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## **Teachers' views on the appropriateness and feasibility of CLT in Pakistan**

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### **Biodata**

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### **Abstract**

In recent years, a number of scholars have claimed that communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches are unsuitable when used prescriptively, or in non-western contexts. To discover whether this statement is accurate with regard to Pakistan, the study reported in this paper explored the views of a number of experienced teachers of English in tertiary colleges about the feasibility and appropriateness of using communicative approaches in their classrooms. Questionnaires and interviews were used to gather information from teachers and although resistance to CLT was expected, study data revealed considered and generally optimistic statements about what teachers believed was possible within the constraints of the local context. Benefits of CLT that were identified included using communicative tasks to complement accuracy- and receptive skill-oriented activities, to provide practice in synthesising elements of the language system, to foster more democratic teacher-student relationships, and to promote active involvement and independent learning by students. Mindful of the challenges of attempting to deliver quality education in the Pakistani context, teachers called for improvements in the standard and

availability of in-service courses in which appropriate innovations could be explored and supported.

**Keywords:** Communicative language teaching, CLT, context appropriate CLT

## **Introduction**

Communicative approaches to language teaching (CLT) continue to be highly regarded in TESOL research literature. They have been popular for many years in Anglo-western contexts, and are now promoted through national education policies in East Asian contexts such as Hong Kong, Malaysia, Korea, Vietnam and Singapore (Nunan, 2003). They are also advocated in the national education policy of Pakistan (Government of Pakistan, 2009). However, recent literature has been increasingly critical of the promotion of CLT as a universally appropriate set of principles to guide second language teaching. The overall value of CLT as an instructional model has been questioned (e.g. Leung, 2005), and its appropriateness (even in adapted forms) for non-western contexts has been challenged (e.g. Bax, 2003; Chowdhury & Phan, 2008; Harmer, 2003; Hu, 2005; Littlewood, 2007). Although practitioners work within the constraints of their institutions and societies, within their own classrooms they usually exercise decision-making powers and they can be successful agents of change with regard to curriculum and methodology (Al-Issa, 2007). Their views are therefore an important part of any evaluation of the appropriateness of communicative approaches in a particular instructional context. For this reason, the rationale for our study was to explore the perceptions of a group of upper secondary and tertiary-level instructors in Pakistan as to their views on the viability of communicative approaches in their classroom teaching.

### ***CLT in the 21<sup>st</sup> century***

The main impetus for the shift some thirty years ago from traditional and behaviourist-oriented approaches to those based on communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983) was a belief that greater account needed to be taken of the way language works in the real world and of the needs and preferences of learners. CLT is not a prescriptive method, and is commonly defined as a “core set of principles about language teaching and learning ... which can be applied in different ways and which address different

aspects of the processes of teaching and learning” (Richards, 2006, p. 45). It can use integrated skill activities to engage learners in meaningful, authentic language use individually and in groups, encourage fluency in the target language (typically without heavy error correction), include an explicit focus on language forms, and involve a shift in teacher roles to include facilitator and supervisor of learners’ efforts to construct their own learning (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Savignon, 2005).

Over the past decade, research interest in task-based language teaching has highlighted differences between *hard/strong* and *soft/weak* versions of CLT (Howatt, 1984; Tudor, 2001). In *hard* or *task-based* versions (e.g. Willis & Willis, 2007), there is no pre-planned syllabus setting out elements of the language system of English to be taught. Learners draw on their existing language resources to complete communicative tasks, and do not focus on new grammar until the post-task phase. However, many commercial global coursebooks and traditional education systems continue to favour *soft* versions of CLT in which teachers provide explicit instruction and guided activities before communicative tasks are attempted. These *soft* versions are more likely to draw on a syllabus or textbook in which learning is organized around specifications of particular structures, functions, vocabulary, skills and strategies to be taught (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

### ***Context-appropriate CLT***

A topic of frequent debate in recent years has been the suitability and feasibility of communicative approaches to English language teaching in non-western contexts. Supported by views from a critical perspective (e.g. Chowdhury & Phan, 2008; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992), scholars from both western and non-western contexts have outlined a number of factors that may limit the suitability of communicative approaches. Particular constraints include large, mixed-ability classes (Li, 1998; Sarwar, 2001; Yu, 2001), lack of resources and facilities (Ellis, 1996), strong emphasis on traditional examinations (Li, 1998; Yu, 2001), resistance and lack of willingness to communicate by students (Hu, 2005; Li, 1998; Rao, 2002), and a range of socio-cultural constraints (Gupta, 2004; Pham, 2007). In addition, teachers’ uncertain commitment to, and inadequate

training in using CLT (Davies & Iqbal, 1997; Rao, 2002; Yu, 2001) have been mentioned as potential limitations on the use of communicative approaches in non-western contexts.

However, other writers and researchers emphasize that CLT is a set of core principles rather than a single, monolithic entity (e.g. Pham, 2007; Li, 2008), and caution against stereotyping English language instruction in all non-Western educational contexts as “traditional” and resistant to innovation (Harmer, 2003). In recent years, a number of “context-appropriate” blended communicative pedagogies have been proposed (e.g. Bax, 2003; Holliday, 1994; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007; Mohammed & Harlech-Jones, 2008; McKay, 2003; Pham, 2007). These claim to acknowledge the connection between pedagogy, the social identity of learners, and the cultural context in which the second language is being taught and used.

The importance of the classroom teacher to successful implementation of any kind of instruction is confirmed by scholars (e.g. Chang, 2011; Li, 1998; McKay, 2003; Pham, 2007) who appeal for practitioners to be granted sufficient resources and autonomy to determine which instructional approach is most appropriate for their classes. As to the most suitable approach, Pham (2007, p. 196) makes the point that “while teachers in many parts of the world may reject the CLT techniques transferred from the West, it is doubtful that they reject the spirit of CLT.” Other researchers (Gupta, 2004; Pham, 2007; Wette & Barkhuizen, 2009) support this more measured stance towards the communicative-traditional debate, reporting favourable teacher attitudes towards “context-adapted” versions of CLT (i.e. blends of communicative and traditional approaches, and further adaptations to core CLT principles).

Two recent studies from Taiwan (Chang, 2011) and Pakistan (Hafeez & Asif, 2010) used Likert-scale questionnaires to elicit teachers’ perspectives on 25 and 34 aspects of CLT principles respectively. Rather than strongly negative or positive attitudes to all aspects of CLT, their findings revealed a graduated range of responses from teachers that were strongly favourable towards some core principles, ambivalent to some, and less positive towards others. The 55 tertiary teachers in the Chang survey were most favourable towards possibilities for using group work and communicative tasks to supplement accuracy-oriented textbooks. They were uncertain about the value of negotiating the curriculum with learners, using experiential approaches and about ignoring grammar errors. They were less

positive towards the concepts of learner strategy training and very frequent group work on account of the difficulties it presented for monitoring learners' progress.

The 100 secondary level teachers in the survey conducted by Hafeez and Asif in Pakistan (2010) were very positive towards more communicative alternatives (e.g. roleplays and drama) to traditional methodologies based on translation and memorization. They also approved of the inclusion in their curricula of activities that focused on fluency and appropriateness, as well as those highlighting grammatical accuracy. However, they pointed out the constraints of their local context e.g. the imposition of grammar-translation methods, a structural syllabus and prescribed textbook by the examination system, strict classroom discipline as an indication of professional competence, and the generally weak motivation of many of their students towards learning English.

### ***English instruction in Pakistan***

In the sixty years since independence, education has remained a neglected sector of the economy in Pakistan. It has been constrained by poor physical infrastructure, disparities on the basis of student gender and regional location, lack of appropriately trained teachers and resources, and traditional teaching methodologies and forms of assessment (Mohammed & Harlech-Jones, 2008; Shamim & Qureshi, 2009; Westbrook, Shah, Durrani et al., 2009). English is the official language of Pakistan, and it is considered a “neutral” language (Kachru, 1992) in that it is believed to be one that can be used to bind together disparate groups in a strongly multi-lingual and multi-ethnic society. English is the language of political and economic power and, as with other countries in similar circumstances; proficiency in the language confers social prestige and access to skilled jobs (Abbas, 1993; Al-Issa, 2007; Rahman, 1999; Shamim, 2008). In recognition of the continuing importance of English in local and international contexts, the government of Pakistan now requires all teacher training courses to promote communicative approaches (Government of Pakistan, 2009); however, it has been noted in the literature that there is a significant gap between policy rhetoric and classroom realities (Mohammed & Harlech-Jones, 2008; Westbrook et al., 2009).

