or Corrective Feedback (CF) has been seen as an effective way of developing different linguistic features such as vocabulary (Dilans, 2010), grammar (Russel & Spada, 2006), and comprehension (Sukhram, 2008).

The teacher in my task-based study demonstrated an ability to implement different CF moves to correct his students' ill-formed utterances. Sometimes the teacher used a single corrective feedback type, but he used a mixture of CF types in other lessons. For example, we can see a mixture of recasts, elicitations and repetitions in Lessons 1, 3, 6, and 7.

MP8: Respect learner syllabi and developmental processes

This principle posits that when designing or teaching a language course, we need to consider learners' current processing capacity and stage of development. This can be done, for example, through focus on form instead of focus on forms and by providing input appropriate to students' level of ability. Also, we need to acknowledge the fact that in their effort to master the target language, learners make a lot of errors. It is then our jobs as teachers to draw their attention to the linguistic problems they encounter through the provision of negative feedback. The teacher in my task-based study took this principle into account, as can be seen in his implementation of focus on form strategies that supported students' comprehension and performance of the tasks. It was also noticeable that the tasks that the teacher devised were in general at the right level for the students and by employing relevant strategies. For instance, although the face-map task in Lesson 2 was too easy, the teacher was able to deliver it in an exciting way by asking personalised questions. This questioning technique made the task enjoyable and still worked for the students. Similarly, even though the tasks in Lesson 10 were too difficult for the students, the teacher managed to help students with the performance of the tasks through the provision of keywords and examples.

MP9: Promote cooperative collaborative learning

Several studies (e.g. Barnes & Todd, 1995; Long & Porter, 1985, Slavin, 1996) have pointed to the benefits of cooperative and collaborative learning in enhancing student motivation and performance in language and general activities. In my task-based study, the teacher organised collaborative work for particular activities/tasks. For example, in Lesson 8, the teacher organised group work to perform a word-guess activity, and in Lesson 12, he organised pair work to perform a discussion activity. The teacher's use of cooperative collaborative learning in these lessons helped students complete the task successfully but resulted in limited focus on form (e.g. the use of clarification requests among students was rare). Perhaps, the students' low command of English influenced their ability to negotiate for meaning and correct each other. This is consistent with Adams' (2007) claim that "while learner-learner interactions may provide a site for feedback to occur, the restricted set of feedback types may not provide evidence appropriate to learner developmental needs" (p. 33).

Many of the teacher's tasks did not involve collaborative student activity. Ellis (2017) argued that TBLT need not always involve group work, and tasks can be successfully performed in various participatory structures. Students in Prabhu's (1987) Bangalore Project, for instance, worked individually to perform the communicational tasks. It is also possible to perform speaking tasks through teacher-class interaction, as evident in Ellis et al.'s (2001) study. This occurred when the teacher performed a speaking task in a teacher-class participatory structure (e.g. in Lesson 11). Ellis (2009a) maintained that "the nature of the interactions that take place in TBLT will depend on three factors: the proficiency level of the students, the design features of the task, and the method of implementation" (p. 229). Therefore, it is clear that collaborative learning in small groups may not be essential for all learners in all teaching contexts and arguably not always in the context that I investigated where TBLT was being introduced for the first time with students who had limited experience in using English communicatively and limited ability to do so.

MP10: Individualize instruction

The last pedagogic principle that Long (2015) put forward was the need to "tailor instruction to cater to individual differences in goals, interests, motivation, cognitive style, and learning strategies" (p. 325). This can be done by first assessing students' learning profiles and then modifying materials and instructional approaches to cater to their learning needs. Ellis and Shintani (2014) pointed out that one way of catering for individual differences is to implement 'instruction-learner matching', i.e. teaching different groups of students using separate instructional materials based on their

language ability or providing the whole class with a mix of instructional activities based on principled eclecticism. However, as Ellis and Shintani further argued, this pedagogic option demands considerable work, expertise and experience on the part of the teacher. Although the teacher did to some extent cater to individual differences in how the tasks were implemented (e.g. by adjusting his task-based materials or instructional approaches to address implementational needs as evident in Lessons 2, 9 and 10), this principle was not clearly evident in how the teacher utilised tasks. This is not surprising, given that this was the teacher's first attempt at TBLT.

5.5.5 Summing up

It can be argued that the teacher in my task-based study was mainly successful in implementing Long's (2015) 10 methodological principles. In general, he was successful in implementing MP1 (*Use task, not text, as the unit of analysis*), MP2 (*Promote learning by doing*), MP3 (*Elaborate input*), MP5 (*Encourage inductive chunk learning*), MP6 (*Focus on form*), MP7 (*Provide negative feedback*), and MP8 (*Respect learner syllabi and developmental processes*). However, some principles were not clearly evident in the teacher's task-based lessons. For example, the teacher was not fully successful in implementing MP4 (*Provide rich input*) as his tasks lacked variety. MP9 (*Promote cooperative collaborative learning*) was evident in some lessons. However, as I have argued, it is not essential in the kind of instructional context the teacher was working in because the students were false beginners with limited communicative proficiency in English and the teacher had no experience of TBLT. In such a context, teacher-class interaction is arguably more appropriate. Also, MP10 (*Individualize instruction*) was not evident because it requires skills that cannot be expected of a teacher embarking on TBLT for the first time. The fact that the teacher fell short in some of Long's methodological principles was understandable not only because the teacher was a newcomer to TBLT but also because the methodological principles, as Long (2015) himself concluded, are not always compatible with all teaching contexts and thus are subject to local constraints.

Chapter 6. Research Question 2: The teacher's views about TBLT

This chapter presents the findings for Research Question 2 (i.e. What are the teacher's views regarding his experience of implementing a task-based course in his own classroom?). In this chapter, I will first talk about the teacher's preliminary interview and then move on to describe his exit interview. After that, I will discuss both interviews before providing a conclusion.

6.1.1 An analysis of teacher's preliminary interview

I conducted the preliminary interview before the training began with the aim of investigating the teacher's existing knowledge about TBLT. The interview questions revolved around the key tenets of TBLT, which included what makes a task different from an exercise and whether tasks are suitable for a big sized class and beginning level students.

It is important to know that the teacher had taught English in the school for around 9 years. He held a Bachelor's degree in English Education and attended pre-service teacher training for 3 months soon after graduating from the university. His teaching practice was based on structural-based approaches in order to satisfy the nationally-run exam requirements, and he had had no prior contact with task-based language teaching. It was not surprising, then, that the teacher's responses to the questions in the preliminary interview indicated no real understanding of task-based language teaching. For example, although he had heard about task-based learning and considered it a new method of learning, he was not able to explain the basic concepts of TBLT. When asked about what a task is, he replied, *"The definition of task is tugas (Indonesian for assignment/homework). The definition of task on my mind is like the additional exercises, maybe in the class like worksheet and also at home I give them like...homework*." This answer indicates that the teacher's idea of a 'task' was simply 'a piece of work' or an exercise.

Although he believed that tasks could be used with large classes and beginners in English, he could not explain why because he did not have a clear idea of what a 'task' is:

> Yeah, I think so. In the large size, task makes it easy for the teacher to know about the skill and to know about the understanding of the knowledge also the material. Because if we don't give the task, we don't have much time to measure or to give them understanding about the material. So, we give

the task, after that we evaluate the task, then we know about the students' knowledge...I know the beginner students in my class. If we don't give them the task, maybe at home they don't want to study. That's why we give the task to the students to support them for study and also to...how to say? To increase their knowledge for English. In my class, some students don't even know about the alphabet because they never got the lesson of English before in Elementary school. That's why task is very important in my class.

The teacher's unclear idea of a task also led him to misunderstand the benefits of a task. As he put it:

The benefit for using task is to know how far the students understand about the lesson or about the material. Because with the task we can measure about the skill...students' skill for the material, that's the benefit, I think.

He thought tasks for beginners should be adjusted to their level of ability:

The example? For example, in my class for the beginners, I give them the easiest task, the material based on the elementary or maybe for the playgroup task. Because if I give them Junior High School materials maybe they can run or they can't follow the material. That's why I give them the material based on the very beginner materials. I need to know how deep or how wide the English knowledge and skill they have.

In response to the question about the different roles that a teacher plays in TBLT, the teacher admitted that he did not have a clear idea about it (*I don't have explanation about this)*. Therefore, from the preliminary interview data, it was clear that the teacher had no knowledge of TBLT prior to the initial training.

6.1.2 An analysis of teacher's exit interview

After the teacher had completed teaching the 12 lessons, I conducted another interview with him to investigate the teacher's progressive understanding of TBLT and his opinions about his implementation of TBLT. It should be noted that the preliminary interview had shown that the teacher did not have a clear understanding of what TBLT is and what it involves.

However, the teacher's responses to the exit interview suggest that he had developed a solid understanding of TBLT. He defined TBLT as a pedagogic approach in which the teacher teaches

the students by using tasks. He was able to provide a definition of a task in terms of the four criteria I had explained to him at the start. As he put it:

> We can say an activity is a task if in the tasks there are four criteria. For the first is focus in meaning and information gap and then linguistic and non-linguistic resources, and the last is communicative outcome.

He was also able to identify the three phases in a task-based lesson by mentioning: "They are pre-task, main-task and post-task".

In response to the different teacher roles in TBLT, he explained that in task-based language teaching, a teacher performs the roles of an instructor, communicator and a task-manager and the students the role of a communicator:

> I use some roles in my class. I use the students' roles and teacher's roles. The students' roles means the students to be the communicator and listener. All the activities done by the students. And the teacher's roles means the teacher as the source in English...like the communicator...to give the instruction and all the descriptions of the task.

When the teacher mentioned some of the tasks that he had used successfully, he also talked about those he had not successfully taught:

> When I teach 'people's jobs' or 'people's activities'. I think I get success for this because I used low and middle language English; that's why the students can find it easier to get the understanding of learning. I think this is the first success I get from the TBLT lesson…But I think I should manage something better next time in lessons like describing animals and then story-telling...This is the lesson I think the students are interested to study even though they have a low vocabulary when they want to talk about the lesson.

The teacher admitted that one of the problems that he encountered in his implementation of TBLT was that some of the tasks were too difficult for the students because they lacked the vocabulary and general knowledge:

> Yes, I realised I have some problems when I teach TBLT programme because some of the materials were high-level in English, like I said just now story-telling. The students are interested to...excited to learn about story-telling, picture composition, but the problem is the students lack of vocabulary.

And then when I taught about street-map, I guess this is the easy lesson, but in my class, I have a problem, the students not ehm...didn't know about the street that's why this is the problem ...They can't describe about how to get to someplace because they don't know about the street.

Speaking of the merits of TBLT, the teacher stated that task-based language teaching created an enjoyable atmosphere in the classroom and that his students always looked forward to studying task-based lessons:

Yes, enjoyable because my students asked me, "Sir maybe the programme will be done today, what about next time? Will we do the same thing like this?" I said to them, "Yeah, *InsyaAllah* (Indonesian for *God willing*) we will do". They enjoyed it very much and said, " We will wait for another material, for another lesson. So don't use the old teaching again Sir".

In a similar vein, the teacher thought that TBLT made it easier for him to teach English as it involved the use of games and role-plays:

Yes, I agree about this. This is easier to do because I usually use the traditional teaching. I always do page to page without any innovation, and when I used TBLT, I realised now teaching English is not too hard but easy because we have...we just give them some tasks by gaming, using gaming and then maybe like drama I think eeeh...eeeh...like courier and secretary this is like drama, they play drama, Some students became courier to find the information and others to stay in the place to set the material or the information. I think this is more fun.

The teacher maintained that TBLT is a good approach because there is a brainstorming activity in the pre-task that connects the students with the lesson and the teacher, and it is possible for the students to use their L1 during the main task:

Yes, of course. Because before we give the lesson, we should first brainstorm the students' mind...eeeh...how to get the students interested with the lesson and then when they are interested with the lesson, there is connection between the students and the teacher...it means the students are ready to get the knowledge or they are ready to study. I think this is a good approach. And when we do the main task, the students...they do what they want like if they want to speak English full, it's OK but if the students cannot do...cannot speak English well, they can mix with *Bahasa*.

Concerning his future teaching plans, the teacher said that he would continue using TBLT with some improvisation or combination with other techniques and share the knowledge and skills with his colleagues in the school:

Yes, *InsyaAllah* (Indonesian for *God Willing*), I will continue with myself and my friends. I don't want to change TBLT, but I want to combine or to...how to say? Improvisation. Because if I change it...ehmmm...I think if I understand TBLT, it's enough. But maybe I can find another way and combine with this programme or technique...We'll present this TBLT programme, first to all the teachers and then focus on the English teachers.

From the exit interview data above, it can be concluded that the teacher demonstrated a good conceptual and experiential knowledge of TBLT and had developed a positive attitude towards it as an innovative approach.

6.2 Discussion

When a teaching innovation like TBLT is introduced in a particular teaching context, it is subject to local constraints. To better understand this, investigators have conducted studies investigating TBLT implementation from the teachers' perspectives (e.g. Clark et al., 1999; D. Li, 1998; Jeon & Hahn, 2006). The research findings suggest that one factor that often impeded the implementation of TBLT was the teachers' understanding of what constitutes a task and their ability to expedite the TBLT innovation in their classroom (Adams & Newton, 2009; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007). The two interviews I conducted with the teacher sought to explore whether the training I had provided was useful for developing the teacher's knowledge of TBLT and whether the knowledge he had gained was evident in his implementation of TBLT. I will discuss findings from both interviews and use examples from the teacher's task-based lessons to illustrate my points.

6.2.1 Teacher's preliminary interview

Findings from the preliminary interview revealed that the teacher was not able to demonstrate a clear grasp of a 'task'. For example, he misunderstood tasks as 'pieces of work' or exercises. This was understandable given the teacher's previous experience with structural-based teaching and the fact that he had had no contact with task-based language teaching before. Some of the Chinese school teachers that R. Hu (2013) investigated also viewed tasks "as the exercises listed on the textbook and the teacher's manual" (p. 17). Similarly, in a Canada-based study which examined the influence of a task-based professional development programme on pre-service teachers' attitudes about task-based language teaching and their implementation of TBLT, Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) found that at the beginning of the programme, the teachers maintained that a lesson would only be effective if it included exercises and drills. This reflects a common belief held by teachers in form-

focused instructional contexts, namely that automatic knowledge of linguistic forms can only be achieved through drills and grammatical exercises.

6.2.2 Teacher's exit interview

However, the exit interview results revealed that the teacher had developed a good understanding of task-based language teaching and held positive views about it. For example, he was able to define tasks in terms of the four criteria as proposed by Ellis (2003). In an interview-based study of 48 New Zealand teachers who had completed a year-long Teacher Professional Development Languages programme, Erlam (2015) found that the teachers had a good understanding of the four criteria for a task but could not apply the criteria in their own tasks. In my study, however, there was evidence from the observational data that the teacher was able to design tasks in accordance with the four criteria. In Lesson 9, for example, there was 'a focus on meaning' in the street-map task because the teacher engaged the students in decoding messages (i.e. identifying places on the map based on his verbal descriptions). There was 'an information gap' because the teacher held all the information about the map in carrying out the task. The task also required students to use their own linguistic resources to demonstrate their comprehension of the teacher's directions. Finally, there was 'a clear communicative outcome', i.e. the students' identification of 10 labelled places on the map. Nevertheless, the teacher's understanding of the four criteria for a task was not always clearly evident. For instance, in the lyrics-completion task in Lesson 12, the task did not satisfy criterion 3, where the students were provided with the exact words required to complete the lyrics. Also, this cloze activity did not have a communicative outcome.

In contrast to Pei's (2008) study where local teachers failed to identify the stages of a TBLT lesson, the teacher in my study was able to mention the three major phases of a task-based lesson after the training. Pei argued that the teachers' vague ideas about what a task involved pointed to the need for task-based training programmes for local teachers in China because misconceptions about TBLT "can lead to classroom practices which are not consistent with the basic principles of TBLT" (p. 110). Pei's claim about the importance of pre-service training programmes in guiding teachers' performance in TBLT is also reflected in the findings of my study. As was evident in the classroom observations, the teacher demonstrated the ability to develop lessons (e.g. Lessons 7 to 12) in terms of the three stages following the introductory workshop where I modelled how the three phases of a task-based lesson could be implemented. However, as Ellis (2003) noted, not all lessons need to involve all the three phases. Sometimes a pre-task phase is not needed. There was evidence that the teacher did not always adhere to the three-phase model in all his lessons. In Lessons 2 and 5, for

instance, the teacher did not conduct any pre-task activities, perhaps because he thought that the students were already familiar with the task topics.

The teacher mentioned three important teacher roles (i.e. task-manager, instructor, and communicator). Ellis (2019) contended that "the teacher has to juggle a number of different roles, switching from one to another strategically as the task unwinds" (p.49). The teacher's understanding of the teacher's roles in TBLT was manifested in the task-based lessons that he taught. There was evidence from the observational data that the teacher performed the role of a task-manager (e.g. setting a time limit for performing the task in Lesson 1, monitoring the performance of tasks in Lesson 7); the role of an instructor (e.g. correcting students' error in Lesson 6, modelling useful chunks of language in Lesson 7); the role of a co-communicator (e.g. making strategic use of the students' native language in Lesson 5; asking referential questions in Lesson 12). In addition, the teacher demonstrated that he was able to switch strategically from one role to another within the same task. This can be seen, for example, in Lesson 9 during the street-map task. At the beginning of this input-based task, the teacher first acted as a task-manager by providing the task instructions (e.g. "I read the text, and I say the place, maybe for A I say this is the zoo. So you write here, zoo. Ha? Yeah. And B I said, oh on my left side is bank. It means you should write here bank. Depend on the description, OK?). Then he performed the role of a co-communicator by checking his students' understanding of the task procedures (e.g. 'You (*pointing to a student*)? Do you understand? You? Get it? Are you sure?'). When necessary, he repeated the task instructions and used the students' mother tongue (L1) to aid their comprehension (e.g. 'I will read the text, and then I will say the place based on this map. Sir will explain this *gambar (*Indonesian for *picture*)). In the main task and post-task stages, there were instances where the teacher acted as an instructor by modelling useful chunks of language (e.g. 'On my right is.......', 'On my left is.......') and by responding to students' question about language (e.g. S1: 'Sir, *Bahasa Inggrisnya didepan*?' (Indonesian for Sir, What is the English for *didepan*?) ➔ T: 'Yeah in front of or opposite').

