

2. Review of Literature

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2.0 Introduction

The last chapter discussed a new dimension of the language task in this study: that of an effective tool enabling learning alongside formative or diagnostic assessment for Continuous Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) prescribed by the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE). The ability to apply this task function would depend on teacher knowledge and ability. Training in Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) did not always enable teachers to transfer theory into practical application within their classrooms. This study therefore, examines whether providing teachers with impetus to frame their own language tasks through learner-centric guidelines would induce TBLT in the classroom, and if teachers are empowered by this experience.

Task-framing, seen as requiring teaching experience and expertise, is usually not attempted by novice or grassroots teachers. Task-framing is thus, evidence of professional development rather than its cause. The causative connection between task-framing and teacher empowerment, has not been researched or documented earlier. The fact that teachers have effectively framed and used tasks for ELT studies has obvious although tacit, implications that need to be researched for teacher education.

This chapter therefore, reviews literature, tracing the theoretical framework of the present study, focusing on functions of the language task in catering to individual differences in learners, enabling collaborative and autonomous learning through higher-order cognitive use of language and thus, leading to teacher-empowerment. This new aspect of the language task emerges from task functions in the existing corpus of research in the seven following areas:

1. Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) and empowerment
2. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)
3. Collaborative Learning (CL) techniques
4. Howard Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences
5. Revised Bloom's Taxonomy
6. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)
7. Materials development

These seven topics build the theoretical foundation for using task-framing as an instrument of teacher development. This is discussed below.

Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) has aimed at empowering teachers by advancing their knowledge, but with little success in enabling teachers to apply theoretical knowledge in the classroom. SLTE courses and workshops introduced teachers to the

principles of Task-based Language Learning (TBLT) for teaching English as a Second Language (ESL), Collaborative Learning (CL) for learner autonomy, Gardner's (1983) Theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI) for catering to individual differences, and Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (RBT) for enabling higher-order thinking skills (Yelon and Schmidt, 1973). TBLT, CL, MI and RBT were also prescribed by the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 as basic principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) texts published by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and the CBSE. This did not lead to the practice of learner-centric TBLT in CBSE classrooms, where most English teachers focus on explaining textual content instead of allowing learners to engage in language tasks from prescribed NCERT/CBSE CLT texts.

Doing these skill-focused tasks would enable CL, MI, RBT as cognate principles of TBLT. Even trained teachers, however, replace prescribed language tasks with textual questions and exercises from other grammar-composition manuals and guidebooks, to which they dictate answers. The resulting text-based and teacher-controlled lessons do not enable TBLT, MI, RBT, CL or learner autonomy. Theory and practice thus remain disparate, despite teacher training in SLTE.

Task-framing or Materials Development, however, can help in combining these disparate theoretical approaches into an integrated, practical and learner-centric application, leading to both, learner autonomy and teacher empowerment. Learning these methods through task-framing would enable teachers to cater to individual differences in learners and activate their higher-order cognitive skills. Framing tasks would enable autonomous learning in teachers, fuelling self-empowerment through greater professional efficacy. The discussion in this chapter traces the development of the language task as a tool for teaching-learning and assessment through earlier research.

The new dimension of the language task, or task-framing, implementation and reflection as a self-empowerment tool for ESL teachers within the classrooms, is considered as supplementary to prescribed CBSE/CCE teacher-training. The premise is that MI-RBT-TBLT would lead to teacher education and empowerment whereas CBSE teacher-training workshops merely focus on theory without enabling teachers to connect theory with practice. This paradoxical mismatch between the aims of SLTE and its actual outcome is discussed in the following section.

2.1 Focus Shift from Training to Teacher Education for Empowerment

Numerous studies (Rankin, 1994; Richards, 1998; Nunan, 1992a; Bailey et al., 2001; Ellis, 2010) in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) identified a hiatus between the knowledge content of ELT methodology acquired by trained ESL teachers through SLTE and actual classroom practice. These studies cited training itself as the reason why SLTE programmes could not enable teacher development towards efficacious practice. The ethical difference between training teachers, subjecting them to a process, and educating teachers i.e. allowing them conscious choice of self-empowerment. Mere training would create automatons for retraining in new pedagogical developments, whereas teacher education would enable autonomous learning and self-empowerment (Richards, 1990). In this training-education dichotomy, teacher training was the micro-approach with teaching broken into discrete behavioral techniques, while the macro-vision of teacher education included developmental values, theoretical knowledge and thinking processes underlying teaching behaviours (Freeman, 1989).

Teacher training, the traditional process of developing skills for specified, predictable situations, needed replacing by teacher education to equip prospective teachers for

“situations which cannot be accommodated into preconceived patterns of response but which require a reformulation of ideas and the modification of established formulae” (Widdowson, 1990, p. 62). Mechanical, non-developmental training or regulating specific behavioural techniques through direct instruction (Richards, 1990; Freeman, 1991) gradually made way for teacher education, characterized by dynamic, higher-level cognitive processes (Shulman, 1986; Richards and Nunan, 1990), effective pedagogical knowledge and reflective self-awareness (Shulman, 1986; Gebhard, 2006).

Self-critical reflection led to teacher-awareness of the gap between theoretical knowledge and actual practice (Freeman, 1991; Richards and Lockhart, 1994). High-inference skills in classroom practice were explored through reflection-in-action or spontaneous decision-making during teaching and reflection-on-action or systematic, focused exploration after teaching (Schon, 1983). This discovery-learning of high-inference skills through experimentation with new teaching behaviours (Gebhard, 2005, 2006) embodied the methodological shift away from identifying one best or universally applicable method of teaching (Fanselow, 1987, 1990; Gebhard and Oprandy, 1999). The critical, reflective stance of teacher development with its underlying principle of self-empowerment challenged a static concept of teacher identity (Victor, 1976; Edge, 1992; Wajnryb, 1992). This enabled teachers to autonomously construct their knowledge base through changing perspectives and values and to accept responsibility for their own professional growth (Freire, 1970; Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale, 1978).

2.1.1 Approaches and Models in SLTE

ELT methodologies expanding worldwide created the field of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) in the 1960s, along with the discipline of Applied

Linguistics, to provide language teachers with practical skills in new ELT methods. Specialised theories of language, language learning and methodology focused only peripherally on actual teaching practice (Richards, 2008) until the emergence of SLTE as an international bipolar study of teacher development in the 1990s (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992; Darling-Hammond, 1994) with English as the medium as well as content of teaching, and with learners of pedagogy simultaneously being teachers (Crandall, 2000).

There existed no single standard definition of teacher development as a concept with constituent features, outcomes or measures of teacher performance (Evans, 2002), as it was viewed as a dynamic process, dominated by changing issues. The complex construct of teacher development was built, instead, on a variety of interconnected knowledge bases (Leithwood, 1992) and restructured pedagogical approaches (Day, 1999) to establish standards of practice (Darling-Hammond, 2000) ranging from general “in-service staff development” to specific “advances in teachers’ sense of purpose, instructional skills and ability to work with colleagues” (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992, pp. 8-9).

Teacher development, as a longitudinal process of behavioural change, thus generated new ideas on teaching practice for adoption, based on their viability in classroom contexts (Leat, 1999). Professional development in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL), however, was not always able to integrate cutting-edge teaching strategies into practice (Morrow et al., 2006; Rothstein-Fisch and Trumbull, 2008) because innovative SLA research published in erudite pedagogical journals remained inaccessible to ESL teachers (Crookes, 1997; Ellis, 1997c; Nassaji, 2005; Nassaji and Fotos, 2007) and due to inconsistencies in SLTE programmes (Vavrus, 2002; Robbins, 2003), such as:

- Lacunae between research-based theory and classroom practice

- Centralised hub-and-spoke SLTE models with teachers as deficit receivers of knowledge and skills
- Inadequate monitoring and on-site support in SLTE programmes, limited to fixed locations and durations
- Widely variant structural and conceptual formats in successful SLTE programmes hindering any stable formulation guidelines
- SLTE curricular resources lacking in contextual relevance

Thus, the first generation SLTE models based on Teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language (TESL/TEFL) from the 1960s to 1990s failed to create communities of learners with continuity of interaction (Parker, 1984; Waters and Vilches, 2005).

The next generation of SLTE models, evolving out of reciprocal communication between research and practice, focused on classroom variables that had previously been considered irrelevant by empirical research (Ellis, 2010; Skehan, 2007; Joyce et al., 2009):

- Learning from actual classroom experience
- Peer learning, peer feedback and mentoring among teachers
- Spaces for individual and collective reflection
- Self-directed and self-paced development to meet individual needs
- Teacher support and feedback beyond workshops to address issues in current practice
- Creating learning communities based on tenets of social constructivism
- Empowering grassroots teachers to change from receivers to co-creators of contextualised learning, who transformed educational policy to meet local targets

Even with emergent models based on successful TESL/TEFL practice, SLTE remained an amorphous area with no standard method (Shulman, 1987; Howey, 1996). The new SLTE/TESL models, like the Information-processing, Inductive thinking, Group

Investigation, Direct Instruction, Rationalist, Apprentice-Expert, Integrative and Synectics models, all emerged from classroom needs and pedagogical theory. They were influenced by constructivist philosophy that posited multiple ways of constructing knowledge (Dewey, 1933; Schön, 1983), metacognition (Bruner, 1977), scaffolding and the zone of proximal development or ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). They enabled teachers to become learners, critical thinkers, decision makers, creative planners of the learning environment and facilitators of change, through scholarly enquiry and reflective practice (Joyce et al., 2009). From the models mentioned above, the Reflective Model and the Case Studies Model emerged as dominant exploratory paradigms of teacher education.

The Reflective Model (Wallace, 1991) of SLTE, enabled teachers to undertake their own professional development through received knowledge, including the theories of ELT methodology and pedagogy as well as experiential knowledge acquired through teaching practice (Fig. 2.1):

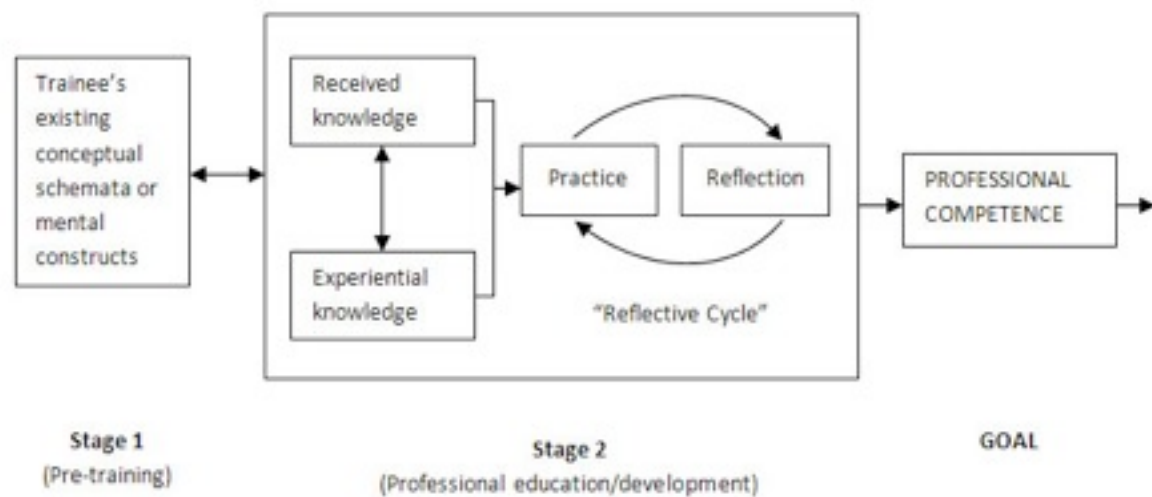


Fig. 2.1 Reflective Practice Model of Professional Development (Wallace, 1991, p. 49)