Although numerous studies have been published in recent years about the introduction of CLT into non-western contexts, most of this research and scholarship (e.g. Hu, 2005; Li,

1998; Pham, 2007; Rao, 2002) relates to East Asian contexts. A small number of studies have investigated the experiences of novice teachers moving from pre-service training into secondary teaching in Pakistan from a general perspective (e.g. Khan & Saeed, 2010; Westbrook et al., 2009); however, to date only the Hafeez and Asif (2010) survey study of secondary teachers has specifically explored the views of Pakistani teachers with regard to CLT. On the whole, very little is known about instructional practices in this country, and what has been published has been largely negative, focusing on weaknesses and constraints. Our study is therefore intended as a contribution to research-based knowledge about second language teaching and learning in Pakista

### **Methodology**

This section outlines the participants and their teaching context as well as data collection instruments, procedures, processing and analysis.

### ***Courses and participants***

The 15 participants in this study worked in seven different upper secondary and tertiary colleges in rural and urban areas of the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province in northern Pakistan (three in one college and two each from the other six). Eight taught at “degree colleges” (Years 11-14 with a bachelor’s degree awarded at the end of Year 14) and seven at “postgraduate colleges” (Years 11-16, with a master’s degree awarded at the end of Year 16). Since English is taught as a compulsory subject from Year-1 until Year-14 in Pakistan, students in these colleges have typically been learning English as a subject for at least ten years, and have at least intermediate level of proficiency. They receive five hours of instruction per week, and are assessed through end-of-year examinations that focus on grammatical knowledge, reading comprehension and essay writing.

Three main criteria were used to select participants for this study. They were (1) a relevant postgraduate qualification in English language, (2) at least three years’ experience teaching English, and (3) attendance at a recent three-week residential in-service training course (as a way of ensuring that they had been exposed to current knowledge about CLT). All those who volunteered to take part in this study had MA degrees in English language and literature from tertiary institutions in Pakistan, which is the minimum required

qualification for all teachers in government-funded degree colleges. Six participants also had Bachelor of Education degrees, and four had Postgraduate Diplomas in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). All were male. Their ages ranged from 30 to 57. Their average teaching experience was 15.4 years, with a range from three to 27 years. They taught Year 11 to Year 16 classes (students aged 17 to 23).

### ***Instruments***

The study drew on information and advice in texts on research methods in applied linguistics, (e.g. Dornyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005) to include both quantitative data from questionnaires and qualitative data interviews as a way of strengthening the validity of its findings.

Thorough analysis of the literature on communicative approaches enabled us to develop content for the 18 Likert-scale questionnaire items. These elicited participants' views on fundamental principles of both *hard* and *soft* versions of CLT. These included the relative importance of inductive and deductive approaches to the teaching of grammar, of accuracy and fluency, and the value of group and pair work. Their opinions were also sought regarding constraints specific to non-western contexts (e.g. prescribed syllabuses and textbooks, large classes, and lack of audio-visual resources), and the responsibilities of teachers and learners to overcome constraints and implement communicative approaches. The 18 items of the questionnaire content are presented in Tables 1, 2 and 3 in the following section. In the questionnaire, five columns were placed next to each statement about CLT where participants could register their responses from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* (as shown in Tables 1-3). We selected items both *for* and *against* the applicability of CLT in Pakistan, since reversing direction in questionnaire items provides some protection against response bias (Dornyei, 2007).

Drawing again on the literature on CLT, questions and prompts for semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 1) were devised in order to probe participants' understandings and opinions in areas of interest to this inquiry. Interview questions sought information that included participants' views on the viability and appropriateness of CLT in their English language courses, resources and constraints in their teaching contexts, the roles of teachers and learners in implementing CLT, and their evaluation of a professional development

course on introducing communicative approaches.

In order to strengthen the validity and reliability of the questionnaire items and interview prompts, they were piloted with four Pakistani English language teachers. These teachers were not participants in the final study (following the recommendation of Mackey and Gass, 2005); however, they were from the same teaching background. Comments were solicited from these teachers with regard to the existence of any ambiguity in the wording of questionnaire items or interview prompts, presence of any technical terms unfamiliar to teachers in Pakistan, ease of use, thoroughness, and overall questionnaire length. A trial interview with one teacher ensured that interview prompts were capable of eliciting data that would enable the study to meet its aims. As a result of this piloting process, small changes were made to the wording of some questionnaire items and interview prompts.

### ***Procedures***

After approval was granted by the Ethics Committee of the University of Auckland, fifteen teachers who had attended the in-service course and who met the other criteria were invited to take part in the study. Data collection was carried out by the first author, who travelled to Pakistan and visited each of the colleges. All fifteen participants completed the questionnaires, which took each of them about one hour. Interviews were then conducted with seven of the most experienced participants from each of the colleges. Their years of teaching experience ranged from seven to more than 20 years. They were (all names are pseudonyms): Asjid (10 years of experience), Hafeez (7 years), Ikraam (13 years), Intizaar (20 years), Muntazir (20 years), Umair (20 years) and Wali (23 years). Participants were interviewed separately in their offices or homes.

Since all participants (as experienced teachers of English) and the interviewer were all fluent English speakers, that language was used for all interviews and questionnaires. At the beginning of each interview, participants were assured that the aim of the study was not to judge the extent of their knowledge of CLT, but rather to elicit their views and perspectives on this approach, as well as on the professional development course they had recently attended (the findings of this part of the study are reported in Khan, 2011). Interviews lasted from 15 to 45 minutes, and transcripts were produced of about 2000 words (including the interviewer's questions and prompts) for each interview. A set of

question prompts were used to initiate discussion. The interviewer followed participants' leads, while at the same time keeping in mind the focus of the study and its areas of interest.

### ***Data analysis***

In order to analyse the questionnaire data, we assigned a value from five to one to each item rating option. Highly favourable statements about CLT (*strongly agree*) were scored as five; others at four, three, two and one (*strongly disagree*). The scoring of unfavourable items was reversed. We then grouped the questionnaire items according to the three themes on which they were based: principles of CLT, contextual constraints, and the roles of teachers and learners. We analysed the item scores using SPSS version 19 software in order to ascertain overall means, standard deviations, and percentages. A reliability analysis was conducted, also using SPSS. All reverse-phrase items in this questionnaire were reverse-scored. Analysis revealed an acceptable reliability: Cronbach's  $\alpha = .71$ .

For the interview data, we first read through each transcript several times in an effort to categorise the data into the key themes of interest in this study. As recommended by Gass and Mackey (2007), we initially tried to get a general grasp of participants' overall perspective on CLT in order to contextualise the more specific information in areas of interest to the study that we then extracted. Information gathered from interviews provided support for questionnaire data, and gave participants an opportunity to fully articulate their views. Their actual words are quoted as fully as possible within the space constraints of this article.

## **Findings**

### ***(a) Questionnaires***

Questionnaire responses showed that participants were generally favourably disposed towards CLT and possibilities for its implementation in the Pakistani context. Scores on questionnaire items ranged from 82 out of a maximum favourability score of 90 (18x5) to 65 (the minimum favourability score being 18x1=18). The mean score was 73.40 and the standard deviation was recorded at 5.62.

Participants' views were elicited with regard to three main themes: principles of CLT and their relevance to Pakistani classrooms (eight questionnaire items), local constraints that teachers need to manage (six items), and the responsibilities of teachers and learners in successful implementation of CLT (four items). As previously mentioned, participant views on each issue was ascertained using two items (positive and negative) in order to corroborate and strengthen the evidence gathered about their views on each topic. Findings are presented in the following paragraphs, grouped according to the three main themes.

### *Principles of CLT*

Participants' views about core principles of CLT can be seen in Table 1. The views of each participant are recorded: *SA* (*Strongly Agree*), *A* (*Agree*), *U* (*Uncertain*), *D* (*Disagree*), *SD* (*Strongly Disagree*).