The teacher commented that one of the problems that he encountered when implementing TBLT, especially with output-based tasks, was the students' limited vocabulary. This is not surprising, however, given that his students were false-beginners in English and had had no experience of task-based language teaching. Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) found out that some of the teachers who were involved in a teaching practicum expressed concerns about their beginner-level students' lack of linguistic resources during the performance of tasks. In a similar vein, some teachers in Erlam's (2015) study listed a lack of language proficiency on the part of their students as a factor that made the implementation of TBLT difficult. However, the teacher was able to use output-based tasks with

his beginning students. In Lesson 5, for example, the teacher demonstrated the ability to use relevant strategies to make the story-telling task work for the students, such as giving them a chance to plan. Ellis (2019) pointed out that planning can be helpful for both writing and oral tasks as "when students are given time to plan, they are likely to perform the task more fluently, using more complex and sometimes more accurate language" (p. 44). Another strategy that the teacher employed was scaffolding his students' production during the performance of the story-telling task. In this case, the teacher stepped in to provide assistance if a student lacked the target vocabulary or if the student's utterance contained an error.

The teacher reported several benefits of task-based language teaching. First, the students found task-based instruction enjoyable. Comments from the teacher showed that his students were so excited about task-based lessons that they did not want him to resort to traditional structural-based lessons. Although the introduction of TBLT through communicative activities in EFL contexts has been resisted in some instructional contexts (e.g. D. Li, 1998; Harris, 2018; Lee, 2005), there is evidence to suggest that "once exposed to task-based teaching, Asian learners can adjust their preferences for learning" (Adams & Newton, 2009, p. 8). A group of Chinese primary school students in Zhang's (2007) study, for instance, showed their preference for language tasks and communicative activities taught by a communicatively-oriented teacher. Hsu's (2007) study revealed that Taiwanese students' learning preferences shifted from individual work to group work after being introduced to task-based language teaching. The students in my study were previously taught in teacher-fronted instruction, which focused on the explanation and practice of grammatical features. The teacher's use of tasks coupled with the skills he brought to the TBLT lessons provided opportunities for the students to engage as communicators (i.e. as listeners in input-based tasks and as speakers in output-based tasks). Also, as the teacher further commented in the exit interview, the tasks involved interesting games and role plays that they had rarely experienced previously. Then, it is not surprising that the teacher viewed task-based language teaching as intrinsically motivating for his students.

Another aspect of task-based language teaching that the teacher viewed as beneficial was the use of a brainstorming activity in the pre-task phase to activate students' knowledge about the topic of the task. Familiarising learners with the learning topic can improve motivation and task performance (Ellis et al., 2019) and is helpful for their vocabulary learning (Pulido, 2007). As pointed out earlier when discussing the findings for Research Question 1, the teacher's brainstorming techniques (e.g. questioning, providing a model, drawing, and word-mapping) not only helped to prepare the students for the main task but also demonstrated his clear understanding of the methodology of a

task-based lesson. The teacher also commented on the possibility of using the mother tongue for students during the performance of tasks. As documented in Chapter 5, the teacher allowed frequent strategic use of the students' native language as a tool to mediate their target language production (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). Also, allowing students to use the L1 seemed to help them feel less intimidated in expressing opinions in the L2 classrooms (Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993).

The teacher stated he would continue using TBLT in his future classes. This indicates that he had developed a positive attitude towards task-based language teaching, a finding that has also been reported elsewhere in the literature. In their study of pre-service teachers in Canada, for example, Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) reported that the task-based professional development programme enhanced the teachers' favourable disposition towards TBLT, as opposed to PPP, especially in their views about error correction and explicit grammar instruction. Erlam (2015) concluded that a year-long task-based professional development programme had a significant learning impact on most of the teachers involved in the programme, as evident in their comments about the benefits they saw in implementing TBLT in their language classrooms. East (2019) noted that the task-based teacher preparation programme in New Zealand helped to form positive understandings about TBLT for local practising teachers.

As in the studies mentioned in Chapter 2, the teacher experienced local constraints. In addition to the students' limited proficiency, another key factor was the obligatory nationally-administered exam. In a number of post-lesson discussions held with the teacher, the teacher explained that he faced a dilemma between preparing his students for the structural-based exam and adopting task-based language teaching. The teacher felt he had to prepare the students for the discrete-point examination. Recently, based on the Circular No. 4 of 2020, the Indonesian Minister for Education and Culture announced that the National Exam would be replaced by performance-based testing in 2021. Irrespective of whether or not there is a change in the examination, however, there are two other solutions to the dilemma created by the mismatch between TBLT and the prescribed examination. One is to convince the teacher that TBLT can prepare students for a structural-based examination. In their evaluation of Prabhu's Communicational Language Teaching Project, Beretta and Davies (1985) provided evidence that students in the project were just as successful in a contextualised grammar test as students taught traditionally. However, it would be not easy to convince teachers (including my teacher) not to teach directly to the examination. The second solution is to accept that the teacher would still need to spend some time teaching to the examination but point out that this need not preclude using tasks in some lessons or for a short period (e.g. 10 minutes) in every lesson. Contextual obstacles to the implementation of TBLT should not prevent

local teachers from introducing it into their classroom, given the importance of developing learners' communicative proficiency (Harris, 2016, 2018). As Ellis (2009) argued, TBLT "can be used alongside a more traditional approach" (p. 242) because "alternative versions of TBLT are possible and indeed necessary to accommodate different instructional contexts" (Ellis, 2017, p. 508).

It should also be noted that following the 12-week training programme, I stayed in regular contact with the teacher through a social media platform. 1 month after the end of the programme, the teacher reported that he was continuing with TBLT. We discussed online the implementational problems that he encountered and the possible solutions to handle them. On another occasion, the teacher informed me that he had held a seminar in The *Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran Bahasa Inggris* (MGMP-BI) or English Teacher Sharing Forum in the school, sharing the knowledge and skills he had gained from the task-based programme. The teacher said that his fellow English teachers were positive about task-based language teaching. During the Covid-19 pandemic, when face-to-face classes were not possible, the teacher commented on the difficulty of doing TBLT online. The difficulties included technical problems (e.g. slow internet connection, lack of familiarity with teleconferencing) and skill-related problems (e.g., keeping the students' attention and fostering interaction). I sent him some literature on online TBLT practices (e.g. Baralt & Morcillo Gomez, 2017; Gonzalez-Lloret, 2016; Thomas & Reinders, 2010). In a recent communication with me, the teacher told me that this helped him use tasks online and handle implementational issues.

The teacher's willingness to continue using TBLT and share his knowledge and skills with other teachers suggests that he had come to recognise the feasibility of introducing TBLT in Indonesian classrooms and had developed a sense of ownership - an essential criterion for a successful innovation (Ellis, 1997a). The recent national decision to change the national examination should make it easier for the teacher to use TBLT more extensively.

6.2.3 Summing up

In conclusion, it can be argued that the task-based programme was successful in developing the teacher's understanding of tasks and developing a favourable attitude towards TBLT. However, I have also noted that the teacher's increased conceptual understanding and positive views about TBLT did not always translate into the smooth implementation of tasks in his classroom.

On balance, though, the mentoring I provided and the instructional skills that the teacher brought to the task-based lessons generally enabled him to find ways of dealing with the implementational problems.

Chapter 7. Research Question 3: Students' responses to the TBLT experience

In this chapter, I will present the findings for Research Question 3 (i.e. What are the students' opinions about task-based language teaching?). I will first describe the student questionnaire and then proceed to discuss the results. Some important points that emerge from the students' perspectives about task-based language teaching will be provided at the end of the chapter.

7.1 An analysis of students' responses to the questionnaire

This section provides an analysis of the students' responses to the TBLT experience questionnaire, which examined their feelings and attitudes to task-based language teaching. The questionnaire, which consisted of two sections (one for input-based tasks and the other for output-based tasks), was completed by the TBLT group at the beginning of the 7th week (Week 7 = W7) and at the end of the 12th week (Week 12 = W12). Using a 5-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Strongly Agree, and Agree), each section consisted of 10 questions relating to three major categories: task usefulness, task enjoyableness and task engagement.

Reliability (internal consistency) was tested using Alpha Cronbach. Kline (1999) proposed that an alpha that is bigger than 0.9 represents an excellent level of reliability, between 0.7 and 0.9 a good level, and between 0.6 and 0.7 an acceptable level. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for each section in each administration of the questionnaire are shown in Table 34 below. Table 34 shows that both questionnaire sections (input-based and output-based tasks) had an 'excellent' or a 'good' level of reliability.

Table 34

Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for Each Section

Section	Week 7	Week 12
Input-based tasks	.867	.776
Output-based tasks	.926	.852

Coakes (2005) claimed that "each statistical test has certain assumptions that must be met before analysis" (p. 73). As the analysis of this questionnaire involved t-tests, a normality assumption must be satisfied, i.e. the questionnaire scores must be tested to see whether they were normally distributed in the population. In this case, I ran a statistical test of normality – the Shapiro Wilk test. Table 35 below displays the result for each section in each administration.

Table 35

Shapiro-Wilk Test Results for Normality

Input-based tasks	Statistic	df	Sig.
Week 7	.975	24	.799
Week 12	.971	24	.704
Output-based tasks	Statistic	df	**Sig.**
Week 7	.981	24	.909
Week 12	.985	24	.965

As shown in Table 35, the significance value (p-value) of the Shapiro-Wilk Test for each section was greater than the alpha value (.05), indicating that the questionnaire data were normally distributed. This is consistent with what Sheridan (2005) says about the Shapiro-Wilks statistic in his book *SPSS for Windows: Analysis without Anguish*: "If the significance level is greater than .05, then normality is assumed" (p. 35).

In what follows, I will first report the results of the input-based task questionnaire and then proceed to the results of the output-based task questionnaire before finally reporting the students' responses to TBLT as a whole. I have chosen to report results for input-providing and output-prompting tasks separately because, during the 12-week task-based programme, the students were exposed to both types of tasks (i.e. the first 6 weeks consisted mainly of input-based tasks and the second 6 weeks mainly of output-based tasks). As input-based tasks have different characteristics from output-based tasks, it is important to gauge information about how the students perceived each type of task.

7.1.1 Results for the input-based task questions

The students' responses to each item of the input-based task questionnaire in the two sessions are summarised in Table 36 below.

Table 36

Student's Views on Input-Based Tasks (n=24)

No.	Statement	Mean (Week 7)	Standard Deviation (Week 7)	Mean (Week 12)	Standard Deviation (Week 12)
	Task usefulness				
1	Input-based tasks enrich my vocabulary	4.08	0.88	4.21	0.78
2	Input-based tasks develop my listening skills	3.96	0.69	4.00	0.59
	Mean and Standard Deviation of Task Usefulness	**4.02**	**0.67**	**4.11**	**0.49**
	Task enjoyableness				
3	With tasks, I feel comfortable (not bored) learning English in the classroom	4.08	0.97	4.25	0.90
4	With tasks, I want to have more time learning English in the classroom	3.46	0.93	3.67	0.92
5	Tasks are fun	4.33	0.76	4.25	0.68
	Mean and Standard Deviation of Task Enjoyableness	**3.96**	**0.79**	**4.06**	**0.66**
	Task engagement				
6	The tasks my teacher asked me to do were about the right level of difficulty for me	3.67	0.76	4.00	0.78
7	I could understand my teacher easily	3.38	0.77	3.58	0.88
8	I let my teacher know when I did not understand something	3.79	0.88	3.50	0.72

9	I found myself saying some of the words to myself as I listened to the teacher	3.42	1.10	3.75	0.79
10	I preferred using English to Indonesian throughout the lesson	2.63	0.97	2.83	0.96
Mean and Standard Deviation of Task Engagement		**3.38**	**0.68**	**3.53**	**0.55**
Overall Means and Standard Deviations		**3.68**	**0.59**	**3.80**	**0.46**

These results showed that in Week 7, there was general agreement among the students about the usefulness and enjoyableness of the input-based tasks and their level of engagement, but they were more positive about some aspects of the input-based tasks than others. For example, the students responded more positively to task usefulness (mean = 4.02) than to task enjoyableness (mean = 3.96) and task engagement (mean = 3.38). The differences in the mean scores in Week 7 between the task usefulness and task enjoyableness (t= 133.000, p= .005) and between the task enjoyableness and task engagement (t= 12.655, p= .050) were statistically significant, but the difference between task usefulness and task engagement (t= 11.563, p= .055) was not statistically significant. In Week 12, the students also responded favourably to all three aspects but again held a more positive attitude to task usefulness (mean = 4.11) than to task enjoyableness (mean = 4.06) and task engagement (mean = 3.53). In contrast to Week 7, the differences in Week 12 between individual categories were all statistically significant (task usefulness and task enjoyableness t= 163.400, p= .004; task usefulness and task engagement t= 13.172, p= .048; task enjoyableness and task engagement t= 14.321, p= .044).

The mean scores were all above 2.5, indicating a generally positive response to the input-based tasks. Despite an increase in the overall mean scores from Week 7 (3.68) to Week 12 (3.80), the change was not statistically significant. The paired sample t-test demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference between Week 7 and Week 12 either overall (t= -.986, p= .334) or for individual categories (task usefulness t= -.659, p= .517; task enjoyableness t = -.463, p= .648; task engagement t= -1.132, p= .269).

7.1.2 Results for the output-based task questions

The results for the output-based task questions are presented in Table 37 below.

Table 37

Student's Views on Output-Based Tasks (n=24)

No.	Statement	Mean Week 7	Standard Deviation Week 7	Mean Week 12	Standard Deviation Week 12
	Task usefulness				
1	Output-based tasks help me to communicate in English	3.88	0.85	3.96	0.75
2	Output-based tasks improve my pronunciation	3.96	0.81	4.25	0.74
	Mean and Standard Deviation of Task Usefulness	**3.92**	**0.83**	**4.11**	**0.75**
	Task enjoyableness				
3	With tasks, I feel comfortable (not bored) learning English in the classroom	3.71	1.00	4.21	0.93
4	With tasks, I want to have more time learning English in the classroom	3.21	1.06	3.92	1.02
5	Tasks are fun	4.29	0.75	4.42	0.65
	Mean and Standard Deviation of Task Enjoyableness	**3.74**	**0.94**	**4.18**	**0.87**
	Task engagement				
6	The tasks my teacher asked me to do were about the right level of difficulty for me	3.46	0.83	3.88	0.74
7	I had opportunities to initiate a talk	3.13	0.95	3.46	0.72
8	I let my teacher know when I did not understand something	3.50	0.93	3.50	0.78
9	I could respond to my teacher's questions	3.38	0.82	3.63	0.82

10	I preferred using English to Indonesian throughout the lesson	2.63	1.10	2.79	1.02
	Mean and Standard Deviation of Task Engagement	**3.22**	**0.93**	**3.45**	**0.82**
	Overall Mean and Standard Deviation of All Questions	**3.51**	**0.91**	**3.80**	**0.92**

The analysis of the output-based task questionnaire revealed that in Week 7, there was agreement among the students about the three task categories. However, they reacted more favourably to task usefulness (mean = 3.92) than to task enjoyableness (mean = 3.74) and task engagement (mean = 3.22). There were statistically significant differences in the mean scores between individual categories in Week 7 (task usefulness and task enjoyableness $t= 42.556$, $p= .015$; task usefulness and task engagement $t= 10.200$, $p= .062$; task enjoyableness and task engagement $t= 13.385$, $p= .047$). The students also demonstrated general agreement about task usefulness, task enjoyableness and task engagement in Week 12, but their response to task enjoyableness (mean = 4.18) was more positive than to task usefulness (mean = 4.11) and task engagement (mean = 3.45). Unlike Week 7, the differences in Week 12 were only statistically significant between task usefulness and task enjoyableness ($t= 118.429$, $p= .005$). The differences between task usefulness and task engagement ($t= 11.455$, $p= .055$) and between task enjoyableness and task engagement ($t= 10.452$, $p= .061$) were not statistically significant.

By and large, the students were supportive of the output-based tasks at both times. In other words, the mean scores above 2.5 in all categories suggest that there was a generally favourable reaction to the output-based tasks. The paired sample t-test results for the output-based tasks for Weeks 7 and 12 showed that the differences for the overall response ($t= -1.753$, $p= .093$) and for each category (task usefulness $t= -.941$, $p= .356$, task enjoyableness $t= -2.033$, $p = .054$, and task engagement $t= -1.382$, $p = .180$) were all not statistically significant.

7.1.3 Responses to TBLT in general

In addition to the students' opinions about the two different types of tasks, Tables 36 and 37 also show their views about general aspects of task-based language teaching. Overall, the students reported a high level of interest in or engagement with task-based language teaching at both times. For instance, their ratings of Item 5 ('tasks are fun') were higher (Table 36: 4.29, Table 37: 4.35)

than their ratings of other questions in the same category. They also expressed more favourable comments on Item 6 about the right level of task difficulty (Table 36: 3.83, Table 37: 3.67) than on other items. However, the student's responses to Item 10 regarding their preference for using English over Indonesian throughout the task-based lessons were relatively less positive (Table 36: 2.73, Table 37: 2.71) than their responses to other items whose average mean scores were all greater than 3.