The Reflective Model constituted a continual cycle of professional development through acquired theory, its practice, and reflective evaluation of past action, leading to increased professional competence. This continuum of reflective development (Fig. 2.2)

extended from experiential knowledge of classroom teaching to knowledge received from theory (Day, 2008):

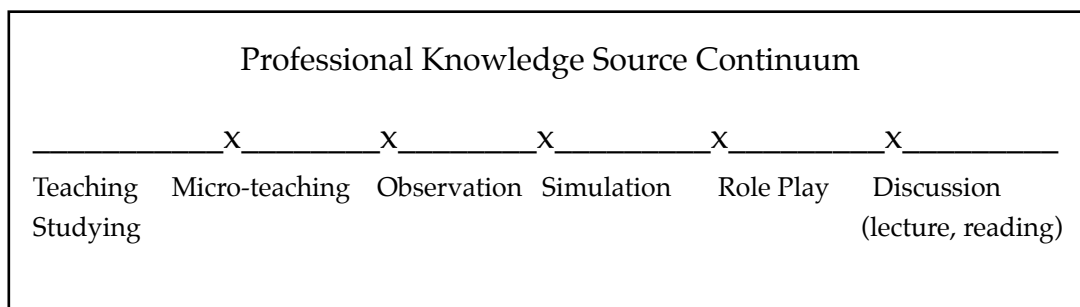


Fig. 2.2 Professional Knowledge Source Continuum (Day, 2008, p. 3)

This continuum included four kinds of knowledge (Day, 2008, p. 4):

1. **Content knowledge** or syntax, semantics, phonology, pragmatics and literary-cultural aspects of English
2. **Pedagogic knowledge** of generic teaching strategies, beliefs and practices involved in classroom management, motivation and decision-making.
3. **Pedagogic content knowledge** of methods and materials evaluation, testing and curriculum development.
4. **Support knowledge** of psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics and research methods in teaching-learning English.

Reflective practice in SLTE thus, integrated theoretical aspects of received knowledge into teacher reflection on experiential knowledge, which in turn tested and validated received knowledge (Cruickshank and Applegate, 1981; Posner, 1989; Lasley, 1989; Ur, 1992).

The Case Studies Model of professional education was based on exploratory analysis of actual case histories from the classroom to generalise ELT principles from specific behaviours (Shulman, 1991). Such knowledge was acquired mainly through the study of

cases instead of from actual teaching practice. A teacher narrative was identified as a case, being “an instance of a larger class of experiences” or a theoretical paradigm “situated in an event or series of events that unfolded over time” with a plot “that is problem-focused ... and analysed from various perspectives” (Ibid., p. 251).

These individualistic models of teacher-learning evolved through collaborative teaching partnerships with more experienced practitioners. In the 21st century, the influence of cognition theories (Borg, 2006) and Vygotskian sociocultural perspectives of SLTE as a process of cognitive apprenticeship (Freeman, 2002; Singh and Richards, 2006) affected professional thinking and practices of teachers as a global learning community (Lantolf, 2000b; Lantolf and Thorne, 2006). Constructivist SLTE models integrated theory with teaching practice in actual classrooms in collaboration with an experienced teacher who modelled effective practices (Howey and Zimpher, 1989; Feiman-Nemser, 1990, 2001). Globalisation thus redefined TESL/TEFL professionalism through established standards of the Common European Framework (Little, 2006), incorporating the sociocultural view of teacher cognition underlying teacher identity, critical/reflective pedagogy and collaborative approaches (Richards, 2008).

2.1.2 Sociocultural and Cognitive Definitions of Professional Identity

Post globalization, non-native English teachers had to demonstrate their proficiency for membership in a worldwide community of professionals committed to shared goals, values, discourses and a self-critical, transformational approach to one’s own teaching practices (Keiny, 1994; Whitford, 1994). Professionalism was thus redefined as experience mediating between theory and practice (Russell and Munby, 1991; Day, 1999, Richards, 2010), in terms of the specialized knowledge base obtainable through practical experience

as well as from professional journals, conferences, workshops, action research projects and professional organizations (Grossman, 1994). Teacher development ramified from the classroom to its ambient society (Firestone and Pennell, 1993), calling for teacher commitment, autonomy, collaboration, learning opportunities and resources (Waters and Vilches, 2008). This learning environment supported task-based SLTE with authentic materials, catering to a range of teacher-learning styles and cognitive processes in curriculum design (Hadfield, 2006). ELT professionalism as an emergent area of study covered multiple definitions (Fig. 2.3):

- ▶ Hoyle (1975) identified professionalism and professionalism as two distinct aspects of teachers' professional lives where professionalism referred to its status-related elements and professionalism was the knowledge, skills and procedures that teachers used in their work.
- ▶ Leithwood's (1992, pp. 87-88) "multidimensional description of teacher development" incorporated the three interrelated dimensions of professional expertise, psychological development and career-cycle development.
- ▶ Day (1999, p. 4) defined professional development as the "process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives."
- ▶ Evans (2002, pp. 130-131) defined "professionalism" as *"an ideologically-, attitudinally-, intellectually- and epistemologically-based stance on the part of an individual, in relation to the practice of the profession to which s/he belongs, and which influences her/his professional practice"* and teacher development as *"the process whereby teachers' professionalism and/or professionalism may be considered to be enhanced"*.

Fig. 2.3 Definitions of Professional Development of Teachers

Definitions of professionalism (Fig. 2.3) considered teacher development in the threefold personal, professional and social dimensions, through new theoretical inputs and critical practice (Bell and Gilbert, 1994). Teacher-development emerged not only as the

application of theoretical knowledge to practice but the constructing of new practitioner knowledge by participating in specific social contexts (Widdowson, 1984; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Nunan, 1995; Cowie, 2011).

The Internet brought cross-cultural experiences from global professional networks into the construction of teacher identity (Miller, 2004; Kanno and Stuart, 2011; Johnson and Golombek, 2011), which was restructured through collaborative, online communication by a community of learners engaged in dialogic inquiry, planning, problem-solving and decision-making (Freeman and Johnson, 2005; Johnson, 2006; Velez-Rendon, 2006). Collaborative teaching and observation of videotapes and peer-feedback were identified as activities that extended professionalism (Hoyle, 1975) by focusing on teacher reflection, inquiry and introspection (Grossman, 1994; Miller and Silvernail, 1994). Teachers theorized their own practice through critical self and peer observation of lessons and discursive interpretation of different teaching perspectives (Kumaravadivelu, 1999; Farrell, 2008, 2011b).

Personal theories of teaching became established constructs of teacher cognition (Cowie, 2011; Kim, 2011) through action research in the teacher's own classroom as the site of inquiry (Borg, 2006; Farrell, 2011a). Constructivist awareness of the relation between practice and theory (Hillocks Jr., 1999; Leung and Teasdale, 1999) was mediated by material and digital resources and spatial layout of the classroom (Danielewicz, 2001), and monitored through portfolios, narratives and journals (Richards and Farrell, 2005). Action research thus led teacher development towards autonomy and empowerment.

2.1.3 SLTE Towards Autonomy and Empowerment

Teacher autonomy and empowerment in the Asian context, however, was often negated by tension and conflict between the language learning perceptions of local, non-native teachers and western innovation in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodology (Hayes, 2009; Mak, 2011). Traditionally, teachers were not involved in policy decisions affecting their work (Frymier, 1987). Exposure to global teaching cultures characterized by diverse aspects of professional freedom (Little, 2000), social transformation through dialogue (Freire, 1970; Shor and Freire, 1987; Giroux, 1988), critical reflection (Smyth, 1989), and free will to attain professional competency (Benson, 2001; McGrath, 2000) induced more innovative practices in Asia and culturally sensitive pedagogy across the world (Qing, 2005).

SLTE aimed at autonomy and empowerment, mainly through professional efficacy in self-sustained, reflective, action research (Wellington and Austin, 1996). Enabling teacher voice in decisions on curriculum and materials was the outcome (Short and Rinehart, 1992; Short and Greer, 1993; Dam and Little, 1999). The most evolved role in autonomous teaching included the planning of learning activities using innovative digital technology (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986; Short, 1994), designing materials appropriate for differentiated learning, and creating opportunities for thinking, analysis and feedback (Hargreaves, 1998; Pianta, 1999). The degree of teacher freedom available in designing materials (Everard and Morris, 1985), being dependent on teaching context and teacher efficacy, was not absolute. Degrees of teacher autonomy could be plotted on a continuum ranging from passive reception of pre-determined syllabus and prescribed textbooks by

teachers at one end, to emergent or negotiated syllabus with teacher freedom to design materials, at the other end (Fig. 2.4):

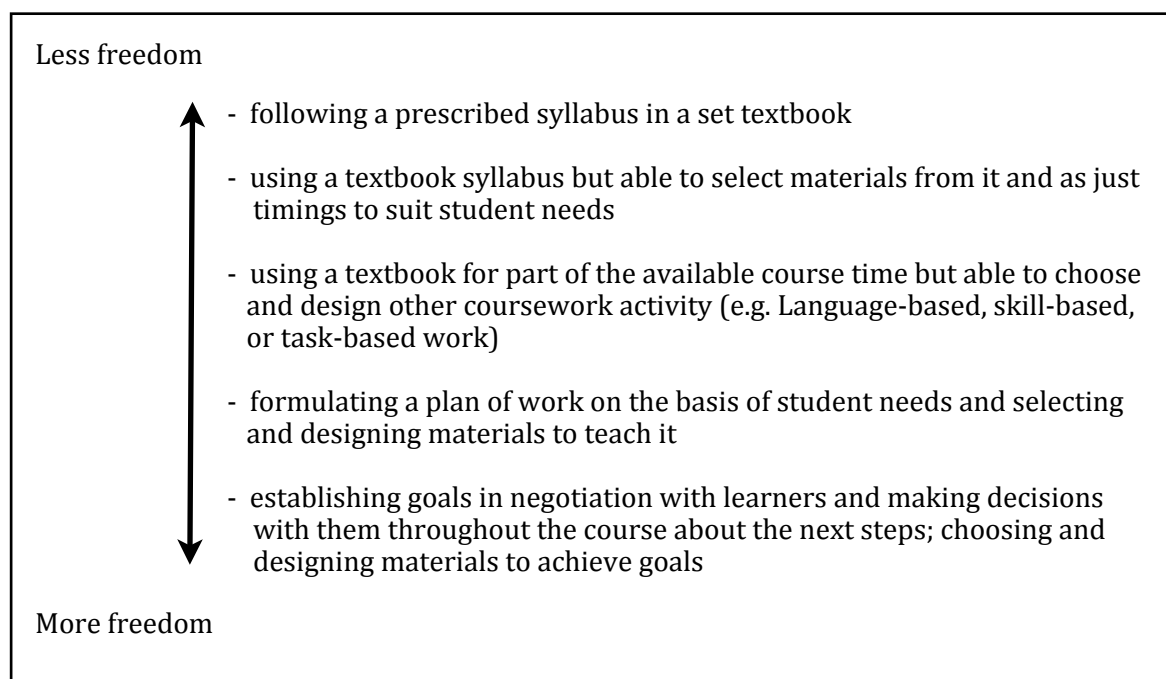


Fig. 2.4: Teacher freedom in designing materials (Everard and Morris, 1985, p. 338)

In this changing culture of empowerment, expert teachers participated in policy related to ELT methods and materials, available resources, multilingual learners, teacher collaboration, workshops and materials design (Little, 1995; Hedge, 2000). Autonomous and self-empowered teachers were characterized by their capacity for reflection, lifelong learning, risk-taking and collaborative experimentation with new ideas in their specific teaching-learning context (Rosenholtz, 1987; Benson, 2010a, 2010b).