**Table 1. Participants' views on key CLT principles**

Questionnaire item	SA	A	U	D	SD
<b>(a) Explicit grammar instruction</b>					
2. Although exams are primarily grammar based, students may perform better in the exams if they learn to internalize grammatical structures while communicating. (+)	4	11	-	-	-
17. For students to learn English successfully in Pakistan, they need grammatical rules more than the ability to internalize grammar through the communicative approach. (-)	-	1	1	11	2
<b>(b) Use of students' first language</b>					
12. Sparingly using students' first language can be a useful way of clarifying and checking their understandings. (+)	3	9	1	1	1
3. There is a need to translate all lessons of the course textbooks into the students' native language in order for them to be able to understand. (-)	-	4	-	8	3
<b>(c) Error correction options</b>					
7. Error correction in grammar and/or phonology should be avoided while students communicate, with feedback on effectiveness and appropriateness only given at the end of an activity. This would make our students confident and competent speakers and writers of English. (+)	10	4	-	-	1
11. Students need to have their errors in grammar and phonology corrected on the spot, so that they avoid getting into bad language habits. (-)	-	3	1	6	5

**(d) The value of group and pair work**

13. Pair and group work activities give students opportunities to learn from classmates and to take part in genuine interactions in English – an opportunity that is non-existent outside the class in Pakistan. (+)	10	5	-	-	-
8. Students rarely get involved in group and pair work activities; therefore, it is preferable to use lecture method in the Pakistani classrooms. (-)	-	1	2	9	3

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*+ means the item is favourable to CLT; – means that it is unfavourable to CLT*

On the whole, teachers appeared to hold favourable views about many aspects of CLT in relation to their teaching situation (strong support for SA and A in the favourable item, for SD and D in the negative item of each pair, and few “uncertain” responses). Unequivocal support (a mean of 4.30 from a maximum of 5) was expressed for group and pair-work as an opportunity for peer teaching and reasonably authentic communication, although two teachers (13.33%) were less optimistic about the feasibility of using group work in their own classrooms. Teachers strongly agreed (a mean of 4.16 from a maximum favourability of 5) with the statement that they should not interrupt students to correct errors during fluency-oriented tasks. There appeared at first to be some contradiction in teachers’ views on this topic, as three (20%) went on to state that students’ errors should be corrected immediately; however, we now think that this may have been due to the fact that the words “communicative task” or “fluency” were not included in Item 11. Teachers may therefore have assumed that this questionnaire item was asking about error correction in connection with accuracy focussed work.

Participants favoured deductive approaches to teaching grammar (usually associated with *soft* or *weak* CLT), and were in clear agreement (mean = 4.10) that students in their classes need to progress from explicit knowledge of the rules of usage to developing implicit knowledge of the language system of English. While three-quarters of the participants did not see the need to translate course materials into students’ first native language, others who were teaching at lower levels of proficiency (students in Year 11-12) believed that this was necessary in their classrooms. However, most (80%) teachers agreed that occasional use of students’ first language was a helpful instructional tool.

*Contextual constraints*

The next six questionnaire items related to constraints of the Pakistani context: the requirement to follow a prescribed textbook and syllabus, limited availability of teaching aids, and very large classes. The positive and negative item pairs described affordances and barriers to the successful implementation of CLT. Results are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: Teachers' views on managing specific local constraints**

Questionnaire item	SA	A	U	D	SD
<b>(a) Textbooks</b>					
1. It is possible for me to generate classroom activities based on CLT approach from the mandatory syllabus and textbooks. (+)	2	10	2	-	1
15. The mandatory syllabus and textbooks make the traditional way of teaching as the only method appropriate for teaching in the Pakistani classroom. (-)	1	2	2	8	2
<b>(b) Teaching aids</b>					
5. Lack of expensive CLT based aids and materials can be compensated for through the creative use of affordable local resources. (+)	4	9	1	1	-
16. Lack of appropriate electronic resources renders me unable to teach according to communicative approach. (-)	-	2	1	10	2
<b>(c) Class size</b>					
6. Although it is difficult to monitor individual activities in over-crowded classes, it is still manageable for me to carry out group work based communicative activities. (+)	2	11	2	-	-
10. Large classes make communicative activities very difficult to manage, and leave no room for the teacher to practice them. (-)	1	2	2	9	1

*+ means the item is favourable to CLT; - means that it is unfavourable to CLT*

Although teachers in this study held generally optimistic views about the extent to which CLT was viable in the local context, means of between 3.66 and 3.93 indicate that support was not quite as whole-hearted as that expressed with regard to the more fundamental principles discussed in the previous section. Twelve of the fifteen teachers were of the opinion that a prescribed (literature- or grammar-based) syllabus and text did not preclude using communicative approaches at the level of methodology, with two teachers undecided on this point and one expressing an opposing viewpoint. Similar responses were given to

the item suggesting that it was possible to create appropriate CLT resources from what was available locally, with thirteen teachers in agreement and two or three uncertain or not agreeing with the statement.

Class size is one of the most problematic features of teaching in the Pakistani context, with classes often exceeding 100 students. Although thirteen teachers agreed that group work was still “manageable” in large classes (with the other two uncertain), the negative item highlighting the difficulty of managing group work in large classes drew three positive and one uncertain response. This perhaps indicates that teachers were aware of the value of attempting to use group work, but also of the difficulties associated with its implementation with large classes in overcrowded classrooms.

#### *Responsibilities of teachers and learners*

Teachers and learners are both contributors to the successful implementation of communicative activities. The results of questionnaire items relating to the roles of teachers and learners can be seen in Table 3.

**Table 3: Teachers’ views on key responsibilities of teachers and learners**

Questionnaire item	SA	A	U	D	SD
<b>(a) Teacher roles</b>					
14. I lose interest in applying CLT methods in the class because of students’ inhibition from participating in communicative activities and the resultant poor feedback. (-)	-	-	1	11	3
18. Notwithstanding the problems and constraints the teacher faces while imparting education, he can still play a vital role in putting the communicative approach into practice in Pakistan. (+)	11	4	-	-	-
<b>(b) Learner roles</b>					
4. Since students are more interested in achieving higher grades in exams where writing skill is primarily evaluated, there remains no need for CLT based activities. (-)	-	-	1	7	7
9. Students’ anxiety and resistance to participation in CLT based activities may reduce if they can be made to realize the importance of being able to communicate in English for their academic studies and future careers. (+)	11	4	-	-	-

+ means the item is favourable to CLT; – means that it is unfavourable to CLT

Although views were elicited through only two item pairs, the most favourable views were recorded by participants in this section of the questionnaire (means of 4.43 and 4.56 for teacher and learner responsibilities respectively). All fifteen teachers strongly agreed or agreed that, despite contextual constraints, teachers can include communicative approaches in their repertoires of instructional strategies, and they firmly disagreed with the notion that lack of willingness to communicate by students should prevent teachers from attempting to implement CLT. They were just as unequivocal on the subject of learner responsibilities, stating that their resistance to participation in meaning-focused activities might be reduced if they became aware of how influential English was likely to be in their future academic and professional lives.

***(b) Interviews***

Interviews were carried out after questionnaires had been completed. They provided an opportunity for a group of seven of the most experienced teacher participants (average of 15 years of teaching experience; range of seven to twenty years) to elaborate on and corroborate the views they had expressed in the questionnaires. Interviews explored participants' perspectives on communicative approaches in general, local constraints, and responsibilities of teachers and learners with regard to successful implementation of CLT in upper secondary and tertiary contexts in Pakistan.

*Benefits of using CLT*

The first question of each interview aimed to elicit teachers' general understanding about the nature of CLT. Teachers displayed a good awareness of the concept of CLT, although with a tendency to equate it with use of modern technology such as audio- and video equipment, language laboratories and computer-assisted learning. With regard to the suitability and feasibility of implementing localised versions of CLT, they expressed generally very positive opinions. These revealed the extent to which these teachers viewed teaching as a fundamentally relational undertaking, and supported CLT because of the positive changes it could help to bring about in student-student and student-teacher relationships. Several teachers (Ikraam, Umair, Muntazir, and Hafeez) explicitly made the point that CLT offered more than the "lecturer-listener" relationship where, in Muntazir's

words, “the teacher speaks continuously for 40 minutes [irrespective of whether] anyone is listening...not taking the class along with him.” They were of the opinion that “student involvement is the first great imperative” (Muntazir), that “each one in the class...[needs] the maximum time to participate” (Ikraam), and that CLT enables teachers to “see how students are responding...to get feedback” (Umair), and establish “two-way communication” (Hafeez).

With the very large classes that all the teachers in the study worked with, they were aware of possible benefits of being able to draw on capable students as peer mentors in mixed-ability group work “so they can learn from one another” (Muntazir). They were strongly in favour of increasing the opportunities for students to participate in lessons by asking questions, giving feedback on their developing understandings and working on assigned tasks and activities independently. Hafeez expressed his opinion in these words: “a person just standing in the classroom and forcing his knowledge or thinking into the minds of students will not be able to make the students understand what he wants them to.” For Ikraam, the main value of including communicative activities was that “language is to be practised...to share ideas, not just to listen to the teacher...students should be given opportunities to put any questions that come into their minds, and have them answered.”