Overall, the results indicate that the students responded somewhat more positively to input-providing tasks (overall mean: 3.74) than to output-prompting tasks (overall mean: 3.65) although there were no statistically significant differences between the input-based and output-based scores for each category (task usefuleness $t= 1.000$, $p= .500$, task enjoyableness $t= .294$, $p= .818$, and task engagement $t= 3.000$, $p= .205$) and for the overall response ($t= 1.052$, $p= .484$).

7.1.4 General findings

Findings from the questionnaire data suggest the following main points:

1. The students were positive about all aspects of both the input-based and output-based tasks, especially regarding their usefulness, in both Week 7 and Week 12.
2. There were no statistically significant differences in the students' ratings of task usefulness, enjoyableness and engagement in Weeks 7 and 12.
3. In general, the students favoured input-based tasks over output-based tasks, but the difference was not statistically significant.
4. The students' responses to overall aspects of task-based language teaching were generally positive, but their ratings for the use of the L2 was less positive.

7.2 Discussion

In Chapter 5, I examined how the students performed the tasks, providing evidence of their positive response to both input-based and output-based tasks. The results reported in this chapter showed that the students' perceptions of both types of tasks were also positive. Students' positive views about task-based language teaching have been reported in other studies involving older participants. Thai university EFL students in McDonough and Chaikitmongkol's (2007) study stated that task-based language teaching "encouraged them to become more independent and addressed their real

academic world needs" (p.107). Similarly, Huang (2016) reported that her students "recognized a positive relation of TBLT to their motivation for English study in terms of an enhanced interest in and enjoyment of the language itself, more active participation in classroom activities and strengthened study autonomy" (p. 124). More recently, Huang and Nisbet (2020) found out that High School students in China were generally positive about the tasks implemented in the study despite doubts about their English proficiency, large classes and high exam scores.

7.2.1 Input-based tasks

The students were positive about the input-based tasks at both times (Week 7 and Week 12). This finding is similar to Zhu's (2020) task-based study. Zhu found that Grade 2 Chinese school students had a very positive attitude towards input-based tasks, as shown in their responses to the student questionnaire administered in Week 3 and Week 5. They described the input-providing tasks as 'fun', 'engaging' and 'helping them to learn new words'. Similarly, the students in my study rated the reception-based tasks as useful (i.e. in terms of improving their listening skills and enhancing their vocabulary), enjoyable (i.e. in terms of their comfort and fun), and engaging (i.e. in terms of the extent of student engagement with the input-based tasks).

My reflective comments for Lesson 7, where I described how the students perceived the listen-and-do tasks, support the findings of the questionnaire:

> This lesson was on the topic of 'People's appearances' and comprised two tasks. In the first task, students listened to descriptions of different people and used their index fingers to point to the relevant pictures. In the second task, the students listened again to descriptions of different people and wrote down the letter of each picture to show they had understood the descriptions of the pictures. In both tasks, I could see that the students were actively and enthusiastically involved in the activities. Following my lesson observation, I had an informal discussion with the students during the breaktime to obtain some information about their perceptions of the language tasks they had performed. One student commented that the tasks were 'so enjoy for me'. Another student stated that the tasks were 'fun'. Some other students described the language tasks as 'easy to understand' and 'make me happy to study'. The students also said that they liked the language tasks because they involved games. By and large, the students' comments in Lesson 7 indicate that they had formed a positive view about the listen-and-do tasks in this lesson.

Examining students' perceptions is important for understanding teaching and learning processes. Rifkin (2000), for instance, noted that beliefs that learners hold about language learning "are of

critical importance to the success or failure of any student's efforts to master a foreign language" (p. 394). Bao and Kirkebæk (2013), in their study of students learning Chinese as a foreign language (CFL), concluded that the successful implementation of TBLT in a Danish language classroom was heavily reliant on how the students perceived the learning activities and outcomes. In a similar vein, Zhu (2020) was also able to demonstrate that the student-based evaluation and reflection she conducted in the first phase of the task-based programme not only developed the practising teacher's confidence in implementing TBLT but also helped the teacher to make her teaching more engaging for the students.

7.2.2 Output-based tasks

The students also exhibited favourable dispositions towards the output-based tasks in Week 7 and Week 12. For example, they believed that the output-prompting tasks were useful for helping them to communicate in English, a finding which was also reported by Kurniawan et al. (2018) in their study of Indonesian students' willingness to communicate when performing production-based tasks (e.g. jigsaw-game tasks). Bao and Kirkebæk (2013) documented how the Danish students in their study had a favourable view about the oral communicative tasks in a Chinese task-based course. In particular, the students described the language tasks as "helping build their confidence in speaking and writing Chinese" (p.70). Huang and Nisbet (2020), who investigated High School students' perceptions of production-based tasks in China, found out that the students reacted most favourably to tasks that "prepare me to communicate in real life' (p.64). This corroboration of findings suggests that students in different instructional contexts are positive about output-based tasks in helping them communicate in the target language.

In addition to task usefulness, the students rated the output-based tasks as enjoyable. This finding mirrors those of earlier studies on the implementation of output-based tasks in Indonesia. In a study with a group of freshmen at a local university, Mukminatien (2000) reported that the students "enjoyed the writing tasks" (p.192), especially because the tasks bore relevance to their real life. Similarly, Rohani (2013) concluded that the students in her semester-long course, where TBLT was introduced for the first time, found the oral communication tasks interesting, challenging and relaxing. My reflective journal entries also record that the students were generally positive about the output-based tasks in most of the lessons that the teacher taught. For instance, here is what I wrote about the word-guess task in Lesson 8:

The topic for this lesson was 'people's jobs' and involved a picture-describing activity. In this oral task, students were divided into five groups. Each group had five members. One student from each group volunteered and randomly selected four cards containing pictures of jobs. The volunteer student described in words the four jobs in the card to his/her group members in two minutes. The group members guessed the jobs being described by their friend. Another member of the performing group acted as a scorer giving scores for a correct guess, while the teacher helped as an MC and timekeeper. After the class, I asked the students' opinions about the word-guess activity they had just carried out. Some students said that they enjoyed the output-prompting task because it was conducted as a fun game (i.e. one group raced against another to win the word-guess contest). One student stated that the activity made him/her 'talk in English' although he/she had limited vocabulary. Another student commented that the game was 'an easy way to study English' because they were allowed to use keywords in Indonesian when describing the picture. In conclusion, the students were happy and favourably disposed towards the production-based task in this lesson.

7.2.3 General response

The overall mean scores of the student questionnaire revealed that the students were a little more favourably disposed towards the input-based tasks than the output-based tasks. Whereas the input-based tasks required learners to "just listen or read to achieve the outcome" (Ellis, 2019, p. 95), the output-based tasks required them "to speak or write to complete the task" (Ellis, 2019, p. 96). In other words, the language demands of the input-based tasks were lower than those of the output-based tasks. Perhaps, this was the reason why the students preferred the input-based tasks. The students' preference for the input-providing tasks might also be because they were beginner-level learners with limited communicative ability. As Prabhu (1987) pointed out, beginner learners are likely to respond better to input-driven tasks than production tasks. Another possible factor contributing to the students' more favourable rating of the input-based tasks was their previous learning experience. The students in my study were accustomed to teacher-fronted instruction where the teacher talked most of the time. Horwirtz (1990) contended that learners' prior experiences with traditional form-focused pedagogy might exert an influence on their perceptions about communicative language teaching activities. The students liked the input-based tasks because they were teacher-centred, but then they also liked the output-based tasks because they were learner-centred.

Another important finding from the student questionnaire concerned the students' preference for using English to Indonesian throughout the lesson. Despite their general positive comments about task-based language teaching, the students reacted less positively to this aspect of task engagement

(i.e. they believed that there was too much use of the L1 and too little use of the L2). Reporting on her study of Indonesian students' language learning beliefs in Australia, Erlenawati (2002) identified that one of the many misconceptions that learners hold about foreign language learning was "you should not say anything in the language until you can say it correctly" (p. 325). It is possible that the students in my task-based study were still holding this view and thus rated this question about the use of the L1 lower than other questions. In her review of TBLT in the Asian contexts, Lai (2015) posited that learner-related challenges to TBLT (e.g. learners' reluctance in using the target language when performing tasks) are often associated with their learning beliefs and habits. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the students in my study still scored above the mean in their preference for English over Indonesian.

I also found no differences in the students' evaluations in Weeks 7 and 12. This suggests that their perceptions of TBLT remained positive throughout the 12 weeks. A similar finding was reported by Zhu (2020), who found out that her Chinese students maintained a steadily favourable view about task-based instruction over the 6-week task-based study.

7.2.4 Summing up

In the main, the students responded similarly to the questions about usefulness, enjoyableness and engagement. This may have been because the students did not clearly understand the difference between these three constructs and just registered a positive response to TBLT in general. Ruso (2007), in his Turkey-based study and Bao and Kirkebæk (2013) in his Denmark-based study, also found that the students reacted favourably to task-based language teaching in terms of these three categories. Put simply; the results showed that the students in their studies, as in my project, liked TBLT because it was *useful* for developing their language learning skills; it fostered an *enjoyable* learning atmosphere; it enhanced their *engagement* in the classroom.

In conclusion, by and large, the students responded positively to all aspects of the implementation of tasks (both input- and output-based tasks) in their classroom throughout the 12-week task-based programme.

Chapter 8. Research Question 4: Learning outcomes

This chapter presents the findings for Research Question 4 (i.e. To what extent is task-based language teaching effective in improving students' English proficiency?). In this chapter, I will first provide an analysis of the test scores and move on to a discussion on the test results. I will conclude this chapter by outlining some essential points related to the research findings.

8.1 Tests

The test scores were obtained from the pre-test held prior to the start of the study, from the mid-test conducted in the middle of the study and from the post-test given at the end of the study. The tests consisted of four sections: Listening, Speaking, Story-telling, and Vocabulary and were administered to both TBLT and Comparison Groups. The content of the mid-test and post-test and the order of the items were exactly the same as the pre-test. Given that there were 6 weeks between the three administrations of the test, reordering the items in the test was not considered necessary. The test scores were compared using the mixed-design ANOVA (SPANOVA - 3 x 2 factorial design) to examine whether there were statistically significant differences between the scores of the TBLT and Comparison Groups. When there were any significant effects or interactions, posthoc tests were conducted to locate the exact sources of differences in the scores.

I will start by giving a description of the instruction that the Comparison Group received and proceed to present the test results for both groups section by section (Listening, Speaking, Story-telling, and Vocabulary).

8.2 Comparison group

The Comparison Group (Class 7PB) was an intact class in the school consisting of 26 first-year students. It was a traditional class taught by a school-appointed English teacher whose common teaching practice was based on grammar-focused instruction. This 26-year-old female teacher was a different teacher from the TBLT teacher. After receiving a Bachelor's degree in English language education, she attended a 6-month pre-service teacher training programme. She had taught English in the school for around 4 years. Like the TBLT Group, most of the students in the Comparison Group were not complete beginners of English as they had had experienced English instruction in

their primary schools, and some of them had attended private English lessons outside of the school hours. Nevertheless, they had a low level of communicative ability. Both the teacher and students in this group had had no experience with task-based language teaching/learning before. The teacher taught her students using a notional/functional syllabus based on the 2013 National Curriculum. This English syllabus is structured around a list of language functions, including common greetings, personal introductions, telling time, describing things/animals/people, daily activities, and songs. Each language functions come with specific language items to be mastered by the students to prepare them for the form-focused National Exam at the end of a semester. There was a central topic in a typical unit in the English textbook that the teacher used (i.e. *Interactive English 1* authored by Indriastuty et al., 2016). For instance, one unit centred on the topic of 'describing animals' and included an introduction to adjectives and *'to be',* while in another unit, the topic was 'daily activities' with a discussion of the simple present tense and W-H questions.

To investigate the teaching and learning process in the Comparison Group, I observed the comparison class three times: at the beginning of the study (Week 1), in the middle of the study (Week 6) and at the end of the study (Week 12). During the observations, I used an observation checklist based on Ellis's (2003, p. 253) list of stereotypical classroom processes in traditional and task-based pedagogy to help me record what happened in the classroom. In general, the instructional approach that the teacher adopted consisted of Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP).

In Week 1, for example, the teacher taught a lesson on the topic of 'Introductions'. The main objective of the lesson was 'students will be able to introduce themselves and others using correct pronouns'. In the presentation stage, the teacher explained about three types of pronouns (i.e. subject, object and possessive pronouns) and provided examples of how to use them in performing introductions (e.g. *I am a.........., he lives in.........,* *you can call me.............,* and *her job is.........*). In the practice stage, the students were asked to do some exercises related to the target structure, such as completing a missing dialogue with correct pronouns, practising a given conversation in pairs, and answering questions from a reading text. In the production stage, the students performed some activities to practice producing the targeted structure, such as going around the class and introducing themselves to their classmates, role-playing somebody else's identity, and writing a paragraph about one of their friends and reading it aloud in front of the class.

In Week 6 (on the topic of 'Telling Time and Dates') and Week 12 (on the topic of 'Things Around Me'), the teacher followed the same PPP procedures in delivering the lessons with specific language elements taught directly to students. For instance, there was a list of grammatical structures/ words

to be taught in Week 6 (i.e. ordinal numbers, prepositions of time, days of the month and months of the year) and in Week 12 (i.e. articles, demonstrative pronouns and prepositions of place). In terms of the classroom behaviours, over the three lessons, the teacher functioned as a knowledge transmitter who controlled most of the talk, and the students were placed mostly in a responding role as listeners. There was limited use of the L2 (i.e. English) by the teacher in the classroom, and the students used Indonesian to talk to their friends during the performance of class activities. The turn-taking in the three lessons was, for the most part, regulated by the teacher, and the students had a limited chance to self-select. For instance, in Week 12, the teacher nominated students to act out a dialogue about things in a classroom with the focus on correct pronunciation. The teacher provided feedback, but this mainly consisted of correcting their wrong use of the targeted structure. For example, when a student mentioned his/her birthday using a cardinal number in Week 6 (*I was born on three June*), the teacher explicitly corrected the student's utterance (*Not three June but the third of June*).

In conclusion, the teacher's teaching style was traditional in many respects, and as a result, the students acted primarily as language learners instead of language users. This can be seen, for example, in the way the teacher led the classroom discourse using IRF exchanges (initiate-respond-feedback) which put the students in a passive role. The teacher controlled topic development from the beginning to the end of the lessons, and the students had little or no chance to initiate a talk. The teacher asked many questions throughout the lessons, but they were mostly comprised of display questions to test her students' understanding of particular concepts or language elements. In contrast, the students asked few questions, perhaps because they had little opportunity or confidence to negotiate for meaning. The teacher used scaffolding and feedback in her lessons, but these were aimed at the correct usage of targeted structures (i.e. they were form-focused). Overall, the teacher displayed a set of "classroom behaviours that are typical of a form-focused pedagogy where language is treated as an object, and the students are required to act as learners" (Ellis, 2003, p. 253).

8.3 Test results

The internal consistency of the tests was measured using Alpha Cronbach. Based on Kline's (1999) criteria for reliability levels (i.e. $\alpha > 0.9$ = excellent, $0.7 – 0.9$ = good, and $0.6 – 0.7$ = acceptable), the Alpha Cronbach results revealed that the four test sections had an 'excellent' or 'good' level of reliability. Table 38 below displays the reliability coefficients for each section of the student tests in each group.

Table 38

Reliability Results for Both Groups

Test Section	Comparison Group	TBLT Group
Listening	.889	.928
Speaking	.958	.936
Story-telling	.948	.945
Vocabulary	.868	.897

I conducted a normality test (i.e. the Shapiro-Wilk test) to investigate whether the test scores were normally distributed. The normality test results showed that the student test scores were normally distributed except for the speaking and story-telling sections in the Comparison Group, whose significance values (*p*-value) were less than .05. The results of the Shapiro-Wilk test for each section in each group are presented in Table 39 below.

Table 39

Normality Results for Both Groups

Test Section	Comparison Group	TBLT Group
Listening	.505	.713
Speaking	.022	.077
Story-telling	.000	.228
Vocabulary	.776	.414

As is shown by Table 39, the listening and vocabulary tests were normally distributed and thus required a parametric test, while the speaking and story-telling tests did not have a normal distribution and therefore needed a non-parametric test.

8.3.1 Listening test scores

As Table 40 and Figure 4 show, there was an increase in the TBLT Group's scores from pre-test (M= 58.11, SD= 16.46) to mid-test (M= 68.84, SD= 16.58) and post-test (M= 72, SD= 15.49) in the listening section. The Comparison Group demonstrated a decrease from pre-test (M= 67.27, SD = 12.51) to mid-test (M= 64.91, SD= 15.11) but an increase in the post-test score (M= 68, SD= 14.60). Overall, the TBLT Class demonstrated more progress (from 58 to 72) than the Comparison Class (from 67 to 68).