Empowered teachers fulfilled multiple roles, coordinating learner effort, guiding individual learners, prompting group discussions, structuring the learning environment, and motivating as well as assessing learners (Freeman, 1998; Hedge, 2000). Within an emotionally supportive classroom, autonomous teacher skills could proactively facilitate learner autonomy, knowledge and communication skills (Moos, 1979; Ashton and Webb,

1986; Lightfoot, 1986; Littlewood, 1999) by passing on the values of collaborative yet self-actualized learning, critical reflection and inquiry-based dialogue to learners (Bartlett, 1990; Short et al., 1991; Short and Greer, 1993).

A more eclectic, contextualized approach to TESL/TEFL therefore, began to replace traditional CLT to suit culturally different contexts of individual learner needs, learning styles and strategies in local or national classroom cultures (Bax, 2003). Self-empowerment by non-native ELT teachers was thus, triggered by their acquiring new and context-specific knowledge and skills to cope with the pace of change, to enhance professional status and to combat negativity and burnout (Bailey et al., 2001).

Mainstream SLTE during the 1990s, however, focused inadequately on the sociocultural practices discussed above (Miller, 2004; Firth and Wagner, 1997; Norton, 1997) due to the continuing, misplaced belief in CLT as the best method for all learners in different learning contexts, with prescriptive learning activities and teaching materials to match (Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Richards, 1987).

Teachers, however, questioned the relevance of the CLT-based SLTE curriculum including language and discourse analysis, phonology, curriculum development and methodology, the objectives of which did not meet their prior expectations of practical teaching skills (Farrell, 2001, Freeman, 2002; Bartels, 2005; Cross, 2011). The task-based approach therefore, was used by mentor-teachers collaborating with novices to effectively compensate for inadequacies in SLTE, replacing theory-oriented methods with learner-centric tasks for self-directed action research towards autonomy (Shavelson and Stern, 1981; Swaffar et al., 1982; Van Lier, 1992).

2.2 Task-Based Pedagogy and Self-Directed Teachers

Tasks became the focus of SLTE, as self-directed teaching moved away from pedagogical theory towards identifying effective teaching practices directly in the classroom through self-analysis, evaluation and lesson-planning around tasks rather than methods (Candlin and Murphy, 1987). Post-Methodist task design enabled teachers to systematically explore the development and application of tasks, adapting the set syllabus and materials for the action-research cycle of task development, presentation and evaluation through workshops and case studies in their own professional contexts (Lewis and Aping, 2002). The task as the new paradigm of SLTE thus, changed experienced teachers from passive recipients and implementers of syllabus and methods into active creators of materials, classroom activities and assessment procedures (Nunan and Lamb 1996, Barfield et al., 2001).

2.2.1 Task Origins in CLT Pedagogy

The task as a teaching unit had evolved from post-Chomskyan CLT based on the functional model (Halliday, 1970, 1973, 1976, 1978), the theory of communicative competence (Hymes, 1971, 1972) and error-analysis studies (Corder, 1967). Pre-Chomsky structural approaches to ELT (Bloomfield, 1942) emphasised accuracy, whereas tasks in CLT focused on using language appropriately in discourse (Widdowson, 1978) through linguistic (Stern, 1983), illocutionary, sociolinguistic (Bachman, 1990), discourse (Widdowson, 1978) and strategic (Canale and Swain, 1980) competences and fluency (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984). The Council of Europe had identified weak and strong versions of CLT in 1971. Traditional SLTE courses had been based on the weak or analytic, interventionist approach to CLT (Howatt, 1984) which formed the basis of threshold, notional and functional syllabuses (Wilkins, 1976; Van Ek, 1976). These were

replaced by post-methodist, task-based SLTE courses (White, 1998) following the strong or non-interventionist, holistic version of CLT, claiming that learners acquired the structural system of language while passing through developmental interlanguages (Selinker, 1972) in the process of learning how to communicate (Howatt, 1984).

The strong version of CLT in **Task-supported language teaching** incorporated tasks into traditional approaches as supplementary activators of Second Language (L2) fluency, without targeting specific linguistic features (Curran, 1972; Winn-Bell Olsen, 1977; Bryne and Rixon, 1979; Allen, 1984). Humanistic principles emphasised the affective dimension in cognitive tasks by encouraging supportive peer-feedback to increase self-esteem and motivation in learners (Curran, 1972; Moskowitz, 1977). Later, this evolved into the **Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)** curriculum. Tasks relating to real life or other curricular subjects formed the sole basis of language curriculum (White, 1998), enabling language through communication (Stern, 1992; Brown and Yule, 1983b).

The present study, using tasks to supplement the prescribed NCERT/CBSE syllabus in the research intervention is, strictly speaking, a task-supported method, according to TBLT definitions (Brown and Yule, 1983b; Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991; Bygate, 1998; Gass and Selinker, 2001). For convenience, however, TBLT is the blanket term used to denote all uses of tasks in teaching-learning English. Cognitive or language learning dimensions of tasks are reinforced by affective dimensions of peer-feedback and motivation in TBLT. Bifurcation in TBLT syllabus was based, not on the predominance of text or task, but on whether the syllabus gave precedence to meaning or form, or integrated both (Widdowson, 1981). The form-focused, meaning-focused or integrated methodology adopted as specific task purpose determined the TBLT curriculum.

2.2.2 Form and Meaning Focus in TBLT

In TBLT, the syllabus was designed around the language task as a complex unit with varied functions (Long and Crookes, 1992), ranging from pedagogic tasks activating the creative use of newly-emerging language skills to real-world tasks rehearsing real-life skills (Hyland, 2003b). The spectrum of TBLT objectives thus ranged from grammatical accuracy to contextual fluency (Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson, 1984), with a corresponding dichotomy of task focus into form and meaning (Ellis, 1982), or medium and message (Krashen, 1982), as represented below (Nunan, 2004) (Fig. 2.5):

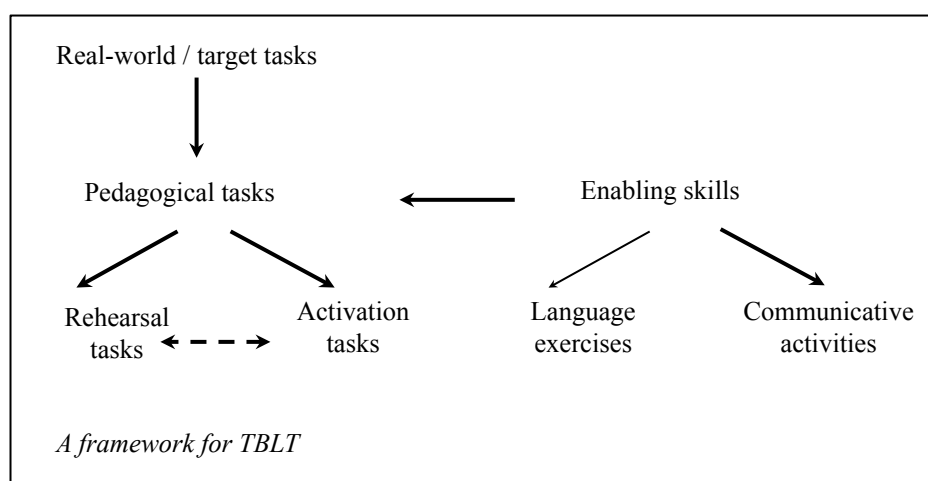


Fig. 2.5: A Framework for TBLT (Nunan, 2004, p. 25)

The various approaches in this TBLT spectrum (Fig. 2.5) addressed key issues of the learner-centred language curriculum, including meaning-based activity, focus-on-form, affective factors, metacognitive language learning and language-ability assessment (Stenhouse, 1975; Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Ellis, 1997a). Tasks, thus, functioned as testing tools of language ability for specific purposes (Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Douglas, 2000) as well as of general language proficiency (Morrow, 1979; McNamara, 1996; Skehan, 1998a, 2001), and formative diagnosis of language needs.

Progressivist influence (Clark, 1987) on TBLT syllabus valorised language-learning experience in an optimal environment created through socio-cultural negotiation, with teacher and learners analysing their needs and interests, selecting appropriate content, deciding classroom procedures, and reflectively evaluating the teaching-learning process (Breen and Candlin, 1980; Candlin, 1987; Breen, 1987a, 1987b). This procedural TBLT approach taught through communication, with tasks engaging the cognitive skills of selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing and transforming information from one form of representation to another. These tasks induced learners to formulate content cognitively as information, reason or opinion, by including the ‘reasonable challenge’ of an information-gap, reasoning-gap or opinion-gap (op. cit. Prabhu, 1987).

The cognitive reasoning demanded by an overtly non-linguistic goal motivated spontaneous task-engagement (Willis and Willis, 2007), while also requiring the restructuring of language (Craik and Tulving, 1975; Robinson, 2001). Task-completion through cognitive processes thus, led to a task outcome distinct from the pedagogic objective of eliciting meaning-focused, receptive and productive language use (Skehan, 1996a; Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003b). The task instructions and rubric specified this outcome (Bachman and Palmer, 1996), structured the context of language use in learner interaction, and influenced the choice of linguistic forms (Lee, 2000). Tasks thus generated specific process outcomes while developing pragmatic, linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence in learners (Canale, 1983).

The linguistic negotiation of meaning among learners during task performance, however, involved minimal teacher intervention in error-correction (Canale and Swain, 1980; Bachman, 1990), thus frequently developing an “undesirable fluency” in the use of

convenient yet erroneous forms by learners (Skehan, 1996a, p. 49). To correct such errors, accuracy was needed to balance the communicative aspect of the task. Earlier, the Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP) approach had integrated form and content by Presentation of a language item to learners through examples, then Practice of it in controlled exercises, and finally, Production of it through language tasks (Brumfit, 1979; Littlewood, 1981; Gower and Walters, 1983). PPP also used diagnostic tasks to identify learner inability in using the targeted feature (Batstone, 1994). SLA research, however, criticised PPP for deviating from the actual way in which learners acquired L2 i.e. by restructuring a series of transitional interlanguages (Selinker, 1972), while incorporating new grammatical features (Rutherford, 1987) only when they were developmentally ready to do so (Skehan, 1996b).

TBLT replaced PPP with integrated process tasks (Widdowson, 1990) identifying the core language-learning objectives (Cameron, 1997; Nunan, 1989), allowing for individual differences through peer-learning in mixed-ability groups, and also providing opportunities for learners to engage with the task within their individual capabilities (Ellis and Ellis, 2007). Task-based studies (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994; Coughlan and Duff, 1994; Donato, 1994; Swain, 2000; Swain and Lapkin, 2000) interpreted Vygotskian (1978, 1986) scaffolding and collaborative dialogue in task performance as supportive interactions between L2 learners and more proficient speakers that enabled learners to perform more language functions during task-activity than they could on their own.