All seven interviewees worked in high-level secondary and tertiary contexts, and they acknowledged that many of the students in their classes already had a solid grasp of the language system of English. Wali pointed out that students therefore needed to synthesise this knowledge of elements of the language system of English in order to be able to speak and write fluently as well as accurately in their academic courses (for example, students in engineering and medicine are taught and assessed using only English). Umair emphasised the importance of convincing students of the importance of English to their professional lives after university, since “beyond examination, English is something which will help students throughout life as the language of communication of the whole world: without English they will be handicapped.” Intizaar pointed out that, unlike literature and grammar based instruction, communicative approaches introduce students to currently used forms and functions in current use and “the context or real life situation in which they themselves say things and do things.”

*Difficulties with implementing CLT*

When asked about the challenges of implementing CLT in Pakistan, teachers outlined a number of constraints. Most or all of the seven teachers interviewed mentioned large classes in overcrowded classrooms, lack of resources and equipment, poor motivation by students to improve their communicative abilities, and limited availability of appropriate in-service training.

Participants taught classes that ranged in size from 50 (in postgraduate classes) to over 200 in undergraduate courses, and viewed this as both a challenge to the use of CLT as well as an important reason why CLT strategies such as group work needed to be included. None of the institutions in which teachers interviewed for this study worked had electronic resources such as computers or access to language laboratories. Some had no electricity, which precluded use of audio or video recorded material, and four teachers used only a blackboard and a piece of chalk. However, another recurrent theme in the interviews was that innovations with regard to student groupings, skills focus, and student-teacher relationships were in fact quite possible “in the absence of the latest apparatus” (Muntazir), and that these types of changes would enable lessons to become more balanced in terms of a focus on meaning and form, individual and group work, and receptive and productive skills. Again drawing attention to the relational nature of teaching and learning, Umair pointed out that “despite all the computers and multimedia and all the modern gadgets, I think this is an established fact that the most important pivot in teaching is the teacher, and that personal relationship [with students] cannot be compensated for... by the internet.”

Teachers also commented on washback from syllabuses and examinations that focussed on literature, translation and knowledge of the language system, with less than 20% of college examinations devoted to the assessment of communicative ability. Hafeez pointed out that for this reason some students, parents and teachers preferred to focus exclusively on grammar, and preferred lecture-based methods. They were uniformly critical in their comments regarding the very limited availability and generally poor quality of in-service training in options for CLT in college English teaching by skilled practitioners from the Pakistani context.

*Possibilities for implementing CLT*

Teachers' views were elicited on possibilities for implementing CLT in their classes. Two argued cautiously, and the other five strongly, that communicative approaches were very appropriate in view of Pakistan's former and current relationship to the English language. Asjid and Hafeez were of the view that if teachers showed initiative, they could make use of those aids that were more easily available. Hafeez suggested playing the BBC news on a radio in the classroom, or bringing in English language newspapers and magazines to stimulate discussion on items of current interest. Ikraam expressed the view that group discussion activities could be generated from the literature-based syllabus and with large classes. Activities mentioned by at least one teacher as being viable in their classrooms were individual and group preparation and delivery of presentations, discussions on news and current events, authentic question-answer sessions, picture-stories, and elicitation of students' views and knowledge through brainstorming. Four teachers that working in large groups could be a way of involving students in the lesson, creating opportunities for oral interaction, and shifting the position of the teacher from authority-figure to facilitator, thus reducing student-teacher dependence.

More generally, teachers in the study were of the opinion that since the constraints they had outlined in their interviews were a long-standing reality of professional life in Pakistan, teachers needed to find context-appropriate ways of helping their students to become competent communicators in English. They associated communicative approaches with positive changes in the role of the teacher and in teacher-learner relationships. They argued for more comprehensive training for teachers in implementing CLT in the local context, and that the willingness of teacher to move away from conventional methodologies was a crucial factor in determining the success or not of CLT. However, one teacher (Umair) made the point that traditional methodologies are also successful, and that "for the last 30 years our students, they have gone to Europe, America, Hong Kong, and they ...thank us for many things which they think they have learned [in Pakistan]." As to the introduction of communicative methodologies on a broader scale in colleges in Pakistan, Intizaar was hopeful that innovation and the use of audio-visual equipment would be an ongoing process, since "the ice has been broken and the start has been taken, and a time will come

that, Inshallah, ... in all government colleges these facilities and methods will be available to students”.

## **Discussion**

On the whole, the teachers in this small-scale study supported the implementation of a range of instructional strategies usually associated with CLT. They viewed the use of meaning-focused activities and group work as a way of supplementing accuracy-focused instruction in order to enhance students' communicative competence, their involvement in learning processes, and their relationship with the teacher. It was clear from their statements that, in common with experienced teachers world-wide, their primary concern was to create the best learning environment possible for students in their classes (e.g. Bax, 2003; Harmer, 2003).

The findings of this inquiry confirm those of studies that report similar attitudes and reservations towards CLT by teachers in non-western contexts (Chang, 2011; Chowdhury & Phan, 2008; Hafeez & Asif, 2010; Li, 1998), as well as a number of recently published commentaries (e.g. Littlewood, 2007; Mohammed & Harlech-Jones, 2008; Pham, 2007). Study participants emphasized the necessity and value of measured innovations in the ELT curriculum, of context-appropriate adaptations of CLT, and of traditional-communicative blends. However, like the Korean secondary teachers in the study by Li (1998), they identified a number of challenges to the successful implementation of CLT in their classrooms. These included the powerful washback influence of traditional examinations that focus on reading comprehension, writing ability and grammar-based knowledge (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003); students who are not strongly motivated towards developing communicative competence; the need to maintain discipline with large classes in overcrowded classrooms; and lack of relevant in-service training courses for teachers.

Although many of the constraints already identified in the literature on CLT in other non-western contexts (e.g. large classes, poor resources, grammar-based examinations, weak student motivation towards learning English) also featured in the statements by teachers in this study, they appeared to be viewed more as challenges that could be overcome or accommodated into context-specific versions of CLT. Teachers did not appear to regard them as insurmountable barriers to innovation. Unlike the six Bangladeshi

teachers in the study by Chowdhury and Phan (2008, p. 308), the teachers in this study gave no indication that they considered CLT to be “in conflict with a number of cultural, social and professional values embedded in the practice of teaching and learning”. On the contrary, they viewed CLT as a fundamentally effective set of instructional practices on account of the possibilities it created for active student participation, meaning-focussed learning opportunities and more democratic student-teacher relationships. They did not appear to agree with the claim in respect of CLT in non-western contexts that taking on the role of facilitator “contradicts the socially expected and felt image of the professional self of the teacher” (Chowdhury & Phan, 2008, p. 308). To a large extent, our study findings confirmed the view of Pham (2007, p. 196) that teachers in non-western contexts do not reject “the spirit of CLT”. Teachers’ statements revealed them to be cautiously enthusiastic about the possibilities for adapting core CLT principles so that it can be implemented within the resources and constraints of their teaching contexts.

## **Conclusion**

This exploratory study elicited the views of teachers in a country with a long-standing relationship to English, and where English is the official language. It therefore contributes a different perspective to current discussion on the applicability and feasibility of communicative approaches to English language teaching in non-western contexts. However, as it gathered information from only a small sample of teachers, we do not know the extent to which the views of participants reflect those of other experienced English teachers in Pakistan, and therefore no broad generalisations can be made on the basis of these findings. In addition, it was not possible to observe classes due to the domestic security situation at the time of data collection, and we therefore relied on teachers’ self-reports of their classroom practices. However, the thoughtful detail of their responses and their extensive teaching experience lead us to believe that these were not simply presentational accounts of the views of this group of classroom practitioners.

Study findings suggest that, contrary to views expressed by some critical theorists, blends of “traditional” pedagogies and *soft/weak* versions of CLT can offer a number of benefits to teachers of English as a second language. Although questionnaire items and interview questions were neutral with regard to *soft/weak* and *hard/strong* versions of CLT,

it is interesting to note that the kinds of innovations that these practitioners suggested were more closely aligned to *soft/weak* versions. They were much less aligned to the *hard/strong* version (i.e. task-based language teaching) currently being promoted by second language acquisition researchers and the national education policies of a number of non-western countries (see Butler, 2011).