Table 40

Descriptive Statistics of Listening Scores

Test	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mode	Median	Range	Minimum	Maximum
Pre-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	58.11	16.46	52	52	64	28	92
	Comparison (n=22)	67.27	12.51	60[a]	64	44	52	96
Mid-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	68.84	16.58	64[a]	64	56	40	96
	Comparison (n=22)	64.91	15.11	64	64	56	40	96
Post-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	72	15.49	56[a]	76	48	48	96
	Comparison (n=22)	68	14.60	64[a]	68	52	40	92

Figure 4

Interaction Effect for Listening Scores
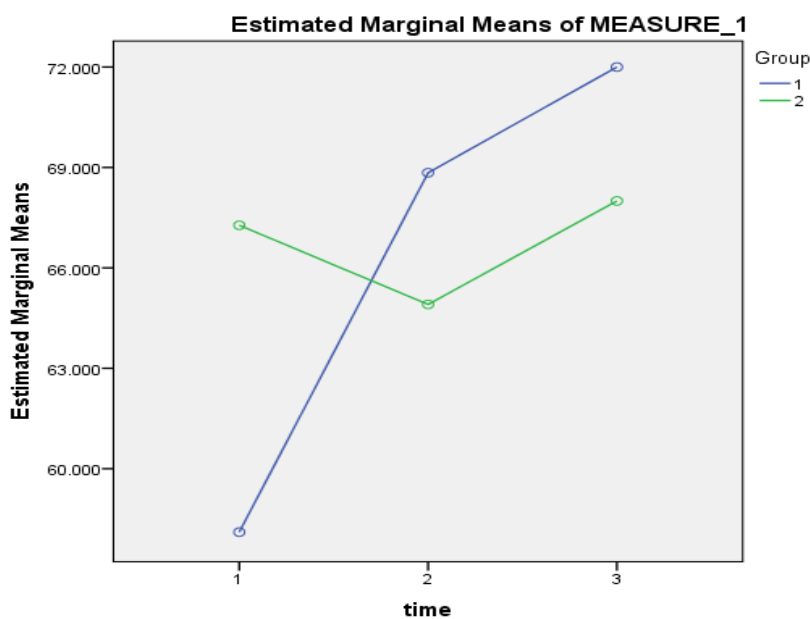
Group 1 = TBLT Group, Group 2 = Comparison Group

The assumption of variance homogeneity was not violated as measured by Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices ($p > .001$) and Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances ($p > .05$). A mixed-design ANOVA (SPANOVA) was calculated to assess the effects of within-subjects variable (repeated measures) and between-subjects variable (groups). The SPANOVA test results indicate that there were statistically significant differences for TIME ($F(2,78)= 10.526$, $p= .000$) and TIME-GROUP interaction ($F(2,78)= 11.245$, $p= .000$). However, the difference for GROUP was not statistically significant ($F(1,39)=.009$, $p= .925$). As the time-by-group interaction reached significance, the differences were explored further using a posthoc test. The posthoc Bonferroni analysis of Multiple Comparisons revealed that the test scores of the TBLT Group rose significantly from Time 1 to Time 3 ($F(2,54)= 3.849$, $p= .032$) but not from Time 1 to Time 2 ($F(2,54)= 3.849$, $p= .137$) nor from Time 2 to Time 3 ($F(2,54)= 3.849$, $p= 1.000$). However, the Comparison group did not significantly increase their test scores between any test periods ($p > .05$).

Effect sizes were measured using Cohen's d. As an extension of J. Cohen's (1988) effect size descriptors, Sawilowsky (2009) suggested that the effect size (d) between .01 and .19 is *very small*, d (.20 - .49) is *small*, d (.50 - .79) is *medium*, d (.80 - 1.19) is *large*, d (1.20 – 2.00) is *very large*, and d (> 2.00) is *huge*. The Cohen's d results showed that the effect sizes in the TBLT group for T1-T2 was medium ($d = .650$), T2-T3 very small ($d = .197$) and T1-T3 large ($d = .869$). On the other hand, the effect sizes in the Comparison Group for T1-T2 was very small ($d = .170$), T2-T3 small ($d = .208$) and T1-T3 very small ($d = .053$). Furthermore, the sizes of mean differences for T1 between the two groups was medium ($d = .627$), and small for T2 and T3 ($d = .248$; ($d = .266$). It is important to note that at T1 the Comparison Group had a higher score than the TBLT Group, but at T2 and T3 the TBLT Group produced higher scores then the Comparison Group.

8.3.2 Speaking test scores

Table 41 and Figure 5 present the results for the TBLT and Comparison Groups. While the mean score of the TBLT Group rose considerably from 36 to 55 to 68, the average score of the Comparison Group increased only slightly from 35 to 38 to 42.

Table 41

Descriptive Statistics of Speaking Scores

Test	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mode	Median	Range	Minimum	Maximum
Pre-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	35.67	25.19	6[a]	39.58	70	0	70
	Comparison (n=22)	36.08	21.22	3[a]	35.94	73	3	76
Mid-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	55.08	23.53	76	56.25	73	19	92
	Comparison (n=22)	38.68	23.09	21[a]	26.04	70	13	82
Post-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	67.54	22.26	19[a]	67.71	81	19	100
	Comparison (n=22)	42.66	21.51	61	33.85	66	13	78

Figure 5

Interaction Effect for Speaking Scores
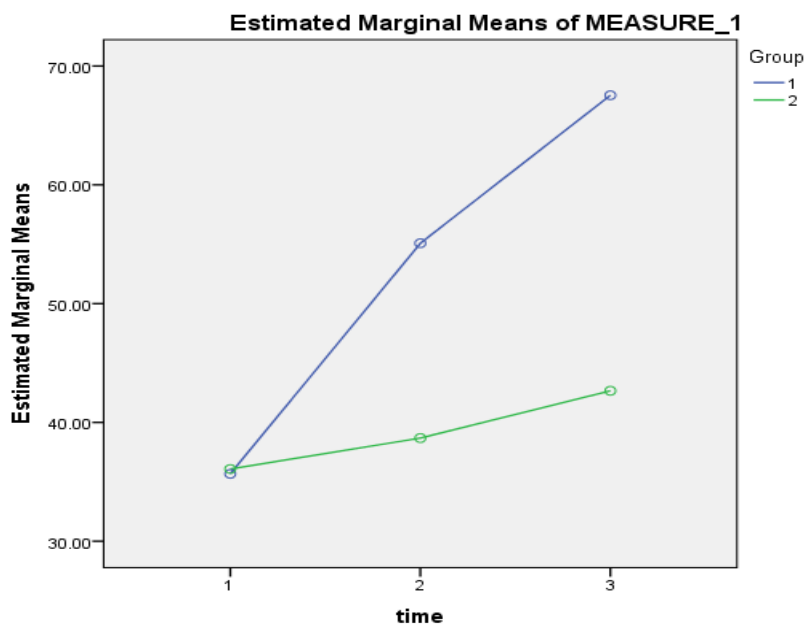
Group 1 = TBLT Group, Group 2 = Comparison Group

As mentioned earlier, because the speaking test scores were not normally distributed, I performed a non-parametric test (i.e. the Kruskal-Wallis test) to compare the learning gains of the TBLT and Comparison Groups at three times (pre-, mid- and post-tests). This test provided evidence of a difference ($H(1)= 3.949$, $p= .047$) in test scores between the two groups. Because the overall H-value was significant, a posthoc analysis was carried out for both groups to investigate the nature of differences. The posthoc Dunn test of Pairwise Comparisons showed that the test scores of the TBLT group significantly increased from Time 1 (T1) to Time 3 (T3) ($p= .001$) but not from Time 1 (T1) to Time 2 (T2) ($p= .115$) nor from Time 2 (T2) to Time 3 (T3) ($p= .461$). The Comparison Group,

however, did not significantly increase their test scores between any test times (p > .05). The posthoc test also revealed that the TBLT and Comparison Groups did not differ in their pre-test score (*p*= .937) but their mid-test(*p* = .027) and post-test scores(*p* = .002) were significantly different in favour of the TBLT group.

Cohen's *d* was calculated to compare the sizes of the mean differences of the two groups. The within-group results revealed that the effect sizes in the TBLT Group were medium for T1-T2 (*d* = .796), medium (*d* = .544) for T2-T3, and very large (*d* = 1.340) for T1-T3. On the contrary, the effect sizes in the Comparison group at T1-T2 was very small (*d* = .117), T2-T3 very small (*d* = .178) and T1-T3 small (*d* = .307). In addition, Cohen's *d* results for between-group mean differences showed that the effect size at T1 was very small (*d* = .017) but large at T2 and T3 (*d* = .990; *d* = 1.136).

8.3.3 Story-telling test scores

Table 42 presents the descriptive statistics for the TBLT and Comparison Groups' story-telling scores. While the TBLT Group's score increased from 30 to 45 and then to 59, the Comparison Group showed a decrease from 24 to 20 to 22 (see also Figure 6).

Table 42

Descriptive Statistics of Story-telling Scores

Test	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mode	Median	Range	Minimum	Maximum
Pre-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	29.93	31.50	0	18.75	87.50	0	87.50
	Comparison (n=22)	25.85	30.21	0	9.37	100	0	100
Mid-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	45.39	31.93	37.50	43.75	100	0	100
	Comparison (n=22)	20.45	30.87	0	0	100	0	100
Post-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	58.55	31.47	68.75	68.75	100	0	100
	Comparison (n=22)	23.01	33.48	0	3.12	100	0	100

Figure 6

Interaction Effect for Story-telling Scores

Estimated Marginal Means of MEASURE_1
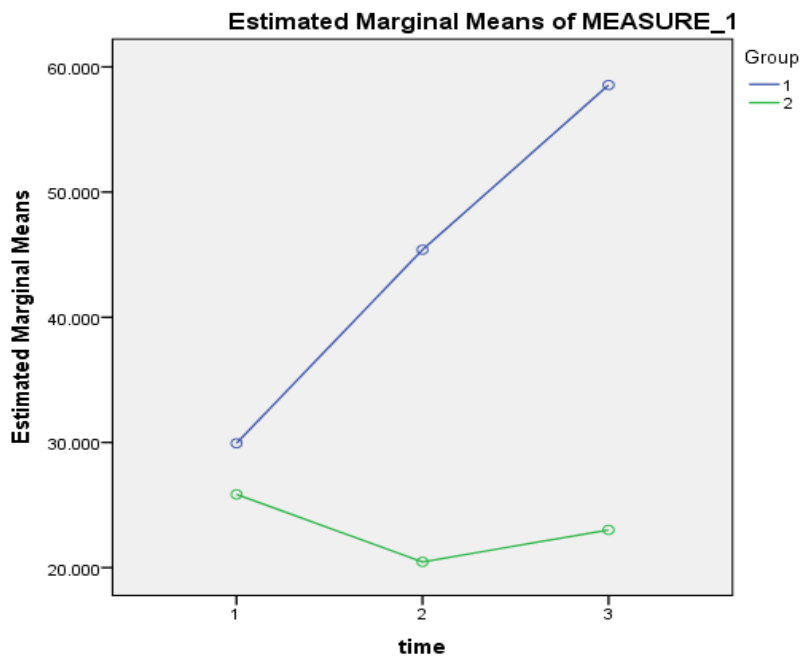
Group 1 = TBLT Group, Group 2 = Comparison Group

The story-telling scores were not normally distributed, so the Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to compare the scores of the TBLT and Comparison groups at the three different test periods. A significant overall result was found ($H(1)= 5.520$, $p= .019$), indicating that the groups' scores differed. To explore the location of the differences, I ran a follow-up Dunn test. The results revealed that there was a significant increase in the TBLT Group' scores from Time 1 to Time 3 ($p= .026$) but not from Time 1 to Time 2 ($p= .374$) nor from Time 2 to Time 3 ($p= .821$). On the other hand, no significant increase was found in the Comparison Group between any of the test periods ($p > .05$). The results of the follow-up test also indicate that there was no significant difference ($p= .661$) in the pre-test scores of the TBLT and Comparison Groups. However, the mid-test and post-test scores ($p = .006$); $p = .003$) significantly differed across the two groups in favour of the TBLT Group.

Based on Sawilowsky's (2009) descriptors, in the TBLT Group there were small effect sizes at T1-T2 ($d = .487$) and T2-T3 ($d = .415$), and a large effect size at T1-T3 ($d = .908$). However, the effect sizes in the Comparison Group at T1-T2 ($d = .176$), T2-T3 ($d = .079$) and T1-T3 ($d = .089$) were all very small. Comparing the TBLT and Comparison Groups, I found a very small effect size at T1 ($d = .132$), a moderate effect size at T2 ($d = .794$) and a large effect size at T3 ($d = 1.094$).

8.3.4 Vocabulary test scores

Table 43 shows that the mean vocabulary scores of both groups increased. The TBLT Group's scores went up from pre-test (*M*= 70.74, *SD*= 18.52) to mid-test (*M*= 75.79, *SD*= 14.63) and to post-test (*M* = 80, *SD*= 13) and the scores of the Comparison Group also increased from pre-test (*M*= 68.18, *SD*= 14.37) to mid-test (*M*= 71.82, *SD*= 13.60) and to post-test (*M*= 74.73, *SD*= 14.88). Over the three test periods, the TBLT Group's scores increased more (from 71 to 76 to 80) than the Comparison Group (from 68 to 72 to 75) (See Figure 7 below).

Table 43

Descriptive Statistics of Vocabulary Scores

Test	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mode	Median	Range	Minimum	Maximum
Pre-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	70.74	18.53	60[a]	76	60	36	96
	Comparison (n=22)	68.18	14.37	84	72	44	44	88
Mid-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	75.79	14.63	76[a]	80	52	44	96
	Comparison (n=22)	71.82	13.60	68	70	52	44	96
Post-test Score	TBLT (n=19)	80	13	80[a]	80	52	48	100
	Comparison (n=22)	74.73	14.88	68	74	60	40	100

Figure 7

Interaction Effect for Vocabulary Scores
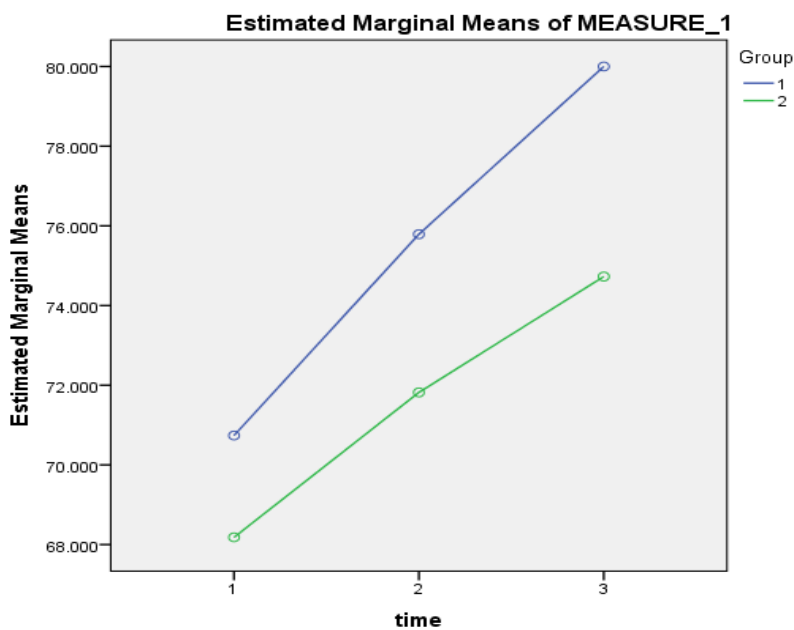
Group 1 = TBLT Group, Group 2 = Comparison Group

The homogeneity statistics showed that the *p*-values were not significant (Box's M p > .001; Levene's test p > .05), indicating that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated. The SPANOVA results for vocabulary revealed that the differences for TIME ($F(1.82,70.90)= 10.115$, *p*= .000) was statistically significant but there were no statistically significant differences for TIME-GROUP interaction ($F(1.82,70.90)=.298$, *p*= .708) nor for GROUP ($F(1.39) =.878$, *p*= .355). Because the time-by-group interaction was not significant, posthoc tests were not computed.

Using Sawilowsky's (2009) guidelines for the interpretation of Cohen's *d*, I found small effect sizes for T1-T2 (*d* = .302) and T2-T3 (*d* = .304) but a moderate effect size for T1-T3 (*d* = .579) for the TBLT Group. In the Comparison Group, however, the effect sizes for T1-T2 (*d* = .260), T2-T3 (*d* = .204) and T1-T3 (*d* = .448) were all small. Moreover, I found very small effect sizes for group comparisons at T1 (*d* = .154) and small effect sizes at T2 and T3 (*d* = .281;*d* = .377). In each case, the TBLT Group outscored the Comparison Group.

8.3.5 General findings

The analysis of the test scores above can be summarised as follows:

1. In the listening test, the scores of the TBLT Group rose more than the Comparison Group over time. There was a large size effect in the TBLT Group for T1-T3, while the effect sizes between any of the test periods in the Comparison Group were small. At Time 1, the Comparison Group scored higher than the TBLT Group (with a medium effect size), but at Times 2 and 3, the TBLT scored higher with small effect sizes.

2. In the speaking test, the TBLT Group exhibited greater progress than the Comparison Group over time. The within-group results revealed that there was a very large size effect in the TBLT Group for T1-T3, but the effect sizes in the Comparison Group between all the test periods were small. Results for the between-group mean differences showed that the effect sizes for T2 and T3 were large in favour of the TBLT Group but small for T1.

3. In the story-telling test, the TBLT Group's scores increased more than the Comparison Group over time. The within-group results showed that there was a large size effect for the TBLT Group for T1-T3 and very small effect sizes for the Comparison Group between all the test periods. The between-group results revealed that there was a large size effect in favour of the TBLT Group at T3 but moderate and small size effects for T2 and T1.

4. In the vocabulary test, the TBLT Group produced higher scores than the Comparison Group over time with a medium effect size for T1-T3. The effect sizes in the Comparison Group were small for all cases. At T3, the TBLT Group outscored the Comparison Group with a medium effect size.

Overall, task-based language teaching was clearly more effective in enhancing the TBLT Group's listening, speaking, story-telling, and vocabulary skills in that it manifested larger gains than the Comparison Group.

8.4 Discussion

In this section, I will discuss the research findings for Research Question 4. For the sake of convenience, I will discuss the results for the four tests separately.

8.4.1 Listening

The effect size for the difference between T1 and T3 in the TBLT Group was large, whereas the within-group effect sizes for the Comparison Group were all small. That is, there was a significant increase in the TBLT Group's listening scores from the pre-test to the post-test, while the Comparison Group did not show any significant improvement in their listening scores between the pre-test, mid-test, and post-test. In fact, the scores of the Comparison Group decreased from the pre-test to the mid-test.