The task-as-workplan, however, did not always match the task-as-process as learners redefined activities to suit their own purposes (Hosenfeld, 1976; Breen, 1989). To counter this with equal focus on all task aspects, it was necessary to balance language fluency with

accuracy by combining product-based or focused tasks with process-based or unfocused tasks through pre-task, on-task and post-task activities (Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Skehan, 1996a). Learners would improve through a series of increasingly complex interlanguages with alternating focus on fluency and form, according to individual need. The parallel syllabus (Ellis, 1987, 2003b) in TBLT enabled this by including two parallel modules of communicative tasks and Focus-on-Form (FoF) tasks within one design (Fig. 2.6):

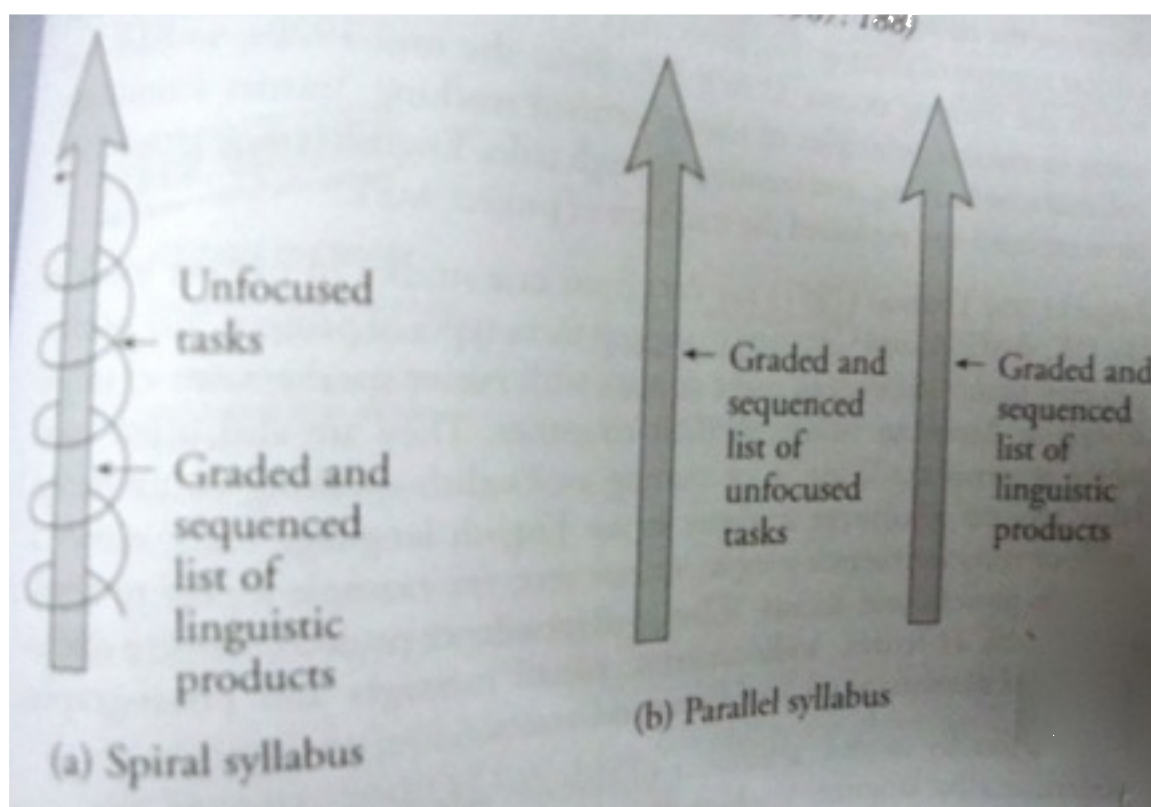


Fig. 2.6 Spiral and Parallel Syllabuses (Ellis, 1987, p. 188)

The spiral TBLT syllabus-design (Brumfit, 1980, 1984; Nunan, 2004), on the other hand, tried to achieve a similar end by integrating the form-focused and communicative modules (Fig. 2.6) through task-chaining or the selection, grading and sequencing of fluency tasks according to goals of communicative competence or complexities of interlanguages, without a separate form-focus (Wright, 1987; Breen, 1989; Nunan, 1989; Ellis, 1997a, 2003a). The debate between tasks that focus on form or language code and

communicative tasks that focus on message is ongoing, with education policies in different countries not taking any clearly delineated stand in their curriculum designs (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Tarone, 1981; Shipka, 2005). Research has documented much evidence in favour of both, form-focussed and meaning-focussed approaches to TBLT, as well as the disadvantages of each.

Research on focused tasks showed that the choice of linguistic forms could be influenced by varying the task inputs (Tarone, 1983b; Nobuyoshi and Ellis, 1993; Newton and Kennedy, 1996; Bygate, 1999b; Takashima and Ellis, 1999). These variable task-inputs included the learner's familiarity with task information, structure and procedures (Skehan and Foster, 1997, 2001), planning time given, and complexity of outcome (Yule and McDonald, 1990; Pica et al., 1991; Skehan, 1998b; Schmidt, 1990, 1994). Task-based SLA research therefore, investigated the language output and cognitive processes likely to occur when input, conditions and procedures were systematically varied (Ur, 1981; Klippel, 1984; Swain, 1995; Richards et al., 1985; Day, 1986; Crookes and Gass, 1993a, 1993b; Bygate et al., 2001), successfully identifying both, the kinds of input that worked best for language comprehension and acquisition (Pica, Young and Doughty, 1987; Pica and Doughty, 1985a, 1985b; Doughty, 1991; Ellis, Tanaka and Yamasaki, 1994; Loschky, 1994;), as well as the psycho-linguistic task elements affecting L2 processing (Duff, 1986; Crookes, 1986; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Ayoun, 2001).

There were studies, on the other hand, proving that even motivated learners showed little gain in accuracy from FoF tasks when high anxiety induced by focussing on form prevented input for language acquisition from reaching the brain (Fathman and Whalley, 1990; Truscott, 1998; Ashwell, 2000; Ferris, 2004; McAlester, 2010). Variability Theory

also showed that learner language in naturally occurring speech remained disparate from language use in FoF tasks (Tarone, 1979, 1982, 1983a; Beebe, 1980; Ellis, 1987; Tarone and Parrish, 1988). This was confirmed by evidence of causal disconnect between FoF tasks and language acquisition (Loschky and Bley-Vroman, 1993; Estaire and Zanón, 1994; Willis, 1996). SLA research on task output, therefore, emphasised attention to communicative requirements during FoF task performance (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Swain and Lapkin, 1998; Samuda, 2001; Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen, 2001b).

The Input (Monitor) Hypothesis (Krashen, 1981, 1985a, 1985b, 1994, 1996, 2004, 2008) and Natural Approach to TBLT (Long, 1983a, 1996; Krashen and Terrell, 1983) provided learners with comprehensible language inputs to process through communication by targetting meaning-focussed rather than form-focussed language learning (Long and Porter, 1985; Candlin, 1987). Studies proved, moreover, that unfocused, consciousness-raising (CR) tasks (Ellis, 1991; Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Fotos, 1994) enabled learners to use language pragmatically for non-linguistic outcomes along with metacognitive reflection on language usage and learning strategies (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Wenden, 1995) for self-directed language learning (Breen, 1985a, 1985b).

This multiplicity in task functioning, clearly, problematised task definition. Activity Theory in fact, challenged the concept of the task as a unitary, fixed concept, distinguishing the task as blueprint with a specific goal from the task in action. Activity Theory, based on studies by Vygotsky and Leont'ev (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006), offered a descriptive analytical framework that problematized language learning by relating it with mediated thinking and communication, not only between people but also within individuals, with the perception that historical, institutional and discursive forces mediated

language activity (Brown and Yule, 1983a; Thorne, 2004). An activity was thus, regarded as a complex interaction of individual learner motives, educational context, process of interaction, and outcomes (Newton, 1991; Ushioda, 2003). The individual goals of learners interpreting tasks subjectively, therefore, did not always match those of their peer or teacher mediators. Learners, for example, could connect a task with its social focus embodied in their previous cognitive-experiential schema, whereas the teacher might focus on the learning of specific language forms and vocabulary. It was possible for learners to thus, direct language activities according to their own objectives and motivations (Coughlan and Duff, 1994; Trappes-Lomax and Ferguson, 2002).

Activity Theory “provides for an interpretative framework where learner perspective in regard to motive can more finely analyzed in relation to processes and outcomes” (Parks, 2000, p. 66). The aim was to improve teaching and learning outcomes by transforming practice, providing additional mediation, offering different rules of engagement, and grouping learners with diverse cognitive profiles and language learning goals into a dynamic learning community (Byrne and Rixon, 1979; Marton, 1981; Asher, 2000; Schuurink and Rvies, 2009). Activity Theory, thus, suggested that the teacher needed to carefully consider the language goals of learners to frame task activities that effectively addressed learner perspectives.

Post-methods task criteria included learner choices in task outcome, intrinsic motivation, authenticity and focus, multiple approaches and skills, reasonable challenge eliciting effective learning strategies, peer negotiation, a rubric with unambiguous evaluation criteria, teacher feedback, learner autonomy and self-discovery (Nunan, 1988b, 1991; Reid and Kroll, 1995; Brown, 2002; Beglar and Hunt, 2002; Vilches, 2003). Poetry,

song, drama and technology became valuable task inputs, varying the medium of L2 teaching, encouraging the creative use of language, and enabling underachieving learners to discover linguistic competence in extra-academic contexts like poetry and drama (Maley and Duff, 1984; Maley, 1987; Via, 1987; Rivers, 1987; Elgar, 2002).

Teachers as well as researchers were directly and indirectly involved in the formulation of tasks that best promoted and sustained language learning. This dual role of tasks in research as well as pedagogy was significant as both perspectives came to be included in task definition. Tasks became the common ground where SLA research met pedagogy, providing an immediacy of interaction between the language classroom and research, which had never before been achieved. Task definitions, as discussed in the next section, encompassed the entire range of task aspects, functions and outcomes relevant to both, researchers and teachers.

2.2.3 Defining the Task in TBLT

SLA research and TBLT pedagogy became interdependent pursuits, with teachers and researchers both wishing to identify tasks promoting the best learning (van Lier, 1994; Pica, 1997). Diverse perspectives in SLA research and TBLT pedagogy addressed the scope of a task, which in turn, determined its perspective, authenticity and outcome, as well as the linguistic skills and psychological processes required for its performance (Ellis, 2003a; Leaver and Willis, 2004). Task scope (Littlewood, 2004) was differentiated into:

- (a) Task activities for primarily meaning-focused, pragmatic language use in authentic, contextualised communication
- (b) Exercise drills for primarily form-focused language use in structured communication, relating to the semantic or systemic meanings conveyed by specific forms, irrespective of context.

The two above variations in task scope problematised task definition as task focus on meaning or form conditioned the degree of learner involvement and other task features discussed in the previous section. There were, thus, several overlapping definitions of a task, covering the continuum of shifting task focus, ranging from meaning-focussed to form-focussed, as represented below (Fig. 2.7):

Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985): A task is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language i.e. as a response.

Prabhu (1987): A task is an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process.

Nunan (1989): A communicative task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focussed on meaning rather than form.

Breen (1989): A task is a structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge and capabilities entailed in a new language and its use during communication.

Skehan (1996a): a task is an activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some sort of relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome.

Lee (2000): A task is (1) a classroom activity or exercise that has: (a) an objective obtainable only by the interaction among participants, (b) a mechanism for structuring and sequencing interaction, and (c) a focus on meaning exchange; (2) a language learning endeavour that requires learners to comprehend, manipulate, and/or produce the target language as they perform some set of workplans.

Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001): A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective.

Ellis (2003a, p. 16): A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed.