In conclusion, the findings of this study indicate that experienced teachers in Pakistan report benefits of using modified versions of key components of communicative approaches in their classrooms, and that they expressed interest in increasing their professional knowledge in this area. Further research that included observations of lessons by experienced teachers as well as interview and survey information would add to our knowledge in this area, and would be useful for exploring the constraints and affordances of particular contexts. Quality in-service training for teachers and curriculum developers would provide opportunities for practitioners to become better informed about and more involved in decision making processes with regard to the introduction of context-appropriate communicative approaches. We hope that this will be possible in Pakistan, so that the professional frustrations expressed by these teachers can be overcome, and their professional wishes fulfilled.

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### **Appendix 1: Interview question guide**

1. Can you tell me about your teaching context with regard to resources (things that help you achieve your teaching aims) that you have available, and the constraints (things that may limit your ability to achieve these aims) that you face?
2. How important is CLT in helping the tertiary students in your classes to learn English successfully? What other approaches are important in your teaching situation? Do you think that CLT, with appropriate contextual modifications, is applicable in Pakistan? If so, what kind of CLT would that be? What would be emphasized/not emphasized?
3. If such a context-adapted CLT was applied in your classrooms, would it contribute to producing communicatively competent students? If yes, why? If no, why?
4. Did the in-service course that you have just taken make you more interested in using communicative approaches to language teaching? In what way - can you give some examples?
5. Do you think the information about CLT that was used in this course was modified from Western versions to take into account the resources, constraints and specific needs of tertiary students in Pakistan? If so, can you give some examples?



## **Increasing and maintaining student engagement during TBL**

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### **Biodata**

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### **Abstract**

At present, task-based learning (TBL) faces several issues in the context of high school classes in Japan, such as a lack of motivation or student engagement during tasks. Stroud (2013) recently found significant correlation between Keller's (1987) ARCS model of motivational design and Japanese high school students' motivation for tasks. In addition to this research, a hybrid version of Keller's model (the CARCS model) was created in order to further strengthen motivational aspects of tasks and attempt to maintain student engagement better across time periods. An observation scheme and post-task interviews were used to reveal more in-depth data about the model's ability to maintain student engagement in tasks across time and about students' opinions of the tasks undertaken. Results concluded that the implementation of the CARCS model can not only greatly increase the overall observable engagement of students, but can indeed protect and maintain such engagement across a period of time. More specifically, changes made to tasks by the model which grabbed students' attention, related to their interests and created a feeling of satisfaction or reward for task completion were found to be most significant for engagement to occur according to students themselves.

**Keywords:** Task-based learning, motivational task design, engagement, flow, ARCS model, CARCS model

### **Introduction**

The use of tasks in second language learning has been examined on a world-wide scale in recent years (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Willis, 1996a, 1996b) as an attempt to create motivated groups of learners both consciously learning and acquiring language by

undertaking tasks which relate as much to 'real' situations as possible. However, the cultural reality of this approach in the context of Japanese students is quite different from what original theorists had believed. High school classes taught by Japanese-born teachers are more than often teacher-centered, focused much more upon language forms than meaning, and rarely share decision making or power in the classroom equally between teacher and students. The sudden introduction of an approach such as task-based learning (TBL) into such an environment cannot immediately produce an environment of participating, focused students as it may perhaps in other nations. However, in order to help students become engaged in tasks, without constantly becoming distracted or bored with its development, it is important to ensure the tasks at hand are designed appropriately to motivate the students.

The best case scenario for TBL is achieving what Csikszentmihalyi (1989) called a state of flow, in which students are completely undistracted and entirely focused upon completing work in front of them. This term applies not only to language learning, but any situation such as when athletes report to have been 'in the zone' whilst competing. During this state, issues reported for TBL in Japanese high schools with discipline, non-participation, use of the L1 and others can potentially be removed and students in large, over-sized classes can be confidently left by a teacher in an independent state to undertake tasks in a trustworthy fashion. Thus, a key issue in achieving such an ideal environment is appropriate motivational task design.

In this paper the history of TBL issues in Japan are discussed, as well as the difficulties with the dynamic nature of student motivation across time and the use of appropriate motivational design of tasks to achieve flow. The overall aim of the study is to provide English teachers in Japanese high schools with a new approach to adjusting tasks to better match the motivational needs of their students in TBL based classes so as to avoid previously reported upon issues such as a lack of focus from students or problems with participation in tasks when students are left alone to do so. However, by matching tasks to the motivational needs of classes TBL can then be used to create an autonomous, motivated and focused classroom environment in which students take part in and work as productive members of their pairs or groups. The testing of a new model of task design (The CARCS model) implemented to achieve this desired higher student engagement in tasks with

Japanese high school students is then examined and its effects on engagement and maintenance of engagement across task time are reported upon through observation and student interviews. Recommendations for teachers of English in Japanese high schools are then made upon conclusion of the findings of the effects of the model.

### **TBL issues in Japan**

The issues with introducing TBL as a serious methodology for supporting language learning in Asia have been well discussed in the past ten years or so (Burrows, 2008; Carless, 2002, 2007; Sakui, 2004; Tanaka, 2009). The adoption of a traditional western-style approach to learning cannot simply be carbon-copied into an Asian setting without adjustments being made and clashes between TBL and its culturally different recipients have been clear to see. The concerns of particular importance can be summarized into three main categories, as explained below:

- Student expectations – Being suddenly plunged into a more autonomous, independent role with less direction on language use is understandably uncomfortable for many young Japanese learners in high school. Japanese culture leans heavily towards conformity and obedience in educational settings (Tanaka, 2009) and discomfort with a less-powerful teacher and more demand for decision making, independent learning and proactive participation can create a feeling of discomfort in the classroom (Burrows, 2008).
- Classroom control and discipline – With the need for more self-governing and motivation in group or pair work with TBL, the lack of focus and participation in tasks is perhaps to be expected when students are left for significant periods of time to complete their own tasks away from the sight of the teacher. This may be due to oversized classes for TBL, or perhaps just simply a lack of familiarity among Japanese students to carry out tasks without constant direction on approach from an authoritative figure (Carless, 2002). Students becoming uncomfortable, distracted and bored are not surprisingly commonly reported reactions.
- Examination focus – High schools in Japan have a very clear focus in educating students. The passing of future university examinations is considered a very

important achievement in the lives of young Japanese learners and so methods of teaching such as TBL pose a threat (in the eyes of teachers, students, parents and educational institutes) of distracting students' focus away from form-focused practice required to pass such exams (Carless, 2007; Sakui, 2004). With such pressure in the air in the TBL classroom, motivation and student engagement faces a serious challenge unless TBL can be viewed as a beneficial and supportive approach to studying towards examination success.

At first, it may appear that TBL should be abandoned altogether as an approach in Japanese high schools with so many challenges facing its success. However, rather than looking at the problem from a cultural-mismatch angle, adopting a motivational design based approach to the tasks at hand can help reduce, if not eliminate such issues in the classroom. This refers to the implementation of a model of task design which can make appropriate adjustments to the tasks currently being used, so as to improve motivation, resulting in increased and sustained student engagement in tasks during class. Nobody could argue that if students are motivated and hence engaged in the tasks they are given (as long as the tasks are appropriate for the language learning needs of the students) that TBL stands a good chance of success for learning language in a communicative way.

Up until now the three issues in Japan for TBL of differing student expectations, classroom control and discipline, and competition with exams have been discussed in detail by many and it is clear that a focus on student motivation to get around these issues is a sensible approach. However, motivation of students during tasks in TBL is a complex issue and one that will now be discussed so as to better understand its non-linear nature and appreciated the importance of maintaining it across time.

### **The dynamic nature of motivation in TBL**

From a cognitive perspective, student motivation in language learning can be broken down into state, trait, extrinsic and intrinsic factors (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998; Tremblay, Goldberg & Gardner, 1995; Vellerand, 1997) which can be added together to give an expected resultant overall level of motivation for students in certain situations. This idealistic view of motivation across periods of time can give teachers a

good idea of what they might be able to expect students to behave like during tasks, but tell them little about the true dynamic nature of motivation that occurs across time and whether that motivation leads to focused undertaking of tasks during TBL. What is needed is much more of an appreciation for the ever changing moods of the students during such tasks and an understanding that the production of motivating conditions does not ensure that such motivation will remain constant throughout. Just by making a few changes to the motivational design of tasks in use, we cannot ensure that the students will remain engaged in it for the entire task (and problems of discipline and noise may well resurface), so the implementation of a motivation-related task design model which addresses many key areas and strikes upon the most relevant focuses for motivation will prolong student participation and focus.