In general, the TBLT Group performed better than the Comparison Group on the listening test (i.e. higher learning gains from one test to another, especially from T1 to T3). This finding lent support to an earlier study conducted by Beretta and Davies (1985). In their longitudinal comparative study involving 390 participants from four different schools in India, Beretta and Davies reported that the task-based group did better than the structural-based group on a listening comprehension test. Recently, Noshad and Zamanian (2017) reported a similar result in their task-based study, which examined the effect of task-based language teaching on 80 beginning-level EFL students' listening comprehension skills in Iran. The participants, aged between 11 and 14 years old, were divided into an experimental group that received task-based instruction and a control group that received structural-based instruction. The semester-long study resulted in the experimental group significantly outperforming the control group. The findings of all these studies (including my task-based study) point to TBLT resulting in noteworthy improvement in learners' listening

comprehension ability. They indicate that a task-based approach is more effective than a traditional form-focused method in improving students' listening skills.

The improvement in the TBLT Group's listening abilities reflects the nature of the teaching that this group experienced. In the TBLT Group, the students were exposed to task-based activities, especially input-based tasks, which supported students' listening comprehension skills. The Comparison Group, on the contrary, experienced form-focused instruction which lacked listening comprehension activities. In other words, the Comparison Groups' failure to improve in listening comprehension is likely to be because they had very limited opportunities to listen to English.

In conclusion, the strongest evidence for a positive effect for TBLT lies in clear gains from T1 to T3. This can be put down to the fact that a large portion of the tasks were input-based tasks and the fact that the teacher made efforts to use English as much as possible.

8.4.2 Speaking

In contrast to the small effect sizes obtained by the Comparison Group between all the test times, the effect size for the TBLT Group between Time 1 and Time 3 was very large. This indicates that the TBLT Group's speaking scores rose significantly from the pre-test to the post-test while the Comparison Group showed little change in their scores between the pre-test, mid-test and post-test. The between-group comparison results also revealed that there were significant differences in mean scores for T2 and T3 in favour of the TBLT Group.

These findings are consistent with earlier studies comparing the effects of task-based teaching and form-focused teaching on students' speaking abilities. Mann (2006), for example, compared the development of the oral skills of overseas law students at a local university in the United Kingdom. The students were assigned to Group A that experienced task-based activities, and Group B teacher-led drills/exercises. In his report, Mann concluded that task-based instruction was "capable of providing learners with greater long-term benefits" (p.217) in oral skills than structural-based instruction. Similarly, Arslannyilmaz (2013) carried out a comparative study investigating learners' speech production where he placed 28 secondary school students in two groups: a Task-Based Instruction (TBI) group and a Form-Focused Instruction (FFI) group. The TBI students completed information-gap tasks, whereas the FFI students controlled cloze activities. Noting that the FFI class was "dominated by the teacher's talk" (p. 310), Arslannyilmaz suggested this could explain why the TBI class outscored the FFI class on the oral production measures. Hasan (2014) examined the

effects of TBLT and PPP on the speaking abilities of Saudi EFL learners. Using 44 secondary school students as research participants, Hasan found that the speaking skills of the experimental group improved significantly in comparison to the control group. My task-based study affirms the results of these other comparative studies - Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is more likely to develop students' speaking ability than Form-Focused Instruction (FFI).

The improvement in the speaking scores of the TBLT Group can be attributed to the fact that TBLT provides a natural context for students to use the L2 when performing meaningful tasks. Output-prompting tasks, in particular, encourage learners to practise speaking the target language through negotiation of meaning. Input-providing tasks also afford opportunities for students' output, as evident in Shintani's (2014) study and my own study. In contrast to traditional forms of instruction where learners are treated as passive learners (listeners), task-based language teaching provides learners with the opportunity to perform an active role as communicators where they can freely express their ideas to the rest of the class and request clarifications from the teacher when there is a communication breakdown. The Comparison Group's underachievement in the speaking test was perhaps because they had little opportunity to express themselves verbally.

To conclude, the clearest evidence favouring TBLT comes from the within-group time comparisons (i.e. significant learning gains from T1 to T3). This can be ascribed to the fact that the students were exposed to input-based and output-based tasks coupled with the fact that the teacher scaffolded the student's production during the performance of tasks.

8.4.3 Story-telling

There was a large size effect for the TBLT Group between Time 1 and Time 3, whereas the effect sizes for the Comparison Group were small between all the test periods. This suggests that the task-based learners exhibited significant progress from the pre-test to the post-test while there was no significant improvement in the scores of the structural-based students. There was a large size effect in favour of the TBLT Group at T3 but moderate and small size effects at T2 and T1. The difference in mean scores between the two groups was large at T3, favouring the TBLT Group.

Similar to the speaking test, the TBLT Group significantly outperformed the Comparison Group in the story-telling section (i.e. larger learning gains from one test to another, particularly from T1 to T3). This echoes the results of a study conducted by González-Lloret and Nielson (2015). In a comparative study that included 20 participants from a task-based programme and 19 students from

the previously taught structural-based programme, González-Lloret and Nielson found that the TBLT group's story-telling performance was better than the traditional group in terms of oral fluency and complexity. My study and González-Lloret and Nielson's study suggest that task-based language teaching is a better option than form-oriented instruction for improving students' story-telling competence.

These results can be explained by the fact that the TBLT students experienced narrative or story-telling tasks. The narrative tasks were taught to the students in both modes: input-providing and output-prompting tasks. In the input-based activities, the students were shown a picture composition consisting of four wordless pictures depicting a short story. The picture composition was cut up into separate pictures. The task required students to work out the correct order of the pictures based on the teacher's story by writing numbers 1 to 4 on the picture. In the output-based activities, four students volunteered to come to the front of the class. The teacher gave each student one picture and told them that they had 3 minutes to plan how to describe their picture to the rest of the class. The four students took turns to describe their pictures. They could not see the other students' pictures. The rest of the class were told that the pictures were not being described in the correct order, so they had to listen carefully to try to work out what happened. Individual students from the rest of the class asked the four students at the front questions about their pictures to get a clearer idea of what happened. As we have seen, the students were not only exposed to the organization and language of a narrative task, but they were also encouraged to tell the story in their own words. In a study involving Japanese EFL learners and their narrative task performance, Kiernan (2005) pointed to the potential of narrative tasks in enriching language input and in generating language output for beginner-level learners:

> Such tasks offer an effective introduction to L2 story-telling, especially where the listener is given an active role. They allow low-level learners to experience the cognitive demands of piecing together a story and sharing it without the problem of having to think of one (p. 63).

However, it was likely that the Comparison Group did not experience any narrative tasks, which might have limited their ability to retell stories from wordless pictures.

In short, the Task-Based Group improved noticeably between T1 and T3, which can be explained by the fact that the teaching involved narrative tasks and the teacher's use of modelling and scaffolding strategies throughout the story-telling lessons.

8.4.4 Vocabulary

In the vocabulary section, there was a medium effect size for the TBLT Group at T1 and T3 and the effect sizes for the Comparison Group between all the test periods were small. This indicates that the TBLT Group's vocabulary scores grew moderately from the pre-test to the post-test while there was negligible growth in the Comparison Group's vocabulary scores between the pre-test, mid-test, and post-test. The fact that the advantage found for TBLT was smaller for vocabulary than for listening, speaking, and story-telling was perhaps because the primary aim of task-based language teaching was the enhancement of oral language abilities and the development of vocabulary only secondary. Another possible reason is that there was a focus on vocabulary in the Traditional Class.

Some earlier studies have documented the superiority of task-based language teaching over structural-based methods in vocabulary learning. In a comparative study involving 30 students at a Spanish language course, for example, De la Fuente (2006) found that task-based vocabulary lessons have a more significant impact on word retention than PPP-based lessons. Thanh and Huan (2012), in their Vietnam-based study, reported that "the level of vocabulary achievement in the experimental group was much higher than that in the control group" (p. 113). Another similar study was conducted by Page and Mede (2018). In this 7-week study, they compared the effects of task-based instruction and PPP-based instruction on learners' vocabulary learning in Turkey. The study participants were 97 secondary school students and two teachers involved in an EFL programme at a local school. The students were assigned to one of two groups (i.e. an experimental group and a control group). Students in the experimental group received task-based lessons based on Willis' (1996) task-based framework (i.e. pre-task, task cycle, and language focus), whereas the control group students were given explicit instruction through the PPP phases (i.e. presentation-practice-production). The research findings showed that the performance of the TBLT class was better than that of the PPP class on the vocabulary test. Taken together, the results of my task-based study and the studies mentioned above indicate that TBLT had the potential advantage over traditional form-oriented instructional methods in improving students' vocabulary scores.

The TBLT Group's improvement in vocabulary was likely the result of the tasks they performed, in particular the input-based tasks. Ellis (2001) showed that input-based tasks are effective in providing contexts for vocabulary learning. The schema-building activities, which were used in the pre-task stage by the teacher to develop students' familiarity with the task content, may also have assisted their vocabulary learning as the activities introduced learners to the words required for task completion. The post-task or extension activities that the TBLT students experienced might have

also reinforced their lexical knowledge as the activities explicitly exposed learners to the target words.

In sum, the evidence showed that there was a moderate advantage in favour of the TBLT Group where vocabulary was concerned. However, the scores of the two groups did not significantly differ, perhaps because there was an emphasis on vocabulary in the Comparison Group. Therefore, while TBLT can help develop students' vocabulary, it may not be superior to traditional forms of instruction in developing students' vocabulary.

8.4.5 Summing up

The present study provides additional evidence supportive of task-based language teaching in enhancing learners' language competence. In particular, it has shown that the Task-Based Group benefited more than the Form-Focused Group in listening, speaking and story-telling skills and in a more limited way for vocabulary.

Chapter 9. Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

The study reported in this thesis is an attempt to develop my understanding as the researcher-mentor of a teacher about how best to introduce TBLT in the Indonesian context and support teachers in its implementation. To this end, I explored (1) to what extent an Indonesian teacher with no prior experience of TBLT but with my help was successful in designing and implementing task-based lessons and (2) whether this teachers' teaching resulted in the development of his students' English language skills.

This investigation was motivated by three major factors, namely: a) the need to introduce TBLT in Indonesia as a way to enhance students' language while ensuring its compatibility with the Indonesian English Curriculum, b) my personal experience as an EFL learner and educator that language is best learned through meaningful communicative activities, and 3) addressing gaps in research pertaining to TBLT especially the lack of information about task-based professional development programmes.

In this final chapter, I will first present a summary of the findings and proceed to explore the implications of the study, where I will consider what the findings suggest for the development of a teacher education programme for TBLT. I will conclude the chapter by providing limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

9.2 Summary of findings

In line with the proposed research questions, I will present the summary of findings as follows:
- Research Question 1: Teacher's task-based syllabus, teacher's implementation of TBLT, and my reflective journal
- Research Question 2: Teacher's attitude
- Research Question 3: Students' opinions
- Research Question 4: Learning outcomes

9.2.1 Teacher's task-based syllabus and implementation of TBLT

Teacher's task-based syllabus

The first component of the study investigated the extent to which the teacher was able to design a task-based course. For that purpose, the teacher's task-based syllabus was analysed using three criteria: task-basedness, task variety, and task appropriateness and progression. The data analysis revealed the following findings:

1. Most of the task-based materials that the teacher developed qualified as tasks. This indicates that the teacher had developed an understanding of the four criteria for a task as proposed by Ellis (2003).
2. The teacher's tasks demonstrated limited variety in task types. This was perhaps because the teacher devised his tasks based on the first six lessons that were also limited in task types. It is also possible that the teacher may have focused more on adjusting the tasks to suit the students' language competence rather than on experimenting with different task types. Despite the lack of variety, the teacher's tasks were comprised of topics that the students found familiar and relevant to their life experiences.
3. There was an increase in the code complexity of the teacher's tasks over the six lessons. The teacher's tasks also exhibited a sense of progression from information gaps to the use of reasoning and opinion gaps. This suggests that the teacher displayed the ability to craft task-based lessons where the language input and cognitive demands became more complex over time.
4. The teacher's tasks did not build on the previous lessons. There are two possible explanations for this. First, the teacher may have not fully grasped what 'continuity between lessons' meant. Second, the absence of links between the teacher's lessons was perhaps the result of the teacher devising the tasks lesson by lesson rather than designing a complete syllabus for all the six lessons. However, despite the lack of continuity, there is evidence that the teacher made links between some tasks in the same lesson.

Teacher's implementation of TBLT

Another component of the study examined the extent to which the teacher was able to implement the task-based materials that he had developed. This was achieved by means of classroom observations that focused on the interactions arising out of a TBLT class, whether the teaching was task-based, and how the students responded to TBLT lessons. During the observations, I video-recorded what happened and completed an observation checklist. The teacher's implementation of

TBLT was analysed in terms of four main aspects: task-management activities, use of the L1, use of questions, and focus on form. I also wrote a reflective journal after each lesson to provide a personal evaluation of the extent to which the teacher's classroom practices conformed to the requirements of TBLT. For the sake of convenience, I will first provide a summary of the findings for the four aspects and then move on to the findings in my journal entries.

1.   Task-management activities

The teacher's task management involved three main activities – reviewing the previous lesson, organising group work and setting time for task completion. The teacher made some changes to the way he managed task activities over time (e.g. from an absence of a review of the previous lesson to a more consistent use of it). The changes were perhaps the result of the post-lesson sessions that I held with the teacher, where we discussed the importance of managing task activities and where I provided feedback on how the teacher could best manage task implementation.

2.   Use of the L1

Another aspect of the teacher's implementation of TBLT concerned the teacher's and students' use of the mother tongue (i.e. Indonesian) in the classroom. I found that the teacher's use of Indonesian helped support students' comprehension and performance of tasks. In addition, I noted that the teacher's use of the native language declined over time. It is possible that the feedback sessions that I conducted with the teacher may have made him more aware of the fact that the mother tongue can be used as a mediating tool to assist L2 learning but should be kept to a minimum (i.e. only used when necessary). The teacher's decreasing use of the L1 can also be explained by the fact that the lessons that he taught were based on tasks. Tasks were well suited to the use of the target language because they provided a context for the teacher to negotiate for meaning and support students' comprehension and performance of tasks. Perhaps the teacher found task-based activities increasingly favourable to using the target language.

Regarding the students' use of Indonesian, I found that their use of the mother tongue helped them complete tasks. There was little use of the L1 by the students, which can be attributed to task difficulty and the students' language ability. The students used their mother tongue sparingly because the tasks were at the right level for them.

3.   Use of questions

I focused on two types of questions that the teacher used: procedural questions and information questions (i.e. referential and display questions). The analysis showed that the teacher used procedural questions more frequently than information questions over time. The teacher's plentiful use of procedural questions represents a natural form of communication because this type of questioning takes place naturally when managing activities in a classroom context. Concerning the information questions, I found that referential and display questions were used equally and inconsistently in different lessons, possibly because of the different nature of the tasks. Different tasks may have created different contexts for the teacher's use of referential and display questions. Findings from the observational data revealed that the spot-the-differences and discussion tasks favoured referential questions while the picture-matching tasks favoured display questions.

To sum up, I concluded that, in general, the teacher's questioning resembled how questions are typically used in natural communication where the primary focus is on meaning – the core characteristics of TBLT.

4. *Focus on form*

Focus on form in this study involved negotiation of meaning (NoM) or conversational strategies and negotiation of form (NoF) or didactic strategies. The results revealed that, by and large, the teacher was able to utilise the NoM strategies to avoid or repair communication problems in the classroom. This effective use of NoM strategies helped the students to perform the tasks better. The NoM strategies that the teacher employed were mainly initiated by the teacher (e.g. comprehension checks and repeating instructions) except for clarification requests where they were also initiated by the students. The students' ability to seek clarification increased as they became accustomed to task-based language teaching over time and were more motivated to initiate communication with the teacher. This can also be explained by the fact that TBLT, as a student-centred approach, provides more opportunities for the students to ask for clarification than in the teacher-centred form of instruction they were used to. There was some change in the teacher's use of NoM strategies over time. This indicates two things. First, over time the teacher became increasingly competent in implementing conversational strategies, as evident in his progressive use of clarification requests (i.e. from an absence of use in Lesson 1 to a consistent use in the following lessons). Second, over time the students became more familiar with task-based activities, and therefore the teacher's use of particular NoM strategies (e.g. repetition of instructions) were not needed.

The teacher used NoF strategies less consistently than NoM strategies. This can be put down to the fact that the teacher was used to employing didactic strategies in his traditional teaching practice (e.g. repetitions and elicitations) and thus lacked familiarity with other strategies of a more conversational nature (e.g. clarification requests and recasts). Another possible explanation is that the nature of tasks in some lessons did not create a context for the teacher to implement NoF strategies such as clarification requests in Lesson 7 and elicitations in Lesson 12. In spite of the inconsistency, it was noticeable that the teacher made effective use of NoF strategies that drew his students' attention to specific language features. The teacher's strategies were all reactive, used to correct students' erroneous utterances in vocabulary and grammar.

The frequency count of FoF strategies revealed that, overall, the teacher used negotiation of meaning (NoM) strategies more often than negotiation of form (NoF) strategies. This reflects the teacher's concern for meaning rather than form in his task-based lessons.

In sum, I argue that the teacher was able to implement FoF strategies effectively. He made effective use of NoM strategies to avoid or repair communication problems, and he used NoF strategies effectively to draw his students' attention to specific language features. Together, the teachers' conversational and didactic strategies demonstrated his ability to implement the tasks successfully in ways likely to expedite student language acquisition.

Reflective journal

In addition to classroom observations, the teacher's implementation of TBLT was evaluated in the journal entries I wrote after each task-based lesson. I commented on any interactional event which I found significant and indicative of the teacher's progressive understanding of TBLT. From the 12 journal entries, I selected five prominent aspects of the teacher's implementation of TBLT: introducing the topic of a task, teaching strategies, students' responses, corrective feedback, and extension activities. The following are my findings:

1. The teacher's introductory activities helped activate students' knowledge about the task topic. In cases where the students were already familiar with the topic, however, schema-building activities were not required.
2. The strategies that the teacher used helped him to implement the tasks successfully. Nonetheless, some strategies (e.g. comprehension checks) would have been more effective if he had used them in concert with other strategies (e.g. modelling).