Fig. 2.7 Definitions of a Task (cited in Ellis, 2003a, pp. 4-5)

The divide between accuracy and fluency in task process, as inferred from the above definitions, however, was not absolute, because learners, whether engaged in tasks or exercises, usually attended to meaning as well as form in both (Widdowson, 1998). The definitions of task by Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) and Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001) were primarily meaning and context focussed, while the definition of task by Ellis (2003a) combined focus on meaning with form-focus within the communicative context. Prabhu's (1987) definition of task emphasised the cognitive dimension within the meaning-focussed context of language use. Nunan (1989) and Breen (1989) both focussed on defining task in communicative language use, the former within preplanned, pedagogical context, the latter extending to real-life language use. Skehan (1996a) combined the classroom context of structured language forms with the assessment of these in their real life use. Lee's (2000) definition outlined a task-plan combining real-life language use with the learning of forms. The present study subscribes to the unison of meaning and form emerging from the above task definitions (Fig. 2.7), so as to elicit target language through language use for task-planning and outcome.

The definitions of task from different perspectives of form and meaning, purpose, context, and outcome, also made it difficult to identify any one standard for structuring or framing tasks. The criteria for task-framing, selection and sequencing, therefore, were decided according to the various aspects of tasks addressed in the above definitions, and integrated for pedagogical application in task definitions by Nunan and Ellis (Fig. 2.7).

2.2.4 Evaluating Task Structure and Design

Task definitions by Nunan (1989) and Ellis (2003a) in the previous section, elicited components of task-structure that best enabled meaning-focused task performance and

outcome, while ensuring accuracy of form in language learning. Certain basic task components identified by Nunan (1989, as cited in Ellis, 2003a) systematically described and classified tasks, thus providing options for designing different types of pedagogical tasks (Table 2.1):

	Design feature	Description
1	Goals	The general purpose and learning objective of the task, related to overall aim and outcome: to practise describing objects concisely; to provide an opportunity for the use of relative clauses.
2	Input	The verbal or non-verbal information provided in materials: pictures, maps, written text, film, dialogue, graphics, lyrics, etc.
3	Settings	The classroom arrangements implied in the task.
4	Conditions	The way in which the information is presented, e.g. split vs. shared information, or the way in which it is to be used, e.g. converging vs. diverging.
5	Procedures	The methodological procedures to be followed in performing the task, e.g. group vs. pair work; planning time vs. no planning time.
6	Predicted outcomes	<i>Product:</i> The product that results from completing the task, e.g. a completed table; a route drawn on a map; a list of differences between two pictures. The predicted product can be 'open', i.e. allow for several possibilities, or 'closed', i.e. allow for only one 'correct' solution.
7	Roles	Played by teachers and learners in task execution and their relationships;
8	Activities	Learners' action with the input for task accomplishment.
9	Process	The linguistic and cognitive processes the task is hypothesized to generate.

Table. 2.1 A Framework for Evaluating Tasks (Nunan, 1989, cited in Ellis 2003a, p. 21)

Ellis (2003a, pp. 9-10) summed up the critical features of a task for its evaluation as:

1. A task constituted a work plan with teaching materials for learner activity. Communicative behaviour of learners could, yet, deviate from this plan.
2. The communicative aim of a task determined its non-linguistic outcome.
3. A task engaged learners in real-world processes of language use.
4. A task involved one or more of the four language skills.
5. A task primarily focused on meaning to develop L2 proficiency through communication, using language pragmatically rather than accurately. A task thus incorporated either an information, opinion or reasoning gap (Prabhu, 1987) that motivated language use to close the gap. The task workplan, even in FoF tasks, left the final choice of language for negotiation to the learner, creating, however, a certain semantic need for certain cognitive processes, which limited the choice of linguistic options (Kumaravadivelu, 1991, 1993).
6. A task engaged learners in cognitive processes like selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning and evaluating information during task performance. Task outcome was achieved by circumscribing the target range of linguistic forms within the choices open to learners in these cognitive processes.

Cognitive thinking processes were thus effective determinants of the use of linguistic forms, even in real-life contexts of language use. The use of cognitive processes in task planning and performance emerged as a major criterion of evaluating outcomes in the task rubric. One measure of proficiency in learners was the effective use of language for engaging in cognitive processes requiring higher-order thinking skills. The connection between language and higher-order thinking skills was correlated with the choice of linguistic forms, negotiated planning and communicative performance during different task

phases. Language as the expressive medium of abstract intellectual processes, was here incorporated by TBLT as one of its aspects, from a much earlier strand of extended discourse in the history of cognition.

2.3 Cognitive Thinking Skills in TBLT

The historical debate on the concept of intellectual development through thinking and speech either considered knowledge as a construct of the mind in interaction with its environment (Bruner, 1977, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986), or believed intellectual faculties like language to be inborn properties of the mind (Chomsky, 1957, Piaget, 1973). Cognitive approaches to learning (Prabhu, 1987; McDonough, 1995; Gardner, 2005) effected a compromise between these two absolute perspectives by considering competent language use in real-world contexts as intellectual evidence of the mental growth of declarative, procedural and metalinguistic knowledge in learners (Gardner, 2004b). In TBLT, meaning-focussed language use played a pivotal role in information access, planning and problem-solving (Carroll, 1964; Wertsch, 1991), while multi-dimensional critical, creative and caring thinking aimed at a fine balance between the cognitive and affective dimensions of tasks (Lipman, 2003).

Teachers as reflective instructors (Mok, 2009) developed their own and learners' critical thinking and decision-making skills, thereby directly impacting their motivational and achievement levels (Brophy, 1985). In addition, the Nietzschean perspective of learners thinking dialectically outside their own frame of reference (Giroux, 1988), enabled the acquisition of higher cognitive skills and the awareness of a multiplicity of viewpoints (Eliot, 2000; Pontecorvo and Sterponi, 2002). Critical, strategic and reflective thinking skills were necessary for language learning, i.e. moving beyond the familiar frame of

linguistic references. These thinking skills could be developed by eliciting high degrees of conscious will, emotion and cognition (Moseley et al., 2005). Tasks using question prompts to relating cognitive with affective and interpersonal dimensions of problem-solving, elicited different kinds of thinking in task-phases, as outlined below (Table 2.2):

Area of thinking	Prompts and questions	Tasks
Information-gathering	Think about what you know already. Have you done anything like this before? What information has been given to you?	Identify the person you will see to review your process and where and when this will take place.
Building understanding	Put the problem into your own words. What do you have to do? What will the final outcome look like?	Make changes suggested by your supervisor.
Productive thinking	Think of ways to tackle the problem. What can you work out? What other approaches might work? Can you think of other possibilities?	Seek and actively use feedback and support from relevant sources to help you to meet targets.
Strategic management of thinking	Is this approach going to get you there? Have you overcome difficulties like this before? How good an answer will this be? What ideas of thinking might you be able to use in the future?	Adapt your strategy to overcome difficulties and produce the quality of outcomes required.
Reflective thinking	Keep track of what you are doing. How is it going? Did guessing the answers help at all?	Monitor and critically reflect on what you are learning and how you are learning, noting the choices you make and judging their effectiveness.

Table. 2.2 Problem Solving (Moseley et al., 2005, pp. 317-18)

Critical reasoning and analysis, verbalising mental pictures, visualising text and internalising affective management skills (Puchta and Rinvolutri, 2005) thus engaged learners in differentiated and multiple higher-order thinking and problem-solving skills, enabling them to use their relatively stronger intellectual areas to activate others. Cognitive thinking, therefore, covered a multiplicity of intelligences (Gardner, 1993a, 1999b) and thinking skills were applicable at different levels that could be arranged in a cognitive hierarchy (Bloom et al., 1956; Anderson et al., 2001; Krathwohl, 2002). The horizontal or extensive multiple dimension and the vertical or intensive hierarchical dimension of

cognitive thinking are discussed respectively, in the Theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI) and Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (RBT).

2.3.1 MI Task Inputs for Differentiated Learning

Howard Gardner's (1983) Theory of Multiple Intelligences ushered in a new perspective of intelligence as the ability to process information-input in multiple or horizontally extensive (equally important) ways. Gardner (1993a, p. 7) typified nine intelligences:

1. **Verbal-linguistic Intelligence** indicated the ability to enjoy and cope with the intricacies of vocabulary, grammar, literature and the other aspects of language.
2. **Logical-mathematical Intelligence** enabled a greater degree of enjoyment in solving logical conundrums and mathematical puzzles and in manipulating numbers.
3. **Visual-spatial Intelligence** indicated the presence of a strong sense of dimensions, space, direction, shape, colour and similar details.
4. **Musical-rhythmic Intelligence**, usually possessed by singers, musicians and poets posited a keen awareness of pitch, tone, rhythm and balance.
5. **Physical-kinesthetic Intelligence** was the ability to manoeuvre the body or other things skilfully with a great deal of precision, skill, stamina and balance.
6. **Interpersonal Intelligence** indicated a sensitiveness to social nuances, the exigencies of a situation or the needs of fellow beings to enable adjustment with different kinds of people and making friends easily.
7. **Intrapersonal Intelligence** indicated self-knowledge, self-discipline and an ability to find strength within oneself and make decisions alone.
8. **Naturalistic Intelligence** was strong in people with an awareness of nature, its flora and fauna, ecological issues and the need to conserve natural resources.

9. **Existential Intelligence** (Gardner 1999b, 2004a) was typified by the need to explore metaphysical concepts and query into life, death, etc. This Intelligence is mentioned but not used in this study, being considered as normally lying outside the scope of planned language-learning activity in the classroom.

MI theory explained the differences of cognitive functioning in learners as differentiated learning profiles in a continuum (Gardner, 1993b, 2003; Chen, 2004; Eisner, 2004). Teachers responded to MI Theory because it indicated a pluralistic view of cognition, confirming their own experiences with multicultural learners, both, the gifted and those with learning difficulties. Exploratory Practice (EP) or action research in the MI curriculum for TESL/TEFL therefore, stressed plurality of understanding for problem-solving (Allwright, 2005), based on a multi-modal, multi-sensory set of teaching strategies and assessment tools appropriate for individual differences in learners (Glasgow and Bush, 1996; Glasgow, 1996).

The Multiple Intelligences Teaching Approach (MITA) focussed on diversified thinking, personalised feedback, cognitive bridging techniques (Armstrong, 1993, 1994; Weber, 2001), metacognitive understanding and insightful assessments (Armstrong, 1998; Owen Wilson, 1998; Weber, 2005). MITA also facilitated teacher-collaboration through team-teaching or common planning-time within a supportive and reflective environment (Hickey, 2004). TESL/TEFL therefore, experienced a paradigm shift towards a more learner-centred and motivational pedagogy with teachers accepting responsibility for learning (Beckman, 1998; Shore, 2004).

MI stimulated disciplinary mastery with understanding as its basis (Gardner, 1998). The brain “not only stimulates active consumption of classroom material but also enhances

understanding of the material” (Gardner, 1999b, p. 169). Here, “understanding” went beyond the “simple capacity to recall information” and included “ability to apply learning to entirely new situations” (Gardner 2004b, pp. 13-14). In creating knowledge, the mind went beyond the known to develop new ideas and skills, with the cognitive aspect complementing the personal aspects in creativity (Gardner, 2005). Learners become co-facilitators of learning as they presented evidence of understanding through multiple representations of the academic content learnt (Di’Az-Lefebvre, 2004; Beliafsky, 2006). Multiple entry points to understanding pluralized the inquiry paradigm, recognising diverse abilities in individuals to create new domains of knowledge (Gardner, 1993a, 1993c, 1999a). This intellectual movement from understanding to application and beyond, towards creativity, was outlined, from a different hierarchical perspective, in the Revised Bloom’s Taxonomy (RBT) of learning objectives. RBT organised knowledge in a vertical hierarchy from knowledge below to creativity above, commonly known as Bloom’s Pyramid.