Dörnyei's (2003, p. 15) 'task processing system' presents a realistic view of dynamic student motivation occurring during tasks. It shows how students execute tasks by following an action plan set out by them and/or their teacher, but make a continual appraisal of the task by using various incoming stimuli from the environment and progress on the task at hand. Through making such appraisals, the students then activate their action control with self-regulatory mechanisms to enhance and scaffold their learning action. Dörnyei correctly points out to teachers of TBL that it should not be assumed that because students are motivated at one point of a task that they will be motivated in a similar way even just a short time after that. Students are ever evaluating and changing their mood towards tasks before them and a clear need for appropriate motivational design to counteract any negative changes that may occur early on in task undertaking exists (such as decisions by students to stop participating or focusing on the task).

Upon reflection, it is appropriate to say that a task should therefore not only be judged on its motivational success by the initial response and overall feeling of motivation felt by the students, but also by the sustainment of the motivation across time with a lack of random 'voids' of noise or indiscipline for example arising. It has been shown that tasks which quickly grab the attention of students and create motivational conditions, but do not protect and maintain such motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 73) will clearly fail as engaging tasks across time and need rethinking in terms of motivational design. In large-sized classrooms the need for tasks which can maintain such motivation, participation and focus

of students in group and pair work is highly desirable. Rather than a teacher continuously running from one end of a classroom to the other to maintain motivation among a high number of groups, constantly shouting over disruptive students, or countering a lack of interest in a task with outside motivational sources for example (such as using higher than usual levels of enthusiasm), it would be better to focus more towards the task itself. Simply put, if students are initially motivated by it and continue to be motivated to do it (due to its appropriate design) students will be engaged in doing it under a continually focused, undistracted state called 'flow' which will now be discussed.

### **Student engagement: aiming for flow**

As already stated, tasks which create an 'engaged' environment is ideal for TBL. Engagement (Connell, 1990; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Wellborn, 1991) refers to a state of high focus and participation within tasks by students in which the danger of distractions or a loss of interest in doing the task are very low. It is a term that stretches far beyond the language classroom and is of importance to teachers of any subject in educational institutes. Questions of what it is about the tasks students are given to do which make the students take part in it and have little issues in completing it is of course of interest in a whole mass of fields of research. Prabhu (1987) reported on the importance of 'mind-engagement' of students, showing a very early understanding of the need for this state to be present for TBL to stand a chance as an approach to group or pair work. For TBL in language teaching classrooms we are primarily concerned with 'behavioral engagement' (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004) of students in the short-term for this report, with a close examination of the situation-specific actions of students which results due to the motivational design of the tasks they are given in particular classes.

As mentioned in the previous section, what TBL in high schools should really be aiming to do in the classroom environment is reach a state of 'flow' (Csikszentmihalyi, 1989, 1994, 1997) among the learners where they can be said to be 'in the zone'. If a state of intense focus and involvement is reached in TBL, resultant work produced by students during tasks will clearly be of a higher quality than if motivation and engagement were not present. In order for such a state to be obtained Egbert (2003) stated the need for several conditions. They are a perceived balance of skills and challenge, opportunities for intense

concentration, clear task goals, feedback that one is succeeding at the task, a sense of control, a lack of self-consciousness and the perception that time passes more quickly. By teachers ensuring tasks are at an appropriate level of challenge (not too difficult or easy, resulting in a lack of confidence or boredom), are set up as to allow students to focus without distraction, are clear in terms of how to succeed, offer choices for students in approach and feedback, and create a stress-free environment, chances of a state of flow being reached will be improved. By combining these principals with other motivational design theories to create a hybrid design model (discussed later), tasks catering to the motivational needs of specific students to reach a state of flow can be produced and student engagement improved.

### **Motivational design of tasks**

Discussions of the potential failure of TBL in Japanese classrooms has been considered in depth in recent years and concluded on several key areas for concern. Issues with socio-cultural differences between Western and Asian students (Burrows, 2008), discomfort with a non-conforming environment (Tanaka, 2009), noise and discipline problems with large class sizes (Carless, 2002), and a lack of teacher expertise or confidence in using a TBL approach (Carless, 2007) have been at the forefront of debate. However, it can be confidently stated that through good motivational task design, student engagement can be improved and all of these issues reduced in their effect on focus and learning as a class.

Previous research into improving student motivation through the use of various motivational strategies (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Cheng & Yeh, 2009; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Julkunen, 2001; Madrid, 2002; Small, Dodge & Jiang, 1996) has been plentiful in recent years, due to the fruitful nature of finding connections between design, resultant motivation and observable student participation for example. One model of design which can potentially bring together several crucial components for motivational design for tasks in TBL is Keller's (1987, 1992) ARCS model of design. It was originally designed with the intent of analyzing and improving the instructional design of activities and classes, so as to be as motivational as possible for students to do. It regarded motivation as the overall goal in instruction and

broke it down into the four main parts of attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction (ARCS).

The ARCS model was previously successfully used to improve student motivation in a junior high school setting in Japan in computer-based instruction (Suzuki & Keller, 1996) and in computer-assisted instruction (Song & Keller, 2001) and showed great potential for use for other areas such as communicative language teaching (Stroud, 2013). However, using the model to design TBL tasks which not only create initial motivation for the students, but also protect and maintain that motivation when a teacher or computer are not continuously present to add group external motivation, Keller's model can be supplemented with additional motivational factors. For this study a new hybrid model was thus created and faced testing for appropriateness and effectiveness in creating, protecting and maintaining TBL student motivation. It will now be explained in more detail.

### **The CARCS model of design**

The CARCS model was designed to analysis and improve the motivational design of tasks for TBL in large classroom settings with a goal of producing high initial motivation and maintenance of that motivation for a significant period of time for group and pair work without student motivation falling to a level where students are no longer engaged in performing the task and become distracted, disruptive or disinterested in their work. The model follows the design of Keller's original ARCS model (1987, 1992) very closely, but has an added fifth component of design; control. This fifth element of design was added to create a model which would account more for the dynamic nature of motivation of the students across the entire task time, resulting in an even lower chance that the students will lose interest and focus over time. As already discussed in this paper, TBL faces a serious challenge of maintaining this engagement of students when left to be autonomous and independent in Japan and this added component can help further tackle the issue by adding to the potential for a motivated and engaged resultant state.

As Egbert (2003) stated, the condition of a sense of control for students adds to the chance that flow can be reached and hence motivation maintained across time. As classes of Japanese high school students might often do, students may start out on a task in a very motivated state, but have their motivation drop-off after just a short time. By allowing

students to feel that they can have a say in the direction their task may develop across time and be able to express personal interests and creativity with elements of fantasy or personal interests for example (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 76) tasks can potentially produce a much more sustained motivational state among students.

Kellers' (1987, 1992) original ARCS model included the variables of attention and relevance (connected with personal interests and interesting content and visual usage in task design to create motivation), but did not specify if task design allowed the students to freely choose and control these elements themselves or not. Consider a task in which students are asked to draw their family and explain it to their teacher. The task can be said to include attention grabbing and relevance to their lives and interests perhaps, but does not offer any control (creative elements or choices in approach) to the students. Now say that the task was to produce a new family consisting of as many people as they wish with any style of profile they like. In addition the students can choose to write a song about the family, draw them, or act out a short play to explain the members of the family. In this second task students now have an element of control and would be expected to exhibit a higher level of motivation and resultant engagement throughout undertaking the task compared to the first one. Each of the five components of the model will now be briefly explained:

*Control* – This element of design allows students to make choices in the method of undertaking and presenting of task work to the teacher, allows room for creativity in terms of content, and encourages autonomy among students during task time.

*Attention* – This variable refers to the use of strategies for arousing and sustaining the curiosity and interest of the students. Tasks which include good visual elements and a multi-media approach have been shown to be of especially high importance for motivation (Small et al., 1996; Madrid, 2002) and grabbing and holding the attention of students across the entire duration of a task is a challenge which can be met with such an approach in task design.

*Relevance* – This refers to the use of strategies to connect the task to the learners' needs, interests in general as people and motives for learning English as a subject. Hence, this

design variable can be either to do with the interests students have in their daily lives or to do with improving in English (in order to satisfy motives such as passing examinations). Connecting a task to interests of students such as popular culture (Atsuta, 2003; Cheung, 2001) or showing the relevance of content and learning for passing of an examination (viewed as a much more difficult challenge for TBL in Japan) is crucial for motivation in task design.