3. Most of the task-based materials that the teacher developed were well-suited to the students' level of competence. The teacher was able to match the tasks to the students' proficiency level using appropriate implementation strategies (e.g. use of personalised questions and provision of keywords and relevant examples).

4. The teacher implemented two types of corrective feedback: input-providing feedback (e.g. recasts) and output-prompting feedback (e.g. elicitations and repetitions). Evidence showed that the teacher was able to use different CF types to correct his students' errors.

5. Extension activities (e.g. use of a writing activity as an extension of a listening activity) afforded opportunities to expose students to the L2 and functioned to reinforce the language used in the main task.

Altogether, I concluded that the teacher was successful in developing an understanding of what a task is and what it involves. The teacher's ability to include suitable introductory activities, use relevant teaching/corrective strategies during the performance of tasks, and carry out extension activities demonstrated a good understanding of TBLT methodology. This can be ascribed to two factors. First, the training and the post-lesson discussions held with the teacher may have helped him improve his knowledge and skills in implementing TBLT. Second, the teaching skills that the teacher brought to the TBLT lessons may have helped him deal with implementational problems.

9.2.2 Teacher's attitudes

I investigated the teacher's dispositions towards the implementation of TBLT in his own classroom. This was achieved by interviewing the teacher prior to the training (preliminary interview) and after the teacher had completed the teaching (exit interview). The preliminary interview served to explore the teacher's existing knowledge about TBLT, and the exit interview aimed to examine the teacher's progressive understanding of TBLT and his views about implementing it.

The preliminary interview revealed that the teacher was not able to define a task, viewing it simply as 'a piece of work' or an 'assignment'. This was unsurprising given the teacher's previous contact with form-based teaching and the fact that he had had no prior experience of TBLT before.

The exit interview revealed the following main findings:

1. The teacher was able to define a task in terms of Ellis's (2003) four criteria. Evidence from the teacher's own task-based syllabus (e.g. Lessons 7 to 11) suggests that, in general, he was able to craft tasks in line with the four criteria.

2. The teacher exhibited familiarity with the three major stages of a task-based lesson. It was noticeable that the teacher included pre-, main-, and post-task activities in most of the lessons that he taught (e.g. Lessons 1, 6, 7 and 12).

3. The teacher was able to describe the teacher's roles in TBLT. He demonstrated the ability to perform the role of a task manager (e.g. Lessons 1 and 7), the role of an instructor (e.g. Lessons 6 and 7), and the role of a co-communicator (e.g. Lessons 5 and 12). Also, there was evidence that the teacher was able to switch from one role to another strategically within the same task (e.g. in Lesson 9 during the street-map task).

4. The teacher expressed a concern for his students' low level of vocabulary, especially for output-based tasks. This is understandable given that his students were more or less beginners in English and had had no previous contact with TBLT.

5. The teacher recognised a number of advantages that TBLT has. The fact that the teacher found tasks intrinsically motivating for his students is not surprising given that the students were formerly taught in the teacher-dominated classroom, which concentrated on grammatical exercises and placed learners in a passive role. The teacher saw that tasks afforded opportunities for the students to engage in meaningful communication either as listeners (in input-based tasks) or as speakers (in output-based tasks).

6. The teacher reported that he would carry on implementing TBLT in his future teaching. When I contacted the teacher following the 12-week training programme, I was told that he had continued using tasks. I also found that he shared his knowledge about TBLT with fellow teachers in the school.

The above findings indicate that the teacher had developed a good grasp of TBLT and was positive about it. Following the 12-week task-based professional development programme, the teacher came to recognise the viability of introducing TBLT to Indonesian secondary school students and thus developed a sense of ownership of the innovative task-based approach.

9.2.3 Students' opinions

I also explored the students' views about the task-based instruction that they had experienced over 12 weeks. A 5-point Likert scale questionnaire was administered to the TBLT Group to examine their feelings and attitudes to TBLT at the beginning of the 7th week and at the end of the 12th

week. The questionnaire comprised two sections: one for the input-providing tasks and the other for output-prompting tasks. They both assessed the students' TBLT experience in terms of three major categories: task usefulness, task enjoyableness and task engagement. The most significant findings were:

1. In the main, the students showed a favourable attitude towards the input-based tasks at both times. They described the input-based tasks as *useful* (e.g. improving their listening skills), *enjoyable* (e.g. creating a comfortable learning atmosphere) and *engaging* (e.g. involving activities that were at the right level of difficulty).

2. There was also a generally positive response to the three aspects of the output-based tasks in Week 7 and Week 12. The students reported that the output-based tasks were useful because they helped them communicate in English. They also believed that the output-based tasks were enjoyable as they involved games and the activities made them speak in English.

3. Overall, the students demonstrated a slightly more favourable disposition towards input-providing than output-prompting tasks. There are two possible explanations for this. First, the oral communicative tasks placed heavier cognitive demands on the students than the reception-based tasks. Second, the students were beginners in English with a low level of communicative competence and were used to traditional form-focused teaching where the teacher dominated the classroom talk. Perhaps the students' limited communicative ability and previous learning experiences shaped their opinions about activities involving language production.

4. The students responded less positively to one aspect of task-based language teaching (i.e. using English rather than Indonesian). They reported that they were more likely to use Indonesian than English during the performance of tasks. This may have been because the students believed that "you should not say anything in the language until you can say it correctly" (Erlenawati, 2002, p. 325). Despite the less favourable rating for the use of English, it should be noted that the students still scored above the mean for using it over their native language.

5. On the whole, the students reacted similarly to the questions about task usefulness, enjoyableness and engagement, perhaps because they did not clearly understand how one category differed from the others.

6. There were no differences in the students' perceptions of TBLT in Week 7 and Week 12. In fact, their dispositions towards task-based language teaching remained positive throughout the 12 weeks.

It can be concluded that, in the main, the students were favourably disposed to all aspects of the input-providing and output-prompting tasks implemented in the 12-week task-based programme.

9.2.4 Learning outcomes

The last research question addressed the extent to which task-based language teaching was effective in developing students' language skills. I included this question because it was important to know whether or not his teaching resulted in the enhancement of his students' language proficien**cy.** This investigation was achieved by conducting a series of tests assessing listening, speaking, story-telling, and vocabulary skills for both TBLT and Comparison Groups. The tests were given three times, i.e. prior to the start of the study (pre-test), in the middle of the study (mid-test) and at the end of the study (post-tests). The results of this research component can be summarised as follows:

1. The TBLT Group did better than the Comparison Group on the listening test, as evident in the greater gains from the pre-test to the post-test. This result can be attributed to the fact that the teacher implemented many input-providing tasks and the fact that the teacher strove to use the target language in the classroom.

2. The TBLT Group performed significantly better than the Comparison Group on the speaking test (i.e. there were larger gains between the three tests, especially from T1 to T3). This can be put down to the fact that the students were exposed to an increasing number of output-based tasks from Week 7 and the fact that the teacher used scaffolding strategies to support students' output during the performance of these tasks.

3. The TBLT Group also demonstrated significantly better progress than the Comparison Group in the story-telling test. This was evident in bigger learning gains from one test to another, especially from the pre-test to the post-test. Story-telling tasks figured prominently in the teacher's teaching.

4. In the main, the TBLT Group outscored the Comparison Group on the vocabulary test but less clearly than on listening, speaking and story-telling. The primary goal of TBLT was the improvement of oral language skills, and the enhancement of vocabulary was only secondary.

Overall, the above results demonstrate the viability of TBLT in developing students' language abilities. In particular, they have demonstrated that the TBLT Group had a clearer advantage over the Comparison Group in listening, speaking, and story-telling skills and in a more limited way in vocabulary. The strongest evidence favouring TBLT was found in the difference in the two groups' learning gains from T1 (pre-tests) to T3 (post-tests). The results also suggest that the training in

TBLT that I provided enabled the teacher to develop and deliver task-based lessons in a way that led to improvement in his students' language competence.

9.3 Implications

In this section, I would like to reflect on my study in two ways. First, I will address how conducting the study has helped me develop my understanding as a teacher educator of TBLT. Second, I will draw implications from the study for how practising teachers can be helped to implement TBLT.

9.3.1 Personal development as a teacher educator for TBLT

As I documented in the Introduction Chapter, it was my personal experience as an EFL learner and teacher educator that motivated me to undertake my doctoral study in the hope that I could contribute to English language education in Indonesia in a more principled way, especially in the area of professional development for English teachers. At Curtin University, I became acquainted with task-based language teaching and worked together with my supervisors to develop a task-based programme for Indonesian secondary school students. In working with the teacher, I developed a clearer understanding of what is involved in innovating with TBLT. I will comment on what I learned by considering the 10 criteria for a successful innovation proposed by Ellis (1997a).

1. *Initial dissatisfaction*: The level of dissatisfaction that teachers experience with some aspects of their existing teaching.

The teacher was used to traditional forms of instruction. During the post-lesson discussions with the teacher, he informed me of some aspects of the traditional teaching that he disagreed with. For instance, he did not like the fact that the students had to sit the National Exam. He argued that the discrete-point test did not measure students' communicative abilities as it consisted only of reading and structure sections. He also commented about the washback effect of the testing, i.e. because the National Exam determined who continued to the next level of education, most of his classroom time was devoted to teaching reading comprehension and grammatical exercises. As a result, he felt that the teaching became monotonous and boring, and the students had no opportunity to experience language-rich communicative situations in the classroom.

With the introduction of task-based language teaching in his school, however, it was clear that the teacher became more motivated, perhaps because task-based language teaching offered pedagogic benefits not evident in his previous experience with traditional teaching.

To sum up, my experience of conducting the study enabled me to see that the relative success this teacher had in innovating with TBLT was due in part at least to the fact that he was dissatisfied with traditional forms of teaching.

2.   *Feasibility*: The extent to which the innovation is seen as implementable given the conditions in which teachers work.

When we introduce an innovative approach like TBLT, it will face local constraints. In the context of the secondary school where the teacher worked, the main challenge of implementing TBLT was the National Exam. Despite the teacher's welcoming attitude towards task-based language teaching, in the feedback sessions, he often mentioned the problem he faced with the National Exam, i.e. between implementing tasks and teaching to the examination in the classroom. In the results and discussion chapter for RQ2, I proposed two solutions to cope with this barrier: 1) informing the teacher that TBLT can prepare students for form-oriented tests and 2) using TBLT alongside a traditional form of instruction. Ellis (2017) acknowledged the possibility of implementing different forms of TBLT to fit in with particular teaching contexts.

My task-based study led me to believe that, in the Indonesian context, the alternative form of TBLT that best fits my teacher's context was one where TBLT is used alongside form-oriented instruction that the teacher was used to. This can be done, for example, by using tasks for some lessons or for a short period of time in each lesson. However, with the recent termination of the National Examination, the teacher's main problem will disappear, and there will be more freedom for the teacher to use TBLT more extensively.

3.   *Acceptability*: The extent to which the innovation is seen as compatible with teachers' existing teaching style and ideology.

In addition to the institutional constraints, another local challenge that can hinder the introduction of TBLT is the conflict between the teacher's pedagogic beliefs and task-based teaching practices. Adams and Newton (2009) recognised this teacher-generated obstacle by pointing out that "teachers may feel uncomfortable with the shifts in teaching style required by TBLT" (p. 9). The teacher in

my task-based study had taught English in the school for about nine years using traditional form-focused instruction. With no previous experience of doing TBLT, it is not surprising that at the start of the study, the teacher demonstrated a superficial knowledge of TBLT (e.g. inability to define what a task is), and his teaching style was quite traditional in some respects (e.g. overuse of the students' native language in the first task-based lesson). Over time, the teacher showed a better grasp of TBLT and developed the ability to move from a form-focused instructional style to a task-based teaching style. As I argued earlier, the feedback sessions I conducted with the teacher, along with the teachers' own basic teaching skills, helped him adapt to the demands of TBLT.

Thus, I personally came to understand two important things about training the teacher in task-based language teaching: 1) changing well-established teaching practices is a gradual process and so takes time, 2) TBLT innovation needs to be supported by observing teaching and providing feedback.

4.   *Relevance*: The extent to which the innovation is viewed as matching the students' needs.

The student participants in my study were EFL first-year students in an Indonesian Junior High School. As with other EFL learners, these students do not have direct contact with English outside of the classroom or after school hours. In order to develop their language skills in English, the students need sufficient exposure to the target language and opportunities to use it in communicative situations. Task-based language teaching is relevant for these students because it provides them with rich language input and opportunities for output. As the study revealed, the pedagogic tasks that the teacher taught (e.g. spot-the-differences, story-telling, and street-map tasks) helped promote language learning as the students were actively involved in learning the target language.

My experience of conducting the study taught me three important lessons: 1) the relevance of TBLT lies in the fact that it enables EFL secondary school students to develop real communicative abilities in English, 2) pedagogic tasks rather than real-world tasks are needed as the students lacked real-life needs, and 3) the pedagogic task topics should match the student's personal life experience in order to increase engagement in the tasks.

5.   *Complexity*: The extent to which the innovation is easy to grasp.

TBLT is a complex approach that demands substantial expertise on the part of the teacher. It requires teachers to design and adapt task-based materials, and it calls for the teacher to move among different roles – task manager, co-communicator, and instructor - during the performance of tasks.

The co-communicator role, as the critical role in task-based language teaching, requires the use of a wide range of strategies to scaffold learners' performance of a task and provide feedback on their use of English. In the words of Long (2016), "the teacher's role in TBLT is more important and requires more expertise than that of the teacher in focus on forms/PPP" (p. 28).

Given the complexity of TBLT, its content should be made clear to the teacher. This is why I conducted a 2-day workshop for the teacher where the teacher was introduced to the basic concepts of task-based language teaching (e.g. TBLT methodology, task design and assessment) and was shown examples of how tasks could be implemented in the classroom. Although this training helped to familiarise the teacher with fundamental TBLT tenets and practices, it should be noted that he was not able to take in all the new information at once and needed sufficient time to internalise it. My study was premised on my belief that the best way to enable the teacher to internalise the newly-taught concepts was through a teaching practicum in his own classroom. The teaching practicum helped the teacher see the relevance of the theories introduced in the workshop for actual classroom practice. My role as a teacher educator in this regard was to observe the teacher and to provide support.

In short, recognising the complexity of TBLT made me aware of the need to provide extensive support for the teacher through a workshop, teaching practicum and post-lesson discussions. TBLT teachers can not fully uptake TBLT unless they are equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills about TBLT prior to its implementation plus ongoing support during its implementation.

6.   *Explicitness*: The extent to which the rationale for the innovation is clear and convincing.

The rationale for task-based language teaching draws on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and general education theories. The critical second language acquisition construct that underpins TBLT is incidental language learning – namely, people are able to learn a new language by being exposed to the language in a communicative way and by using it communicatively. Task-based language teaching "taps into students' natural ability to learn incidentally" (Ellis, 2019, p. 17). In addition to SLA theories, task-based language teaching is informed by a number of principles of sound education, which include 1) teaching as a social activity, 2) learning by doing, and 3) the teacher's role as a facilitator. TBLT treats teaching as a social activity because it provides ample opportunities for the teacher to interact with his students and for the students to interact with their fellow students using the target language. When properly managed, these interactions may result in rich focus on form. TBLT also promotes learning by doing because students are actively engaged in performing

activities related to their personal lives. Students are likely to learn better through activities with familiar topics. TBLT is compatible not only with how learners acquire a new language but also with the principles of sound education.

At the onset of my study, I was clear about the rationale for TBLT but still unsure about how the TBLT tenets could be translated into practice. To fill this theory-into-practice gap, I conducted a pilot study to see how TBLT worked in an EFL classroom setting. The knowledge and skills I had gained from my pilot study results helped me make the TBLT rationale clear and convincing for the teacher in the main study as I was able to familiarise him not only with TBLT principles but also with relevant models and concrete examples. For instance, when I introduced the concept of the TBLT teacher's role as a co-communicator, I modelled and provided examples of the strategic use of the L1, asking referential rather than display questions and negotiating for meaning. This modelling-based exposure enabled the teacher to see what TBLT practices look like and convinced him they could be implemented.

7. *Trialability*: The extent to which the innovation can be easily tried out in stages.

To ensure trialability, I provided the teacher with ready-made task-based materials for the first 6 weeks of the programme. For the next 6 weeks, however, I asked him to take responsibility for continuing the syllabus and designing his own tasks. This approach was congruent with the *active learning* approach (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), which views teachers as active learners responsible for and capable of crafting and deciding their own teaching syllabus.

Now that I have completed my task-based programme, I can see that further changes are needed. For example, because evidence showed that the teacher's own syllabus lacked task variety and continuity, I now recognise the importance of ensuring the tasks in the first 6 weeks are sufficiently varied. Teachers are likely to build their own syllabus based on the trainer's ready-made syllabus.

8. *Observability*: The extent to which the results of the innovation are visible to others.

Throughout the period of my doctoral study, I tried to communicate the research results of my study to both internal and external parties. For example, upon completing my pilot study, I submitted a report to my university and gave an oral presentation to the university research committee, reviewers, and fellow PhD students. Following the presentation, I provided a question-answer session where the audience could ask questions or give feedback on my pilot study results. This was

the most valuable part of the research dissemination as it enabled me to reflect on my research practices and find ways to improve them in my main study. Based on the pilot study results, my main supervisor and I submitted an article to an international journal in the hope that the insights that we gained could inform professional development programmes for TBLT in Indonesia and other Asian contexts. A copy of the pilot study report was also made available to the Indonesian secondary school where the pilot study took place. It was important for the stakeholders to know the extent to which the TBLT innovation was successful.