2.3.2 Framing Cognitive Tasks with RBT

Bloom created a Taxonomy of learning objectives in 1948, an interwoven complex in three domains: (1) the Cognitive or knowledge-based domain in six levels, (2) the Affective or attitudinal domain in five levels, and (3) the Psychomotor skills-based domain in six levels (Bloom et al., 1956; Eisner, 2002; Krathwohl, 2002; Houghton, 2004). Pioneering applications of the Cognitive domain of Bloom’s taxonomy to language teaching occurred in 1970 (Valette, 1969, 1971, as cited in Stern, 1983, Valette and Disick, 1972; Ormell, 1974). This Original Taxonomy (OT) was a “cumulative hierarchy of objectives” (Krietzler and Madaus, 1994, p. 66) arranged in order of increasing complexity, with behaviours of each less complex class subsumed in the next higher class (Bloom, 1994), along a vertical dimension from lower to higher orders of cognitive thinking.

The Behaviourist bias of the OT, ordering cognitive processes in a single dimension from simple to complex, however, limited its application (Furst, 1994), leading to its frequent modifications in constructivist, metacognitive TBLT. Learners were required to regulate knowledge (Stern, 1992; Krietzer and Madaus, 1994; Zimmerman, 1998), apply acquired skills in new contexts (Boekaerts, 1999), use cognitive, motivational and metacognitive strategies (Dansereau, 1985; Ertmer and Newby, 1996; Gu, 1996; Griffiths and Parr, 2001; Hsiao and Oxford, 2002), and engage in creative reconstructions through self-evaluation to creativity (McCombs, 1994; Brown et al., 1994; Kriewaldt, 2001).

The Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (RBT) of educational objectives in the cognitive domain, developed in the nineties (Anderson et al., 2001; Anderson and Krathwohl, 2001; Krathwohl, 2002) was thus, more suitable for TBLT, with changes in terminology, structure and emphasis to provide a complex hierarchy of cognitive processes from simple Remembering to higher order Creative thinking (Fig. 2.8):

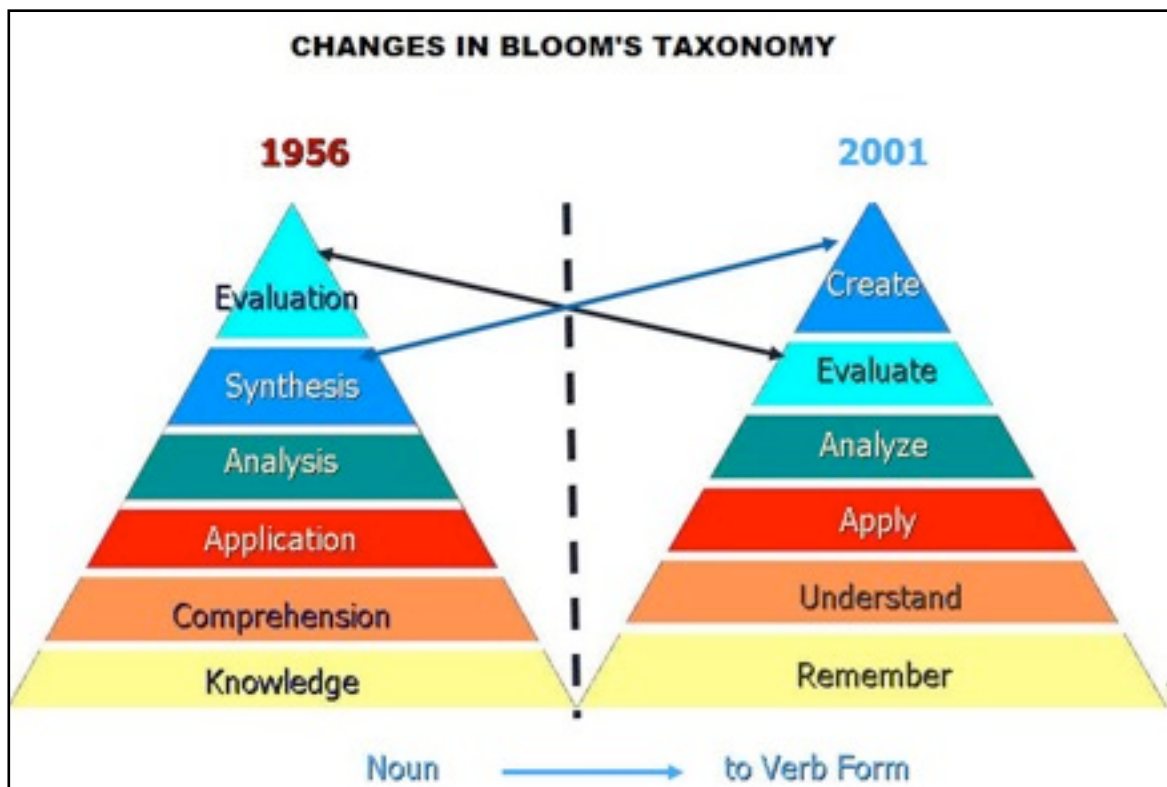


Fig. 2.8 Changes from Bloom's Taxonomy to RBT (Overbaugh and Schultz, 2005)

The six levels of the cognitive domain of Bloom's OT were redefined to suit its more complex modernised applications, with changes added in three of its cognitive dimensions. Comprehension was modified into a higher “Understanding” for application in new contexts, Synthesis and Evaluation were merged, and a new dimension of “Creativity” added (Anderson et al., 2001, pp. 67-68) to the cognitive pyramid:

1. **Knowledge/Remembering:** retrieving, recognizing and recalling information
2. **Understanding:** constructing meaning from oral, written and graphic messages by interpreting, illustrating, classifying, summarizing, inferring and explaining
3. **Application:** carrying out a procedure, executing or implementing in new contexts
4. **Analysis:** separating into constituent parts, determining the relationship of the parts to each other and to an overall structure by differentiating, organizing and attributing
5. **Evaluation:** making judgments based on criteria by checking and critiquing
6. **Creativity:** forming a coherent or functional whole out of elements, reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure through generating, planning, or producing

RBT is represented in a Taxonomy Table with twenty-four separate cells (Table 2.3):

The Knowledge Dimension	The Cognitive Process Dimension					
	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyse	Evaluate	Create
Factual Knowledge	List	Summarise	Classify	Order	Rank	Combine
Conceptual Knowledge	Describe	Interpret	Experiment	Explain	Assess	Plan
Procedural Knowledge	Tabulate	Predict	Calculate	Differentiate	Conclude	Propose
Meta-Cognitive Knowledge	Appropriate Use	Execute	Construct	Achieve	Action	Actualize

Table 2.3 Revised Taxonomy Table Matrix (Anderson et al., 2001)

Six cognitive process dimensions of RBT were arranged along a horizontal axis, while the four knowledge dimensions accessed through these processes, were arranged along the vertical axis, intersecting to form this table matrix for various pedagogical applications.

The RBT table matrix (Table 2.3) also enabled assessment by documenting in its individual cells, the cognitive processes related to specific task objectives (Bloom et al., 1971; Cotterall, 2000; Ferguson, 2002). Metacognitive knowledge enabled different strategies for learning, problem solving, as well as adapting cognition to more diverse tasks in new contexts (Bransford et al., 1999; Marzano, 2000; Krathwohl, 2002), so learners could metacognitively control, monitor and regulate cognition (Flavell, 1979; Schneider and Pressley, 1997; Pintrich et al., 2000; Pintrich, 2002, 2004). Task goals therefore, could identify activities as well as objectives, distinguishing assessment tasks from learning tasks (Anderson, 2002; Airasian and Miranda, 2002). RBT thus, moved teachers away from the best-practice approach (Byrd, 2002) towards collaborative, reflective and meaningful dialogues on task structure, language acquisition, the content of learning and cognitive processes (Rath, 2002; Amer, 2006).

In a further progression of cognitive fusion, RBT came to be integrated with MITA (Armstrong, 2000, 2003; Weber, 2001, 2005), to enable differentiated and collaborative problem-solving through metacognitive, creative and critical thinking (Brandt, 2009) in TESL/TEFL (Paul, 1985; Armstrong, 1994; Noble, 2004). MI and RBT were integrated in a classification ordering the nine MI on a horizontal axis, intersecting with the six cognitive dimensions of RBT on the vertical axis (Armstrong, 1994; McGrath and Noble, 1995a, 1995b, 1998; Noble, 2002), which is modified to form the research design of the present study, as discussed in detail in Chapter Three. The MI/RBT matrix became a tool for designing language tasks ranging from factual recall to creative thinking and metacognition, through different MI domains at different levels of cognitive complexity (Noble, 2004). Tasks created with the MI-RBT matrix maintained high degrees of learner

motivation (Buck, 2001; Fisher, 2008; McDonald and Hershman, 2010; Shrum and Glisan, 2010), complying with the dimensions of motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001).

The RBT and MI paradigms featured prominently in the globalized, Post-methods teaching-learning contexts of English as a Second Language (ESL). One such modification of CLT/TBLT was the planning and delivering of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) through team-teaching, with English as the common language for different subject areas. The researcher became aware of the relevance of CLIL as a possible development of TBLT, when teachers of the present study were observed to spontaneously collaborate across the curriculum in an attempt to relate conceptual with procedural knowledge in language and content areas of the school curriculum. CLIL was subsequently introduced into the theoretical framework of the present study, in retrospective analysis of the emergent situation. CLIL traits observed in the results of the present study will be discussed in detail in Chapters Four and Five. Only a brief overview of CLIL is included in the next section, explaining its relevance to the theoretical framework of the present study.

2.4 Emergence of CLIL from CLT

The Natural Approach (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) to TBLT developed into content-based language instruction across the curriculum in immersion programmes (Teemant et al., 1996) and was later known as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Often used synonymously with English Across the Curriculum (EAC), CLIL was more task-based as in TBLT, whereas EAC was skill-based, as in CLT. They also differed in their assessment focus. EAC followed CLT methodology to teach language using content from across the curriculum but assessed learning on the language level, alone. In CLIL, all

subjects were taught in ESL, but focusing on content as well as language. In practice, CLIL existed on a continuum from partial immersion with content-based ESL at one end to complete immersion with bilingual education through L1 and a foreign language at the other (Spratt, 2011). CLIL focussed equally on subject and language learning at the mid-point of this continuum (Fig. 2.9):

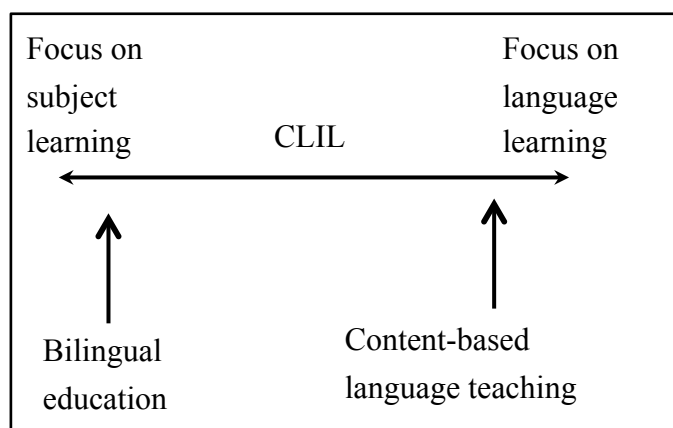


Fig. 2.9 CLIL (Spratt, 2011, P. 4)

Different content subjects drew on varied learner-MI through interactive, task-based learning in CLIL, with students learning the language in use. The socio-constructivist aims specified in the Four-Cs model of CLIL (Coyle, 2008) fulfilled TBLT principles required in the present study:

1. **Communication:** improving overall target language competence
2. **Content:** learning the knowledge and skills of the subject
3. **Culture:** building intercultural knowledge and understanding
4. **Cognition:** developing thinking skills

The instructional strategies of CLIL (Deller and Price, 2007) highlighted the features of professional efficacy in teaching:

- Using visuals like pictures, charts and diagrams to support reading

- Planning lessons to support language learning needs, e.g. providing key vocabulary
- Varying activities to include whole class, small-group, pair and individual work
- Consolidating skill-based and concept-based activities
- Using L1 support in group discussion en route to task-completion in English
- Separate assessment of both language and subject content

In practice, however, these features were not present in all CLIL classrooms. Teachers in CLIL were usually, either subject teachers with limited proficiency in English and little knowledge of language methodology, or ESL teachers unfamiliar with the content of the subjects they were teaching in English. Similarly, primary level teachers in Indian CBSE schools often teach English along with a content subject, being trained (having a B.Ed degree) in both, indicating possibility of CLIL. CLT had been criticised for not providing sufficient L2 interaction for language-processing in the classroom, and for tending to be superficial in its topic content (Pérez-Vidal, 1999). CLIL being entirely subject-led, tried to compensate for this shortcoming, as content controlled the level of LSRW skills elicited for information input, processing and output in the subject. The language structures learnt thus, were more complex than those in communicative language use, although language was not the targeted end-product in CLIL.