*Confidence* – Another key component in task design is the use of strategies that help the learners develop a positive expectation for success. Motivation and student engagement throughout a task are likely to be far lower if there is little chance of them being able to finish it alone. If large class sizes result in less time for teachers to support groups or pairs directly in undertaking a task, ensuring that the level of the task matches the level of the students adequately (Whalen, 1997), and that students have chances to feel like their progress is clearly on track throughout a task, are clearly important. Without these, students will become disinterested in tasks, easily distracted, perhaps disruptive and of course less engaged in doing them.

*Satisfaction* – This involves the use of strategies that provide extrinsic and intrinsic reinforcement for effort. Students who are driven in completing tasks and feel a sense of satisfaction during and after completing them are more likely to become engaged in doing them. Prizes, encouragement, praise, challenge, cooperation with close friends and competition among groups are examples of reinforcement resulting in higher motivation and student engagement (Julkunen, 2001). Creating a reason such as these for students to feel good about finishing a task with other students is the fifth and final component in the hybrid CARCS model of design.

## **The Experiment**

### **Study questions**

The three areas of interest in the study were:

Question 1 - Does the added motivational design of the tasks created with the CARCS model produce more motivated, participating and alert (and hence engaged) students?

Question 2 - Does the added design of the task due to the CARCS model better maintain motivation across the entire time period?

Question 3 - What areas of design of the tasks relating to the CARCS model are reported by students to be of most significance for a desire to become engaged in doing a task?

**Participants**

The study consisted of 12 different classes of students totaling 100 third year junior high school students and 96 first year senior high school students from the same combined junior and senior high school in Kanagawa, Japan (see Table 1 for details). Participants of high school age were selected for analysis due to the majority of CLT participation related problems (such as noise and discipline) being associated with them and thus any effects upon motivation and engagement were expected to be clearer to observe and of a higher impact than with self-motivated adult learners for example. There was a mixture of sexes and class sizes were between 14 and 18 students (some classes were larger, but participants were removed from the study if they did not attend both test classes, did not work with the same partner for both classes, or if classes had an odd number of students). The teacher of these classes was the same teacher who was teaching the students English communication classes at that time. Classes were held once a week for 50 minutes. For the post-task interviews 12 students were interviewed; one from every class after the second class was done (either the control or experimental task).

**Table 1. Study participants.**

	Junior high school third grade						Senior high school first grade					
Class	<i>J1</i>	<i>J2</i>	<i>J3</i>	<i>J4</i>	<i>J5</i>	<i>J6</i>	<i>S1</i>	<i>S2</i>	<i>S3</i>	<i>S4</i>	<i>S5</i>	<i>S6</i>
Participants	16	18	18	14	16	18	14	18	16	14	16	18

**Instrumentation**

**1. The tasks**

Two different tasks were used for the experiment (See appendix 1). They were designed around the hybrid CARCS model, following suggestions made by Keller (2000) on how to

improve activities for students using the ARCS model, with the added variable of control also added into the design. The control task was designed to reflect a fairly poorly designed task (in terms of motivation) and the experimental task as similar in many ways to the control task, but as an improved version using the CARCS model (details of the differing characteristics of the two tasks are shown in appendix 2). Both were what Willis (1996b) called 'creative tasks' for TBL and followed a similar pattern to Willis' (1996a) three-stage model for TBL, with a five minute pre-task quiz, twenty minute main task and ten minute follow up post-task presentation of the task outcome to the teacher.

The tasks were designed to be as similar to each other as possible and vary only by alterations that would affect the motivation resulting from a CARCS model analysis of them. Nunan's (1991) conceptualization of tasks was used to ensure this similarity (by keeping the curricular goals, input data for the tasks, the activities and procedures undertaken, the teacher and student roles and the settings and conditions all as similar as possible). It can be justifiably argued that by keeping all of these factors constant a fair look at how using the CARCS model to improve motivation was performed.

## **2. The observation scheme**

The observation scheme (see appendix 3) used to measure student engagement during tasks was based on Guilloteaux & Dörnyei's (2008) MOLT scheme of observing student behavior during class. The scheme was an adaptation of Spada and Frohlich's (1995) communication orientation of language teaching (COLT), but was changed to observe motivational behavior of both the students and motivational practices of the teacher in class proposed by Dörnyei (2001, p. 29). However, some alterations were made to better match the scheme to the needs of the experiment. The observation of volunteering was removed (as it was not applicable to the observation period, when volunteering would not occur while pairs undertook a task independently from the teacher) and the time period for observation was changed from one minute to 30 seconds (as the observation time was only 20 minutes long and the teacher was mostly idle during the observation time, leaving time to do these extra observations). Also, the observation did not include any teacher motivational practice and in fact was only observing the two factors of student alertness

(passive academic responding without actual speaking to their partner) and student participation (active academic responding with speech during the activity).

The factor of alertness was originally called ‘attention’ by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, but after reasonable criticism of its confusion with the factor of participation by Ellis (2009) was changed (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2009). To further eliminate any confusion of the two terms in this study it is best to now give some examples of what they both refer to. Examples of student alertness include listening and paying attention to their partner’s input on the task, reading material related to the task, or showing body language suggesting thinking and consideration of their partner’s speaking or actions is taking place. Examples of student participation include speaking to their partner about something related to finishing the task, writing or drawing something for the task completion, or being sat facing forward (undistracted by things unrelated to the task) and clearly thinking out loud about how to complete the task. To simplify the explanation of times when students were not considered to be either alert or participating in the task, the term ‘disengaged’ was created. This would refer to a state in which students were for example sleeping on their desk, turning around to speak to other students outside of their pair, clearly not listening to their partner’s input on the task, or doing something else unrelated to the task at hand. A score of one point was awarded every 30 seconds (by ticking the appropriate box on the sheet) if the teacher judged at least two-thirds of the class to be either participating or in a state of alertness. If it was a combination of the two, then a score was awarded for participation (although it made no difference to results which box the tick was placed in). If less than two-thirds of the class were exhibiting either of these behaviors at the time period observed, no score was given. At the end of the twenty minutes a total score was calculated for each class for the task they had just undertaken.

### **3. Post-task interviews**

After the completion of the second task for each class one student was randomly selected (totaling 12 interviews) and interviewed in the L1 (Japanese) on the two tasks. Interviews (see appendix 4 for details of the questions) lasted approximately five to ten minutes each and were used to reveal commonality in feelings towards aspects of design in general, and

more specifically, design relating to the CARCS model which may have resulted in engagement (or a lack of it).

### **Procedure**

A pilot was initially run for two different classes for the two different tasks and the observation scheme and no issues of significant concern arose. However, one change that was made was that the time intervals for the observation scheme were changed from every 20 seconds to 30 seconds due to the high demand in workload for the observer in terms of walking around, observing the students doing the task in their pairs and then making a judgment for scoring on the observation sheet. Less frequent time periods were seen as revealing a significant amount of data without placing too much demand of the observer in terms of time.

Each of the 12 classes tested undertook the two different tasks (the control task and the experimental task) and they were carried out by pairs across two weekly classes. Six classes (three junior high and three senior high) did the control task first and the other classes did the experimental task first in order to counter any effects of tiring of the task style undertaken in results. For example, if the control task was always done second by the classes, then if all the classes appeared less motivated to do it, it could be argued that this was only because of the fact it was similar to the first task and tedious for the students to do again.

The observation scheme was performed for 20 minutes during the time the teacher was free to do so and students independently working in pairs to complete their tasks. On completion of the second weekly task for the students, one student was chosen at random from each of the classes to undertake a five to ten minute post-task interview about the two tasks undertaken.

### **Analysis**

For research question one, observational scores were calculated out of 100 (from originally out of 40) to look at engagement as a percentage (how much of the time during the task students were exhibiting engagement in the task). SPSS version 15 was used to run paired samples t-tests to see the effect of using motivation design on the overall observed

engagement for a task. For research question two, graphs were created for cumulative engagement scores across the 20 minute task time for each class. By looking at the graphs, clear patterns of continual, fluctuating, or decreasing engagement were made clearer for both control and experimental tasks for each class. By creating average values for engagement scores at each of the 40 measured time periods, patterns of the maintenance of (or lack of) motivation and resultant engagement were easier to see. For research question three, the interview sheets for the twelve post-task interviewed students were used to look for common reasoning and preferences in CARCS design components to indicate what potential sources of design resulted in the production and protecting of motivation (and engagement) during tasks.