In the future, I intend to disseminate the results of my main study to Indonesian teachers. One possibility is that I could use the detailed observation framework, which I employed to analyse the teacher's implementation of TBLT, to develop training materials for other teachers. For example, I could write a practical guide about the TBLT teacher's role as a task manager using the teacher's task-management activities as examples. I could also design a training handout about how to do focus on form based on my teacher's use of negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form strategies.

9. *Originality*: The extent to which the teachers are expected to demonstrate a high level of originality in order to implement the innovation (e.g. by preparing special materials).

It was clear to me that the teacher could not be expected to show originality in the initial stage of the innovation. My experience of helping the teacher has shown me three important things. First, due to the lack of task-based materials in Indonesia, teachers who are new to TBLT need support in the form of ready-to-teach materials. These materials can serve as a model to guide the development of their own materials. In other words, teachers need sample lesson plans. Second, new TBLT teachers also require feedback on how to improve TBLT lessons. Third, although assistance for the new TBLT teachers is needed in the early stages of TBLT implementation, it should be gradually withdrawn to enable them to become independent. Involving teachers in materials development can help develop their ability to creatively design tasks suitable to their own teaching context.

10. *Ownership*: The extent to which teachers come to feel they 'possess' the innovation.

Upon completion of the study, the interview with the teacher revealed that the teacher was positive about task-based language teaching. This attitude was manifested in the teacher's continued TBLT practices in the school following the 12-week task-based programme. Through online communication, the teacher also told me that he conducted a small seminar where he shared his

knowledge and skills with his fellow English teachers. The teacher's willingness to carry on implementing TBLT and give a talk about TBLT in the English Teacher Sharing Forum indicates that 1) he had come to acknowledge the value and viability of introducing task-based language teaching in the Indonesian context, and 2) he had come to feel that he owned the TBLT innovation. In summary, I learned that to build teachers' sense of ownership, I needed to work collaboratively with them on a continuous basis in designing and implementing TBLT. Hawley and Valli (1999) contended that collaboration among educators not only promotes the sharing of knowledge but also enhances a sense of ownership. I also realised the importance of maintaining communication with teachers after completion of a programme as a way of seeing to what extent they had taken ownership of the innovation.

General comment

The results of my task-based study have provided me with valuable insights into the development of a teacher education programme for TBLT. I will summarise the insights I gained in terms of Ellis's (1997a) 10 criteria for a successful innovation in Table 44 below.

Table 44

Summary of Insights

Criterion	Implication
Initial dissatisfaction	Initial dissatisfaction with traditional forms of instruction contributes to teachers' relative success of innovating with TBLT.
Feasibility	For teachers working under the pressure of the national exam requirements, the best alternative form of TBLT is doing task-based teaching alongside form-oriented teaching.
Acceptability	Replacing traditional practices with TBLT practices takes time and thus needs to be supported by classroom observations and feedback sessions.
Relevance	Pedagogic tasks rather than real-world tasks are more relevant in the Indonesian context because they do not have immediate real-life needs.
Complexity	TBLT is a complex approach that needs to be made clear to teachers through intensive support involving a workshop, teaching practicum and post-lesson discussions.

Explicitness	To make the TBLT rationale clear and convincing, we need to show teachers relevant models and concrete examples of how TBLT tenets can be put into practice.
Trialability	Helping teachers to innovate with TBLT can be done by first providing them with a ready-made task-based syllabus before asking them to devise their own syllabus.
Observability	The results of a TBLT innovation can be made visible to others through academic presentations, international publications and training materials development for Indonesian teachers.
Originality	New TBLT teachers need to be provided with ready-made task-based materials, but over time they need to be actively involved in the construction of their own syllabus.
Ownership	Teachers' sense of ownership can be built through providing ongoing support and maintaining contact with them upon completion of the training programme.

9.3.2 TBLT professional development programmes for in-service teachers

Based on the framework that I used to train the teacher in task-based language teaching, I would like to propose some general principles for the development of a task-based training programme for practising English teachers. The focus of this in-service programme should be primarily on 'training' rather than on 'education' because it is aimed at providing teachers with practical strategies to 'apply' knowledge about TBLT rather than to 'acquire' knowledge about TBLT (Hills, 1981, as cited by O'Neill, 1986). This in-service programme uses a *micro* or practice-oriented approach to develop teachers' expertise in task-based language teaching rather than a *macro* or theory-oriented approach (Richards, 1990). The general principles which I have drawn from my experience of conducting the task-based programme are as follows:

1. *School-based coaching*: Ideally, a teacher trainer should ensure that a professional development programme for TBLT teachers is conducted in their own instructional context. The literature on general education (e.g. Desimone, 2009; Guskey, 2003; Slepkov, 2008) and task-based language education (e.g. McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Prabhu, 1987; Zhu, 2020) has shown the importance of job-embedded training not only because this type of training enables teachers to address real pedagogic issues in their classrooms but also because it enhances teachers'

motivation and participation in the programme as they can see a clear relationship between theory and practice. In addition, a professional learning programme for TBLT teachers is best held during regular school hours. Van den Branden (2006) noted that in-service training programmes run outside of the teachers' working hours will be seen as an additional burden as they have already had an arduous job.

2.   *Initial contact with the principal*: Once the teacher trainer has made a decision about which schools to choose, he/she should then communicate with the schools to introduce the task-based training programme and obtain approval from the school principals. Following approval, a visit to each school can be an advantage as it gives an information-exchanging opportunity for both the in-service trainer and the school principal. For example, it provides an opportunity to discuss time availability and training participants.

3.   *Informal meeting with teachers*: The next thing to do is to meet with each schools' recommended teachers. This meeting is essential because before working with the teachers, we need to ensure that they have sufficient information about the programme and that their participation in the task-based programme is voluntary. This meeting does not have to be formal and can be held outside of the school and class hours at the teachers' convenience.

4.   *Introductory meeting with a school*: Before the commencement of the programme, I suggest that the in-service teacher trainer conducts a joint meeting with the stakeholders in a school (i.e. the school principal, English teachers and students). In this meeting, the teacher trainer should introduce the rationale and procedures of the training programme followed by a question-answer session. The aim of this meeting is threefold. First, to ensure that all the training participants are well-informed about the programme. Second, to convince the participants that their participation in the programme will not affect their career or English language marks. Third, to let the teacher participants know that they will not be left alone in this programme but will have the support of the school in its implementation.

5.   *Teacher workshop*: The in-service teacher trainer should conduct a short training course for the teachers to provide them with the necessary knowledge and skills about TBLT. This training, which in my study took the form of a 2-day workshop, covers the basic principles of task-based language teaching. These TBLT tenets include the four criteria for a task, a task typology, the three stages of a task-based lesson, how to ensure that the tasks are appropriate for the students' level of

English, the roles that the teacher needs to perform in TBLT lessons, focus-on-form strategies, and task-based assessment.

6.   *Practice-oriented training*: After the teacher workshop, teachers need to implement what they have learned in teaching practicum sessions in their own classroom. East (2014) pointed out that TBLT teachers need to "be introduced to the innovation, both in theory and in practice, in ways that enable practitioners to evaluate its claims for themselves" (p. 263). Teaching practicum will enable teachers to see the link between their training content and real classroom problems. Failure to provide practice-oriented training for TBLT teachers will result in what Peeters and Van den Branden (1992; as cited in Van den Branden, 2006) termed 'post-coursal depression' because the teachers go back to their school from a training programme and find they are not able to implement the new ideas.

7.   *Provision of task-based materials*: It is best if the teacher trainer provides the teachers with ready-made task-based materials. This assistance is important because teachers who are new to TBLT need to be shown different models of TBLT lessons to help them transition smoothly from traditional teaching to task-based teaching (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007). In fact, as reported by Devlieger et al. (2003; as cited in Van den Branden, 2006), the evaluation of the Brussels' training programme for TBLT teachers showed that the Flemish teachers reacted positively to the ready-to-teach task-based syllabuses provided by their coaches as it reduced their workload and saved their time.

It is important to note that the task-based syllabus provided should be varied, inter-connected, enjoyable and appropriate for the students' level. However, this provision of a ready-made syllabus should only be temporary and must be gradually withdrawn to prevent the teachers from being over-reliant on the trainer's teaching resources.

8.   *Implementation of teaching strategies*: In addition to supplying teacher trainees with task-based materials, the teachers will also need help to implement relevant pedagogic strategies. Task-based language teaching requires teachers to perform three different roles in their teaching, i.e. as a task manager, a co-communicator, and an instructor (Ellis, 2019). As a co-communicator or co-conversationalist, for example, TBLT teachers are required to be able to solve communication problems in the classroom, but they may not be able to do this without sufficient support from the trainer. For that reason, the teachers need to be continuously reminded and shown examples of when and how to employ communication strategies. Given the complexity of the TBLT teacher's roles,

this assistance should be provided on an ongoing basis throughout the training programme to enable teachers to switch between roles strategically.

9.   *Lesson observations*: Once the teaching practicum is put into effect, the in-service teacher trainer needs to visit the teacher trainees' classes to observe their task-based lessons. An observation scheme can be used to capture what happens in the classroom in terms of teachers' task-management activities (e.g. whether or not teachers repeat instructions and how they check students' comprehension) and their interactional behaviours (e.g. the extent to which they make use of their students' native language and the types of questions they ask in their teaching). Nevertheless, it is likely that the trainer will not be able to observe every teacher due to time limitations. A possible solution to this is video-recording a lesson and discussing it with a group of teachers**.**

10.   *Post-lesson discussions*: As part of the effort to provide ongoing assistance to new TBLT teachers, the trainer should conduct post-lesson sessions with them following the classroom observations. In these sessions, the trainer and the observed TBLT teachers sit together to discuss any implementational problems that they encountered during their teaching. At the end of the discussions, the teacher trainer gives answers to the teachers' questions and provides feedback on their teaching performance**.** In the case of a video-recorded lesson, the trainer plays the video recording and watches it together with a group of teacher trainees. Whenever necessary, the teacher trainer points to a particular activity occurring in the recorded lesson and asks for the teachers' opinions about it. The teacher concludes the session by providing a summary of what went well and how the lesson can be improved in the future. Research in the area of professional development programmes for TBLT teachers has shown that feedback given continuously during their teaching helps to reinforce their understanding of TBLT (Zhu, 2020), allows them to reflect on particular task-based activities and leads to positive change in the teacher's TBLT practices (Van den Branden, 2006). Considering the importance of this feedback session, as far as possible, it is best held after each task-based lesson.

11.   *Construction of the teacher's own syllabus*: After the teachers have finished teaching the trainer's sample lessons, it is time to involve them in constructing their own task-based materials. When new TBLT teachers are given the opportunity to prepare their own TBLT lessons, they are likely to become more active, independent and motivated participants in the training programme (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). In other words, teacher trainees are expected to devise their own syllabus by drawing on the knowledge and skills that they have obtained from their previous training and teaching practicum. At this stage, TBLT teachers should do all the design work by themselves,

but the trainer should be available to give feedback and address any problems. Because it is important to ensure task continuity, it is recommended that teachers craft a complete task-based syllabus rather than developing it on a lesson-by-lesson basis (Erlam, 2016).

12.   *Follow-up communication:* After the completion of the task-based programme, it is important that the in-service trainer remains in touch with the teachers through online communication to check whether or not they have continued doing TBLT. Staying in touch with newly trained teachers will prevent them from feeling abandoned after the task-based programme has ended. If time is an issue, the trainer can invite a group of teachers to a video conference to share experiences.

13.   *Sustained support:* In addition to keeping in touch with new TBLT teachers, another crucial aspect that needs to be considered after the training programme has finished is to help the teachers deal with any implementational issues they are experiencing. In this regard, the in-service trainer can provide online help by giving relevant feedback or sending teachers useful articles to read. As Van den Branden (2006) pointed out, TBLT teachers need "sufficient time to adapt their teaching practices" (p. 233), and during this internalisation period, they should be given ongoing assistance.

14.   *Collective efforts*: The introduction of task-based language teaching in a particular teaching context will have a better chance of success if it gains collective support from the school administration and colleagues. The school principal, for example, can promote teachers' understanding of and involvement in the TBLT innovation by establishing an expertise-sharing forum for them. In this forum, newly trained TBLT teachers can share the knowledge and skills that they have gained with their fellow English teachers in the school. As agents of change, teachers need an academic partner with whom they can discuss new content and pedagogy (Guskey, 2003). Collaborative practices among teachers may lead to the creation of learning communities where teachers "help one another make changes" (Easton, 2008, p. 757) and will support pedagogic innovation in their institution (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

9.3.3 Limitations and future research

After reflecting on the design and implementation of the study, I have identified some limitations which can help to inform future studies in the area of professional development programmes for TBLT teachers.

The first limitation of this study is *the use of different teachers* for both the Experimental and Comparison Groups. This choice was inevitable due to the school's predetermined class arrangements. This limitation means that the differences in learning gains may have resulted from variations in the teachers' background and pedagogic abilities instead of differences between the two types of instruction (i.e. between the task-based instruction and the form-oriented instruction). For this reason, there is a need to interpret the results of the study cautiously. If there is an opportunity to conduct a similar study in the future, I would first check the availability of the same teacher for both groups prior to conducting the study in a school to ensure the validity of the group comparison part of the study.

The second limitation concerns the *students' initial abilities.* There was a difference in abilities between the TBLT and Comparison Groups in their pre-test scores. In two tests (i.e. vocabulary and story-telling tests), the TBLT Group demonstrated greater initial ability in English. The clearest evidence for the TBLT's superiority lies in the difference in the two groups' gain scores from pre- to post-tests rather than in the group comparisons at each time. The difference in students' abilities can always occur if we use intact groups and, in my study, I needed to use existing classes to ensure ecological validity (Mackey & Gass, 2015).

Another limitation that I need to acknowledge is *test content bias*. The test used in the study for both the Experimental and Control Groups were primarily task-based. Given that the Traditional Group experienced form-oriented instruction, it could be argued that the test results favoured the Task-Based Group and thus was unfair to the Traditional Group. The test content bias could have been avoided if I had included additional tests for both groups, such as a structure-based test and a general proficiency test (e.g. contextualised grammar, dictation and listening/reading comprehension).

The fourth limitation has to do with *students' comprehension of the questionnaire content*. The study findings revealed that the students responded similarly to all items in the three categories: task usefulness, task enjoyableness, task engagement. It is possible that the students were not clear about the differences between each category. If I conducted the study again, I would provide a more complete explanation for the students about how each category differed prior to asking them to complete the questionnaire and ask them questions to ensure their understanding of the questionnaire content. The explanation and questions about the questionnaire would be delivered in the students' native language (i.e. Indonesian) to support their comprehension.

Another limitation is the fact that *I only investigated one teacher*. My study would have been stronger if I had included two or three teachers, as I could have seen to what extent they responded similarly and differently to the training. I used a single teacher due to the considerable workload and limited time involved in conducting the study. Working with other teachers in this situation would not have been practical as the workload would have been too great. However, investigating just one teacher did enable me to obtain important insights about how to design a professional development programme for introducing TBLT in the Indonesian context, which was my main aim.

There was also a limitation in *how I collected information about the teacher's teaching approach*. Before the commencement of the study, I relied on formal meetings held with the teacher to confirm his teaching approach. I would have obtained more reliable data about how the teacher taught if I had observed his lessons prior to the task-based intervention. I did not carry out lesson observations because in the context of my time-constrained study it was not feasible to do so. Despite the failure to observe the teacher's lessons, I was able to obtain confirmation about the teacher's teaching approach from the exit interview held with him, i.e. where he clearly stated that he had used form-focused instruction in his previous teaching.

Finally, I acknowledge a limitation in *the provision of ready-made task-based materials*. Evidence from the training programme showed that there was little variety in the tasks that the teacher devised. It is possible that the teacher limited the type of tasks he designed to suit his students' language ability, and it is also possible that he felt constrained by the types of tasks I had provided him with. In future training programmes, therefore, I would provide the teachers with a greater variety of task types by making use of the pedagogic classification of tasks in Willis and Willis (2007) and the psycholinguistic classification of tasks in Pica et al. (1993). This would provide teachers with a hands-on experience of using various tasks, which would help them construct their own tasks.

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Appendix A: Ethics forms

Curtin University

STUDENT INFORMATION STATEMENT

HREC Project Number:	HRE2019-0103
Project Title:	Mentoring a teacher's innovation with task-based language teaching in an Indonesian secondary school
Chief Investigator:	Professor Rod Ellis
Student researcher:	Ariatna
Version Number:	1
Version Date:	12/12/2014

What is the Project About?

- The project is about an introduction of an innovative teaching approach called 'Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)' over a semester (12 weeks).

- The project aims at examining the degree to which your teacher is able to implement a task-based approach and the extent that this instruction is effective in developing your communicative proficiency in English.

- Practically, the study has the potential to improve your proficiency in understanding and speaking English.

Who is doing the Research?

- The study is a PhD research project and is being conducted by Mr. Ariatna.

- The results of this research project will be used by him to obtain a Doctor of Philosophy at Curtin University in Australia.

Why am I being asked to take part and what will I have to do?

- You have been asked to take part because you are first-year students in a Junior High School and beginner learners of English. You will be placed in either Group A or Group B.

- We will ask you to take some language tests at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the period of instruction.

- If you are in Group A, we will ask for your participation in receiving the task-based instruction for 12 weeks. If you are in Group B you will receive your regular classroom instruction with your regular teacher.

- If you are in Group A, we will ask you to complete a questionnaire two times during the period of instruction. We will ask your opinions about the usefulness, enjoyableness, and engagement of the instruction you received. Each questionnaire session will last for 5-10 minutes.

- If you are in Group A, we will observe/video-record your learning activities in the class for research analysis purposes.

- There will be no costs to you for participating in this project and you will not be paid for taking part.

Are there any benefits to being in the research project?

- There will be potential benefits to you from participating in this research as you will experience an innovative teaching approach which will help you develop the ability to communicate in English.

Are there any risks, side-effects, discomforts or inconveniences from being in the research project?