An unpublished study in the EFL University, Hyderabad in 2010, compared the NCERT/CBSE Communicative English course-books with content-subject textbooks from the elementary to the secondary level. The results revealed that content-subject textbooks had higher linguistic complexity than CLT course-books. The CLT approach in CBSE English, clearly, might not equip learners with the LSRW skills required by the content-subjects. CLIL as a possible alternative to CLT is therefore, discussed in Chapter Five of

this study. CLIL also aimed at integrating collaborative learning with content-subject learning and language proficiency so as to enhance learner motivation and engagement.

Collaborative Learning: Collaborative Learning (CL) became a major component of TBLT methodology in the nineties, under the influence of social and cognitive psychology and experiential and learner-centric instruction (Dewey, 1933; Piaget, 1973; Vygotsky, 1978). Social interdependence theories (Lewin, 1935; Deutsch, 2000, 2003) advocated active-learning contexts with greater learner involvement and intellectual coherence through problem-centred learning and peer feedback. TBLT research confirmed that peer-interaction among learners during the stages of task performance was richer in negotiation and language use than learner-teacher interaction (Swain, 1985; Long, 1996).

Historically, CL mitigated learner differences as the attitudes, values and behaviours of the individual, structured by language and linguistic competence, were determined by the reference group (Buck, 1976; Wolfe and Engel, 1978). Communicative strategies developed while sustaining motivation and reinforcing L2 acquisition (Najam and Hodge, 1965; Kasper and Kellerman, 1997), establishing a direct relationship between effective group collaboration and the quality of task outcome (McDonough, 1981; Dörnyei and Malderez, 1999; Dörnyei, 2005). CL in CLIL-TBLT programmes maximised learner engagement with ZPD through interdependence (Davis, 1997; Rothstein-Fisch and Trumbull, 2008). Differentiated strategies for teaching-learning based on ZPD (Atwell, 1987; Johnson and Johnson, 1994; Gambrell et al., 2000) also emerged in CL:

- Differing-proficiency grouping for peer-tutoring in vocabulary (Antil et al., 1998)
- Choral and popcorn reading to learn pronunciation and intonation (Alu and Jordan, 1981; Nelson-Barber et al., 2000)

- Literature circles for group comprehension (Noll, 1994; Fox and Wilkinson, 1997; Daniels, 2002)
- Unlevelled drama activities for extensive reading (Fall et al., 2000)
- Maths team and Maths friends for solving of maths puzzles through reading and group support (Tan, 2011)
- Process writing via brainstorming, drafting, peer review and editing (Calkins, 1983)

Democratic group-discussion facilitated the expression of minority opinions while prioritising problem-solving, discovery-learning and interpersonal skills (White, 1977). The individual need to conform to the group, positively affected differences in intelligence, aptitude, cognitive style, personality and behavioural strategies in group-learning (Sticchi-Damiani, 1981). Assigning relevant roles (leader, time-keeper, etc.) and determining the optimal size for functional equilibrium also became relevant concerns (Senior, 1997; Jacobs and Hall, 2002; Dörnyei and Murphy, 2003). Differentiated small-group or pair activities personalised student-teacher interactions in the following ways:

- Matching learner MI and interests and promoting differentiated instruction through personalised materials and tasks (Westwood and Arnold, 2004; Walker Tileston, 2004a, 2004c)
- Eliminating bias, building resilience, encouraging dialogue and constructive feedback (Stone and Kidd, 2011)
- Setting purposeful affective and achievement goals, valorising efficacy, autonomy and accountability and promoting socio-cultural diversity to fulfil meaningful roles (Ritzen et al., 1979; Kagan, 1992; Flowerdew, 1998; Weber, 2005)

CL enhanced participation in classroom discourse, including vocabulary and syntax for selecting, introducing and developing discourse topics, socially and intellectually structuring formal talk, and telling stories (Wendel, 1997; Cazden, 2001; Morine-Dersheimer, 2006). A hybrid discourse (Gutierrez et al., 1999) bridged the gap between logical-scientific thinking and social/personal experience (Reid et al., 1989) through storytelling (Bruner, 1996). CL thus, empowered learners by enabling risk-taking, decision-making and self-actualization (Brufee, 1993; Wentzel, 2003). These characteristic applications of CL in TBLT and CLIL could be identified from analysis of materials used by these innovative pedagogical approaches in the classroom. The theory of language learning underlying the materials, determined the form of exercises, tasks, activities and learning experiences used in the syllabus (O'Donnell and Dansereau, 2000).

2.5 The Role of Materials in TBLT

Theoretical Foundations of Materials: Earlier research on language materials had prescribed the findings of SLA research for the *what* and *how* of learning (Beglar and Hunt, 2002). Later research, however, suggested TBLT principles as instructional guidelines for materials development (Kanda and Beglar, 2004). Later TBLT approaches to materials development made methodological principles an imperative to support the instructional design process (Tickoo, 2003; Richards, 2006). Theories of language and language use had an impact on determining the learning focus of TBLT materials by influencing the writer's conceptualization of the target language (Richards, 2006). Paradigm shifts in theories of language, language use and language teaching created the need to review theoretical assumptions underlying materials development. This need was fulfilled by the pioneering work of Ellis (1987, 1991) , Nunan (1988a, 1991) and Richards

(2001) that connected the two previously disparate fields of pedagogical research in TBLT and the development of TBLT materials.

Research thus became the primary source of instructional principles shaping the basic design of TBLT materials. Materials were also influenced by three other secondary factors: the (a) teacher, (b) learner and (c) contextual variables (Richards, 2007, p. 147):

- (a) **Teacher variables** included the language proficiency, training and experience, cultural background and preferred teaching style of teachers.
- (b) **Learner variables** indicated the learning style preferences, language learning needs, interests, purposes and motivation levels of learners.
- (c) **Contextual variables** were the school culture, classroom conditions, class size and availability of *in situ* teaching resources (Ibid.).

English as an international language gradually moved away from the goal of acquiring a native-like mastery to that of recognising localised norms of phonological, lexical and syntactic language use (Jenkins, 2001). The purpose of developing materials also changed from approximating native-speaker usage to providing means of successful communication with a repertoire of vocabulary, syntax grammar, and communication strategies, within and outside the classroom (Harley, 1989; Richards and Barbesan, 2004). The self-motivated language learner required support materials that enabled opportunities for communication and activated strategies for processing task input (Rubin, 1975).

Research, however, revealed that many non-native teachers preferred internationally published materials from English-speaking countries to those published locally, partly due to the persistence of the native-speaker myth (Richards, 2006) and also because of the

insufficiency of locally published materials. This indicated the urgent need for such teachers to be sufficiently empowered to locally develop their own materials for their particular learning and teaching situations (Zacharias, 2005). This rationale lent validity to the purpose of the present study, of seeking to empower teachers through the creation of tasks situated on their specific context.

Developing lesson plans and teaching materials compatible with the local context of teaching and learning was made possible by situation analysis (Richards, 2006). Both top-down and grass-roots situation analysis of classroom texts and teaching manuals led to the understanding of how theories on language and language learning shaped syllabus and task-types in classroom materials (Richards, 2001). Language descriptions in register analysis, discourse analysis and corpus studies provided an additional research base for syllabus design and materials development (Richards and Bycina, 1984; Richards, 1999).

The shift from a purely skills-based, meaning-focussed CLT curriculum to a TBLT curriculum integrating FoF, indicated profound changes in materials development (Doughty and Varela, 1998; Doughty and Williams, 1998). For instance, TBLT studies proved that L2 tasks ending with explicit FoF components after the meaning-acquisition phase were more effective than PPP tasks (Doughty and Williams, 1998; Fuente, 2006). Integrating FoF within a cognitive-communicative TBLT framework required tasks that engaged learners in negotiating meaning in real-world communication contexts while also providing opportunities to notice the use of target forms and compare the form-function relations (Ellis, 2001, 2002, 2005b). These tasks combined fluency with accuracy by integrating inductive learning of language-skills into language analysis, and reflection on creative language-use through trial and error (Kanda and Beglar, 2004).

Text-based Vygotskian TBLT approaches relied on scaffolding or teacher-learner collaboration, with the teacher gradually reducing support as the learners grew in independence. Collaborative scaffolding in TBLT-CLIL communication tasks focussed on individual differences, learner autonomy and motivation for language learning by building effective strategies into the materials. Ensuring that such materials were valid in a classroom community of shared learning led to the debate on whether authentic tasks or pedagogic tasks were more suitable for collaborative TBLT (Richards, 2007).

Authentic versus Pedagogical Materials: Initially, authenticity was a major issue in the materials debate. Arguments supporting authentic materials that mirrored real-world use cited their focus on message instead of medium (Allwright, 1981). Counter-arguments criticised authentic materials for lacking in selection, modification and sequencing required for skills-based teaching-learning (James et al., 1980; Brown and Yule, 1983b; Richards, 2006). Authenticity, however, gradually became subordinate to other pedagogical features like the adaptability of materials to different degrees of difficulty, interest or textual redundancy (Clarke and Silbertstein, 1977).

Another conclusion of the same debate was that it was more important for the learning processes to be authentic, i.e. to achieve process authenticity, than to have product authenticity, with learning materials derived from authentic sources (Widdowson, 1987). TBLT materials usually simulated authentic sources, but provided the opportunity for follow-up activities that were open to localised modifications involving a repertoire of essential vocabulary, grammar functions and communication strategies (Richards and

Sandy, 1998). TBLT emphasised instruction and materials that enabled inclusiveness, collaboration, autonomy, specificity, variation and heterogeneity.

In a later phase of materials development, MITA approaches focussed specifically on individual differences (Gardner, 1993a, pp. 44-45, 1993b, pp. 83-84; Armstrong, 1994). It was thus, “possible to tailor courses to capitalize on individuals’ abilities, or to compensate for specific inabilities” and “to orientate teaching toward students’ strengths” (Gardner 1995, p. 24) for language acquisition. Audio-visual and kinesthetic imagery in vocabulary was used to diversify the learning process with differentiated multimedia content supplementing the textbook (Arnold, 1999; Simkins et al., 2002; Murphy, 2003).

Significantly, while there were attempts to diversify textual language learning inputs with extra-textual digital inputs in meaning-focussed tasks, there was no analysis of the impact of such materials on teaching styles of individual teachers (Levy, 1997). The focus of such task-based diversity was either on increasing opportunity for task-based negotiation, catering to individual differences in learners through MI inputs of tasks, or integrating form-focus with meaning-focus in task structure. All this while, actual materials development remained entirely in the domain of research or expertise in knowledge and practice.

The central issue was learner engagement with the language course book rather than teacher interpretation of its implicit methodology, although the latter factor was likely to have major impact on the actual implementation of any language syllabus and consequently, on learning (Corder, 1973; Lantolf, 2000a, 2000b).

Ultimately, the task module that integrated grammatical forms into CLT and also reconciled TBLT with the learner demand for a course book (Willis and Willis, 2007) was to prove most suitable for the classroom (Fig. 2.10):

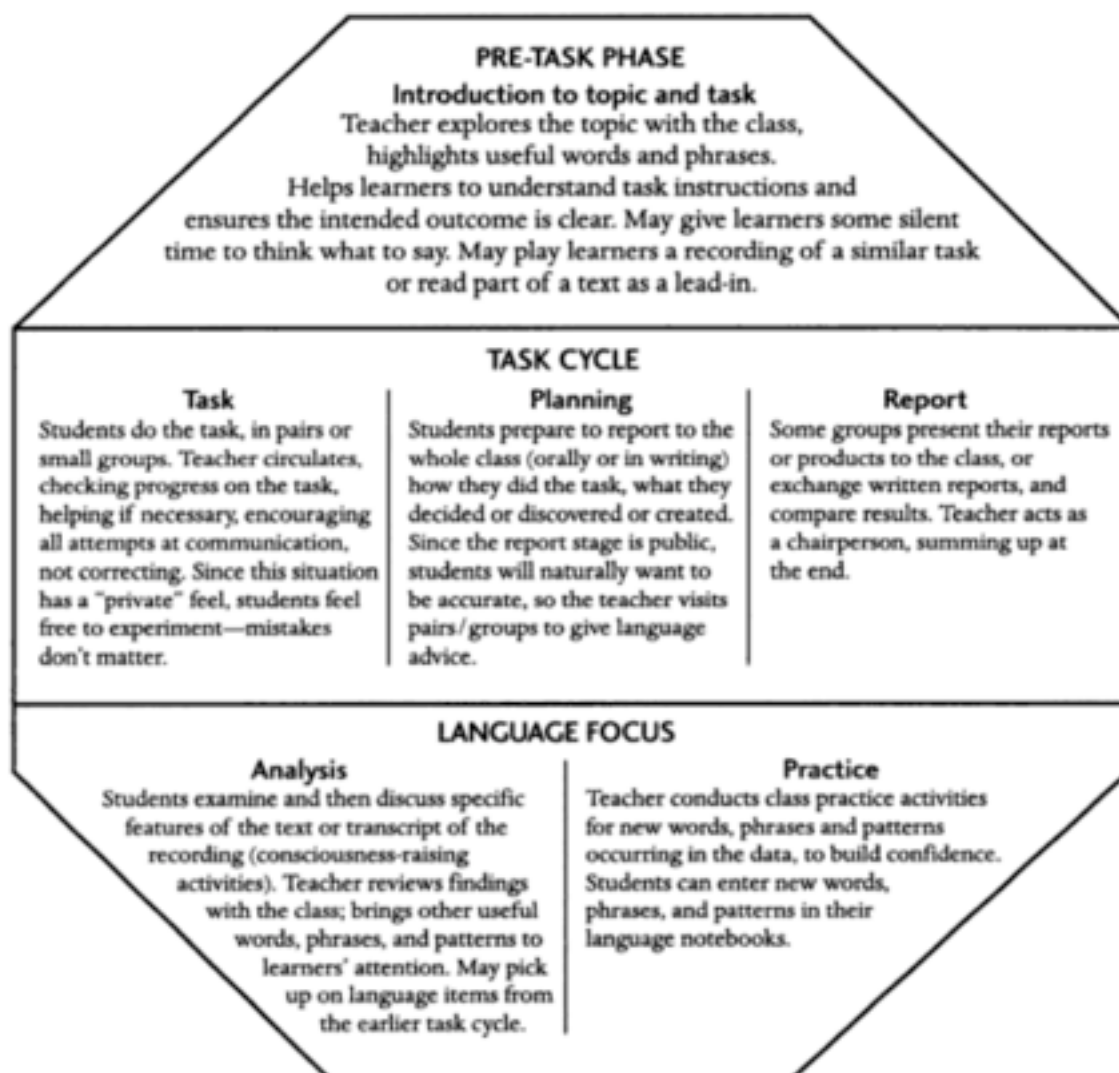


Fig. 2.10 Components of a Task-Based Learning Framework: (Willis, 2004, p. 42)

The integration of tasks supplementing the language course book therefore, involved the typical planning, report, analysis and feedback phases of task performance, using either text, transcript or discourse as the fundamental interface between task and learners.

The Case for and against Materials: In the early 1980s, the ESL course book determined teacher and learner roles. This led to criticism of their emphasis on teaching over learning,

due to visible teacher-overload and learner under-involvement (Allwright, 1981). On the other hand, benefits of textbooks included their inclusion of a grammatical and functional framework that met learner needs with a variety of high quality learning tasks (O'Neill, 1982). The logical foundation of this debate was that the content and quality of textbooks determined the actual extent to which teachers could make use of insights from research in teaching-learning (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Sinclair and Ellis, 1992; Lake 1997).

In contrast to the wealth of CLT materials catering to different age-groups, contexts of learning and learning purposes, the relatively newer field of TBLT-CLIL was not supported by a similar range of materials. This was due to the large differences in teaching contexts like the age of uptake, subject areas and the varied time-allocation that made commercial materials less easy to produce. Institutional heads, hence, tried to facilitate opportunities for in-house materials-design by staff-teams aided by expert mentors as an aspect of ongoing professional development. The present study, although in a similar context, is yet differently placed, as it does not involve expert contribution or collaboration, but instead, on peer-teacher collaboration between non-native English and content-subject teachers to implement TBLT in their specific classroom contexts by developing their own materials.

The English teachers of the present study are observed to include topics from content subjects, when required to frame tasks. Most English teachers at the primary level of English medium CBSE schools in India, teach content subjects along with English, as mentioned earlier, thus making them peculiarly suited to engage in TBLT-CLIL. The framing of language tasks to address learner differences through MI and engage learner cognition through RBT, with teacher empowerment as a probable outcome of such task-

creation, are the issues addressed in the present study. The ensuing discussion justifies this specific, contextualised approach.

2.6 TBLT-MI-RBT as a Pedagogical Proposition

Tasks being the focus of research on L2 acquisition in the classroom, spontaneous L2 speech of learners was taken as primary data, supplemented by specific linguistic features from learners performing tasks (Krashen, 1981, 1985a, 1985b, 1994; Long and Porter, 1985; Long, 1983b, 1996). Communicative performance in the classroom, thus, provided the framework for studying the underlying potential of tasks for language learning. Teachers first, had to understand the theoretical structure and functioning of tasks, so as to identify and model the range of learning opportunities made available through these to learners, and next, gradually induce autonomous task-performance (Ellis, 1997b; Crabbe, 2007).

Research on pedagogical innovation in TBLT however, confirmed that change in teacher practices depended on non-theoretical factors like the amount of risk involved in action research, the communicability of such innovation, its compatibility with existing practices, its perceived benefits, and the organisational, political, social and cultural contexts of such change (Crookes, 1993; Ellis, 1994; Bartels, 2005). Classroom-based action research produced varying and conflicting findings on language use and language learning (Gebhard, 1999), making it difficult to formulate and apply theory or principles of professional practice in immediate and direct ways:

It is more a question of having a foundation of knowledge against which we can evaluate our own ideas about teaching and learning, to which we can apply for insights in our attempts to solve pedagogic problems, and from which we can draw ideas to experiment with in our own classrooms. (Hedge, 2000, pp. 24-25)

This individualism apparent in action research made it difficult to standardise a paradigm for developing materials based on it, thus problematising any tacit assumption that teachers could successfully frame effective language tasks from theoretical guidelines on task-structure. The few teachers who succeeded in doing so, joined the ranks of experts. The vast majority of teachers, however, remained purveyors of externally developed materials, being periodically subjected to training sessions for the correct implementation of these materials in their classrooms. Yet, as discussed earlier, training sessions and SLTE programmes did not bridge the existent mismatch between theory and practice.

MITA task-framing did not offer any explicit measure of teacher success in framing tasks with MI inputs, or even examine the role of materials in contributing to teacher development. Secondly, though the role of RBT has been discussed in pedagogical research for promoting thinking skills and lesson planning, the actual efficacy of RBT in cognitive task-planning and performance is yet to be documented. One limitation of SLA research and pedagogy (Long 1983c, Ellis, 1997c, 2003a) was the insufficient attention paid to the impact of tasks on the cognitive dimension of task-framing by teachers. TBLT research thus, focussed on MI and RBT, either in relation to learner proficiency, or as relevant to task-framing. In both cases, teacher-expertise in task-framing was taken for granted, as seen in earlier studies (Armstrong, 1994; Noble, 2002, 2004).

The above reasons justify the attempt of the present research project to document the extent to which framing language tasks with the MI-RBT framework would help English teachers in Understanding and Applying TBLT Creatively in the classroom. The modified application of existing MI-RBT frameworks for task-planning (Ibid.) by the present study is discussed in detail in Chapter Three.

The present study, therefore, finds its unique niche in the field of MI-RBT-TBLT research by analysing MI-RBT task-framing as a potential tool for teacher development, as teachers frame tasks with diverse MI inputs and cognitive RBT targets and implement these in the classroom. The participant teachers are expected, through the trial-and-error process of task-framing, implementation and reflection, to understand and apply practical aspects of TBLT, such as collaborative learning, peer-feedback and learner autonomy. This conversion of theory into practice could play a significant process in their professional development and empowerment within the classroom, reducing dependence on external training. The study focusses on exploring and documenting this progression from materials to method, reversing the conventional direction of development from method to materials in SLTE. This new perspective of professional development in teaching efficacy or method through materials is discussed in detail in Chapter Three.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter brought together several socio-constructivist, learner-centric aspects of language pedagogy. TBLT, the cognitive theories of MI and RBT, and collaborative learning unite in a new experimental approach to teacher empowerment through materials development or task-framing for language learning. This reverses the SLTE approaches and models discussed earlier in this chapter, focussing primarily on theories of language and language use for practical classroom application, and also reduces the need for incremental training as directed by CBSE (as discussed in Chapter One).

The present study first helps teachers to frame tasks, providing them only with the basic framework of MI-RBT-TBLT and differentiated collaborative learning. Development in teaching efficacy through task-framing is expected to create a deeper understanding of

the theories underlying tasks. Practical implementation of tasks and reflection on their implications for the learner and the learning process is thus expected to act as the lever to acquiring theoretical expertise from practical experience. This would move SLTE from the lower-order cognitive level of Knowledge to the higher-order cognitive level of Creativity in the RBT hierarchy. The next chapter discusses the practical details involved in structuring this new pathway to professional development by enabling teachers to understand and creatively apply MI-RBT-TBLT theories in their classroom practice.