- There are no foreseeable risks from this research project as we will conduct the study in your regular classroom setting where personal safety is not an issue. We will also assure that the assessment results of your participation will not affect your school marks or your relationship with the principal, your teacher, and other staff members.

- We have been careful to make sure that the questions in the questionnaire do not cause you any distress. But, if you feel anxious about any of the questions you do not need to answer them. If the questions cause any concerns or upset you, we can refer you to a counsellor.

- During the research project we may find out new information about the risks and benefits of this study. If this happens we will tell you the new information and what it means to you. It may be that this new information means that you wish to withdraw from the study. You might be asked to sign a new consent form to let us know you understand any new information we have told you.

- Apart from giving up your time, we do not expect that there will be any risks or inconveniences associated with taking part in this study.

- Your participation in this study will not receive any compensation for your time.

Who will have access to my information?

- We will ensure that all information we collect about you is anonymous and confidential. The following people will have access to the information we collect in this research: the research team and, in the event of an audit or investigation, staff from the Curtin University Office of Research and Development.

- Electronic data will be password-protected and hard copy data (including video tapes) will be in locked storage.

- The information we collect in this study will be kept under secure conditions at Curtin University for 7 years after the research has ended and then it will be destroyed.

- The results of this research may be presented at conferences or published in professional journals. You will not be identified in any results that are published or presented.

Will you tell me the results of the research?

- We are not able to send you any results from this research personally as we will not collect any personal contact details. But you will receive feedback from your teacher and we will provide your school with the results so you will be able to access them from them.

- The results will also be available through a publication in the future.

Do I have to take part in the research project?

- Taking part in this research project is voluntary. It is your choice to take part or not. You do not have to agree if you do not want to.

- If you decide to take part and then change your mind, that is okay, you can withdraw from the project. You do not have to give us a reason; just tell us that you want to stop. Please let us know you want to stop so we can make sure you are aware of anything that needs to be done.

- If you choose not to take part or start and then stop the study, it will not affect your relationship with the principal, your teacher, and other staff members.

- If you chose to leave the study we will be unable to destroy your information because it has been collected in an anonymous way.

- We will also provide your parents with the option to opt out of your participation in this research project. If your parents do not wish you to participate, you will be able to opt out.

What happens next and who can I contact about the research?

- If you need further information or have any questions about the research, you can contact Mr. Rod Ellis via email: rod.ellis@curtin.edu.au or Mr. Ariatna by email: ariatna@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

- If you decide to take part in this research we will ask you to sign the consent form. By signing it is telling us that you understand what you have read and what has been discussed. Signing the consent indicates that you agree to be in the research project. Please take your time and ask any questions you have before you decide what to do. We will give you and your parents a copy of this information and the consent form to keep.

  Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HREC number: HRE2019-0103). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au

Research Office at Curtin

GPO Box U1987
Perth Western Australia 6845

Telephone +61 8 9266 7863

Facsimile +61 8 9266 3793
Web research.curtin.edu.au

STUDENT CONSENT FORM

HREC Project Number:	HRE2019-0103
Project Title:	Mentoring a teacher's innovation with task-based language teaching in an Indonesian secondary school
Chief Investigator:	Professor Rod Ellis
Student researcher:	Ariatna
Version Number:	1
Version Date:	12/12/2014

- I have read in *Indonesian* the information statement version listed above and I understand its contents.

- I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project.

- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.

- I believe that I am fully aware of the activities I am expected to do in the research project.

- I understand that this project has been approved by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee and will be carried out in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).

- I understand that the assessment results I receive upon completion of the study will not have any effect on my school marks or my relationship with the principal, my teacher and other staff members.

- I voluntarily consent to take part in this research project.

- I understand I will receive a copy of this Information Statement and Consent Form.

Participant Name	
Participant Signature	
Date	

Note: All parties signing the Consent Form must date their own signature.

<u>Declaration by researcher:</u> I have supplied an Information Letter and Consent Form to the participant who has signed above, and believe that they understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of their involvement in this project.

Researcher Name	
Researcher Signature	
Date	

Note: All parties signing the Consent Form must date their own signature.

TEACHER INFORMATION STATEMENT

HREC Project Number:	HRE2019-0103
Project Title:	Mentoring a teacher's innovation with task-based language teaching in an Indonesian secondary school
Chief Investigator:	Professor Rod Ellis
Student researcher:	Ariatna
Version Number:	1
Version Date:	12/12/2014

What is the Project About?

- The project is about an introduction of an innovative teaching approach called 'Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)' over a semester (12 weeks).

- The project aims at examining the degree to which you are able to implement a task-based approach and the extent to which this instruction is effective in developing your students' communicative proficiency in English.

- Practically, the study has the potential to improve your knowledge and skills in teaching English effectively using a task-based approach.

Who is doing the Research?

- The study is a PhD research project and is being conducted by Mr. Ariatna.

- The results of this research project will be used by him to obtain a Doctor of Philosophy at Curtin University in Australia.

Why am I being asked to take part and what will I have to do?

- You have been asked to take part because you are an English teacher in a Junior High School and are teaching first-year students.

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- We will ask you to participate in a task-based programme for 12 weeks where we will train you in task-based language teaching and work together with you to design task-based lessons and teach them in your own classroom.

- We will hold two interview sessions with you during the period of training where we will ask you questions about your existing knowledge about task-based language teaching and its implementation. Each interview session will last for 10-15 minutes.

- We will make a digital audio of the interviews so we can concentrate on what you have to say and not distract ourselves with taking notes. After the interviews, we will make a full written copy of the recording.

Are there any benefits to being in the research project?

- You will benefit from this research project as we will provide you with new knowledge and skills in task-based language teaching such as the basic tenets of TBLT, how to design a task-based syllabus, how to teach effectively using TBLT and how to assess students in task-based language teaching. In addition, you will also have the advantage of collaborative learning and teaching as we will work closely with you throughout the project.

Are there any risks, side-effects, discomforts or inconveniences from being in the research project?

- There are no foreseeable risks from this research project as we will conduct the study in your regular classroom setting where personal safety is not an issue. We will also assure that the assessment results of your participation will not affect your career or your relationship with the principal and other staff members.

- We have been careful to make sure that the questions in the interview do not cause you any distress. But, if you feel anxious about any of the questions you do not need to answer them. If the questions cause any concerns or upset you, we can refer you to a counsellor.

- During the research project we may find out new information about the risks and benefits of this study. If this happens we will tell you the new information and what it means to you. It may be that this new information means that you wish to withdraw from the study. You might be asked to sign a new consent form to let us know you understand any new information we have told you.

- Apart from giving up your time, we do not expect that there will be any risks or inconveniences associated with taking part in this study.

- Your participation in this study will not receive any compensation for your time.

Who will have access to my information?

- We will ensure that all information we collect about you is anonymous and confidential. The following people will have access to the information we collect in this research: the research team and, in the event of an audit or investigation, staff from the Curtin University Office of Research and Development.

- Electronic data will be password-protected and hard copy data (including video tapes) will be in locked storage.

- The information we collect in this study will be kept under secure conditions at Curtin University for 7 years after the research has ended and then it will be destroyed.

- The results of this research may be presented at conferences or published in professional journals. You will not be identified in any results that are published or presented.

Will you tell me the results of the research?
- We are not able to send you any results from this research personally as we will not collect any personal contact details. But you will receive feedback from us and we will provide your school with the results so you will be able to access them from them.

- The results will also be available through a publication in the future.

Do I have to take part in the research project?
- Taking part in this research project is voluntary. It is your choice to take part or not. You do not have to agree if you do not want to.

- If you decide to take part and then change your mind, that is okay, you can withdraw from the project. You do not have to give us a reason; just tell us that you want to stop. Please let us know you want to stop so we can make sure you are aware of anything that needs to be done.

- If you choose not to take part or start and then stop the study, it will not affect your relationship with the principal, your teacher, and other staff members.

- If you chose to leave the study we will be unable to destroy your information because it has been collected in an anonymous way.

What happens next and who can I contact about the research?
- If you need further information or have any questions about the research, you can contact Mr. Rod Ellis via email: rod.ellis@curtin.edu.au or Mr. Ariatna by email: ariatna@postgrad.curtin.edu.au

- If you decide to take part in this research we will ask you to sign the consent form. By signing it is telling us that you understand what you have read and what has been discussed. Signing the consent indicates that you agree to be in the research project. Please take your time and ask any questions you have before you decide what to do. We will give you a copy of this information and the consent form to keep.

  Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HREC number: HRE2019-0103). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au

TEACHER CONSENT FORM

HREC Project Number:	HRE2019-0103
Project Title:	Mentoring a teacher's innovation with task-based language teaching in an Indonesian secondary school
Chief Investigator:	Professor Rod Ellis
Student researcher:	Ariatna
Version Number:	1
Version Date:	12/12/2014

- I have read in *Indonesian* the information statement version listed above and I understand its contents.

- I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project.

- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.

- I believe that I am fully aware of the activities I am expected to do in the research project.

- I understand that this project has been approved by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee and will be carried out in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).

- I understand that the assessment results I receive upon completion of the study will not have any effect on my career or my relationship with the principal and other staff members.

- I voluntarily consent to take part in this research project.

- I understand I will receive a copy of this Information Statement and Consent Form.

Participant Name	
Participant Signature	
Date	

Note: All parties signing the Consent Form must date their own signature.

<u>Declaration by researcher:</u> I have supplied an Information Letter and Consent Form to the participant who has signed above, and believe that they understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of their involvement in this project.

Researcher Name	
Researcher Signature	
Date	

Note: All parties signing the Consent Form must date their own signature.

Appendix B: Teacher's own tasks

Tasks used in Lesson 7

LESSON 7 : PEOPLE'S APPEARANCES		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**
TASK 1 (Picture Pointing Activity)	Students listened to descriptions of different people. They used their index finger to point to the relevant pictures.	Simple information-gap task; input-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task, content provided
TASK 2 (Picture Matching Activity)	Students listened again to descriptions of different people. Students wrote a letter on their answer to indicate which picture description they had heard.	Simple information-gap task; input-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task; content provided

Task used in Lesson 8

LESSON 8 : PEOPLE'S JOBS		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**
TASK (Word Guessing Activity)	Students were divided into five groups. Each group had five members. One student from each group volunteered and randomly selected four cards containing pictures of jobs. The volunteer student described in words the four jobs in the card to his/her group members in two minutes. The group members guessed the jobs being described by their friend. Another member of the performing group acted as a scorer giving scores to the correct guess and the teacher helped as an MC and time keeper. Students from other groups only listened and could not guess unless the performing group gave up.	Simple information-gap task; output-based task; open outcome task; unfocused task; content provided

Task used in Lesson 9

LESSON 9 : STREET MAP		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**
TASK (Place Matching Activity)	The students were asked to look at a picture of a street map. The students were shown the names of the different places on the map. Some places were written, some others were alphabetically labelled. The students listened to the teacher's directions who tells them where each place was on the map. The students then wrote the labelled places on the map.	Simple information-gap task; input-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task, content provided

Tasks used in Lesson 10

LESSON 10 : ANIMALS		
Topic area	**Main Task**	**Description of Task**
TASK 1 (Courier and Secretary Activity)	Students were divided into five groups. Each group had five members. Then one student from each group took one animal picture randomly from the teacher. Two members became couriers whose jobs were to go to the wall, find the information related to the group's chosen picture and bring it to their group. The other three members who acted as secretaries rearranged the jumbled information about the animal into appropriate information.	Simple information-gap task; input-based and output-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task, content provided
TASK 2 (Information-summarising Activity)	Each group worked out how to summarise the collected information in their own words. One student from each group presented their summary to the class.	Simple information-gap task; input-based task and output-based task; open outcome task; unfocused task; content provided

Task used in Lesson 11

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3"><h2>LESSON 11 : PLACES</h2></td></tr>
<tr><th>Topic area</th><th>Main Task</th><th>Description of Task</th></tr>
<tr>
<td>**TASK 1**
(Discuss and Describe Activity)</td>
<td>Students were divided into five groups. Each group had five members. Then one student from each group chose one place picture randomly from the teacher.

Students discussed the picture descriptions with their group.One student from each group described their picture to the class.

Students from other groups asked questions about the picture.</td>
<td>Simple information-gap task; input-based and output-based task; open outcome task; unfocused task, content provided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>**TASK 2**
(Present and Retell Activity)</td>
<td>One student from each group presented their picture descriptions to the class.

Students from other groups listened to the presentation, summarised the information they heard and retold it in their own words.</td>
<td>Simple information-gap task; input-based and output-based task; open outcome task; unfocused task, content provided</td>
</tr>
</table>

Task used in Lesson 12

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3"><h2>LESSON 12 : SONG</h2></td></tr>
<tr><th>Topic area</th><th>Main Task</th><th>Description of Task</th></tr>
<tr>
<td>**TASK**
(Listen and Discuss Activity)</td>
<td>Students were paired. They listened to a song played by the teacher. One student had a paper with blanks and the other one had a paper with answers. They could not see each other's paper. They worked in pairs to complete the missing words by talking to each other.</td>
<td>Simple information-gap task; input-based and output-based task; closed outcome task; unfocused task, content provided</td>
</tr>
</table>

Appendix C: Data collection instruments

English language background questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to collect information about your English language background and experience. Please tick your answer in the space provided or write down an appropriate answer. For some questions, you may tick or write two or more answers. All your answers will be kept anonymous.

Personal details	
Gender	☐Male ☐Female
Age	
Class	☐7PA ☐7PB ☐7PC

English Language Background and Experience	
What language(s) do you use at home?	☐Indonesian ☐English ☐Other: _____
At what age did you start learning English?	
At what level of education did you start learning English?	☐Kindergarten ☐Primary School ☐Other: _____
Where do you currently study English outside of the school hours?	☐English Course ☐Private Class ☐Other: _____
How many hours do you currently study English per week outside of the schol hours?	
What English proficiency test(s) have you taken before? What was your last score?	☐IELTS: _____ ☐TOEFL: _____

	☐Other: _____
Have you every visited a country where English is spoken? If yes, how long did you stay/ live there?	☐Yes ☐No ☐Length of Stay: _____

Self-Reported Proficiency		
Please rate your proficiency level of the following English skills:		

Listening	☐High ☐Medium ☐Low
Speaking	☐High ☐Medium ☐Low
Reading	☐High ☐Medium ☐Low
Writing	☐High ☐Medium ☐Low

Student TBLT experience questionnaire

(Input-based Tasks)

This questionnaire is designed to collect information about your views on task usefulness, enjoyableness and engagement. Please circle the appropriate number in the space provided. Please feel free to express your opinion as there are no "right' or "wrong" answers and your answers will be kept anonymous. This questionnaire is given in Week 7 and Week 12 of the study.

No.	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Task usefulness					
1	Tasks enrich my vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
2	Tasks develop my listening skills	1	2	3	4	5
	Task enjoyableness					
3	With tasks, I feel comfortable (not bored) learning English in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
4	With tasks, I want to have more time learning English in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
5	Tasks are fun	1	2	3	4	5
	Task engagement					
6	The tasks my teacher asked me to do were about the right level of difficulty for me	1	2	3	4	5
7	I could understand my teacher easily	1	2	3	4	5
8	I let my teacher know when I did not understand something	1	2	3	4	5
9	I found myself saying some of the words to myself as I listened to teacher	1	2	3	4	5
10	I preferred using English to Indonesian throughout the lesson	1	2	3	4	5

Student TBLT experience questionnaire

(Output-based Tasks)

This questionnaire is designed to collect information about your views on task usefulness, enjoyableness, and engagement. Please circle the appropriate number in the space provided. Please feel free to express your opinion as there are no "right' or "wrong" answers and your answers will be kept anonymous. This questionnaire is given in Week 7 and Week 12 of the study.

No.	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Task usefulness					
1	Tasks help me communicate in English	1	2	3	4	5
2	Tasks improve my pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5
	Task enjoyableness					
3	With tasks, I feel comfortable (not bored) learning English in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
4	With tasks, I want to have more time learning English in the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
5	Tasks are fun	1	2	3	4	5
	Task engagement					
6	The tasks my teacher asked me to do were about the right level of difficulty for me	1	2	3	4	5
7	I had opportunities to initiate a talk	1	2	3	4	5
8	I let my teacher know when I did not understand something	1	2	3	4	5
9	I could respond to my teacher's questions	1	2	3	4	5
10	I preferred using English to Indonesian throughout the lesson	1	2	3	4	5

Teacher Preliminary Interview

The purpose of this initial structured interview is to gather information about the teacher's existing knowledge about task-based language teaching. This interview is administered before the teacher training programme starts.

1. Have you read about TBLT before?

2. So could you tell me what TBLT is?

3. How does a task differ from an exercise?

4. Do you have any idea about the four criteria for a task?

5. What are the benefits of using tasks?

6. Could you mention the three main phases of task-based language teaching?

7. Do you think tasks can be used in a large sized class? Why is that?

8. Do you think tasks work well with beginner learners? Why is that?

9. Do you have any idea of the roles a teacher plays in TBLT?

10. Could you provide an example of tasks to be used with complete beginners?

Teacher Exit Interview

The purpose of this final structured interview is to gather information about the teacher's views regarding his attempts to design and implement task-based language teaching in his own classroom. This interview is administered at the end of the study.

1. How would you define TBLT in your own words?

2. What constitutes a task? How can we say an activity is a task?

3. Could you mention the three main phases of task-based language teaching?

4. What kind of roles did you play when introducing TBLT to your students?

5. Could you describe a task-based lesson that you have successfully delivered to your class?

6. So, can you name some of the lessons that you have taught well?

7. Did you experience any particular problems in teaching TBLT?

8. Did you find doing TBLT became easier as you got used to it? Why?

9. Did you find task-based teaching enjoyable? Could you give more explanation?

10. Having tried TBLT, would you like to continue with it or make some changes in the future?

11. So, in conclusion, do you think TBLT is a good approach? Why is that?