## Results and Discussion

### 1. Research question 1

The first question to be answered was whether using the CARCS model to alter task design really effected overall observable class engagement in tasks or not. As can be seen in Table 2, a significant increase in the overall observed student engagement across the 20 minute task time took place when the CARCS model had been implemented (the difference between the overall observation scheme score for the control and experimental task for each class). On the whole, the use of the CARCS model created classrooms with a higher level of participation and alertness in the tasks they were doing and reduced the risk of distractions, non-participation and generally undesirable behavior for TBL task work.

**Table 2. Overall engagement scores for classes during the two tasks.**

	Junior high school third grade						Senior high school first grade					
Class	<i>J1</i>	<i>J2</i>	<i>J3</i>	<i>J4</i>	<i>J5</i>	<i>J6</i>	<i>S1</i>	<i>S2</i>	<i>S3</i>	<i>S4</i>	<i>S5</i>	<i>S6</i>
Control task	8	11	9	20	6	10	9	11	25	13	20	21
Experimental task	31	33	28	36	37	35	24	36	38	29	37	30

Paired samples t-tests were run with the SPSS software to see what impact incorporating the hybrid CARCS model of design would have on task motivation for the 12 classes

investigated. As can be seen in table 3, there was a significant increase in observed engagement scores from the control task ( $M = 33.96$ ,  $SD = 15.54$ ) to the experimental task ( $M = 82.08$ ,  $SD = 11.02$ ),  $t(11) = -10.87$ ,  $p < 0.0005$  (two-tailed). The mean increase in observed student engagement score was 48.13 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -57.87 to -38.38. The eta squared statistic (0.92) indicated a very large size effect. It can confidently be stated that by using the CARCS model to focus on the control, attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction components of design for the tasks student engagement was significantly improved during the experimental task (compared to the control task). The results clearly show that students spent much more time participating and focusing in their pair on the task with higher motivation to do it, rather than being distracted or displaying disengaged behavior. From a teacher's standpoint, the implementation of the CARCS model to adapt tasks shows great potential to produce more focused environments of learning for TBL and such improvements would be easily recognizable to teachers who are perhaps used to classes displaying low levels of involvement or interest in tasks given to them.

**Table 3. paired samples t-test for observed student engagement**

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Task Observed Engagement	33.958	12	15.5380	4.4854
Experimental Task Observed Engagement	82.083	12	11.0182	3.1807

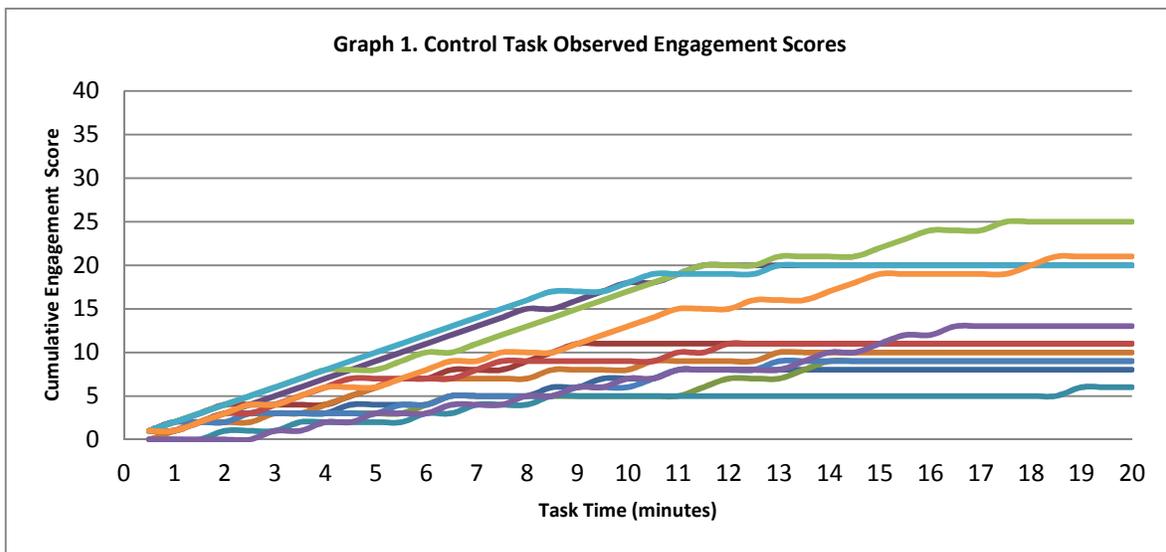
**Paired Samples Test**

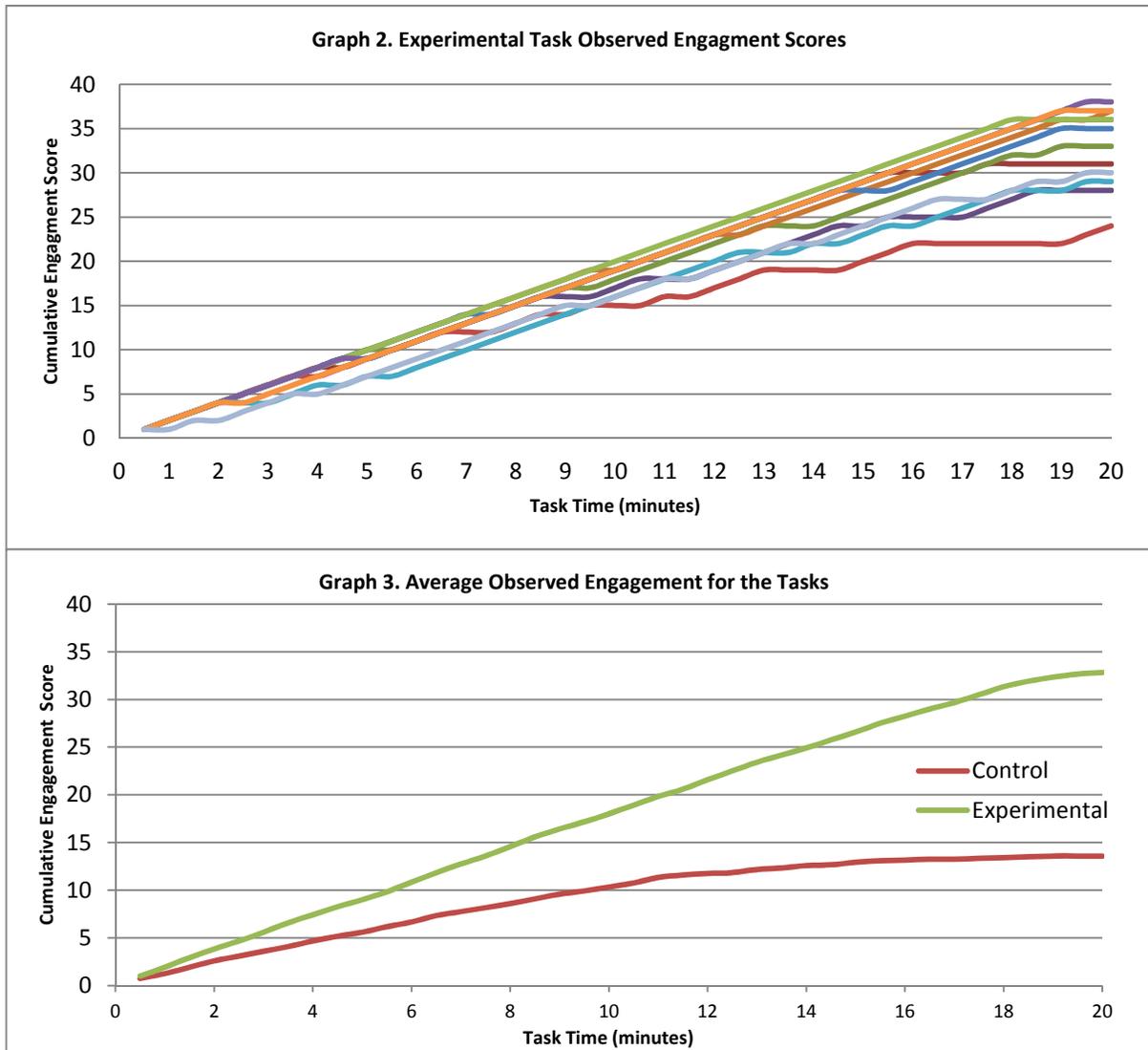
	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower	Upper				
Control Task to Experimental Task Observed Engagement	-48.1250	15.3418	4.4288	-57.8727	-38.3773	-10.866	11	.000	

## 2. Research question 2

The second question addressed in the experiment was whether student engagement could be significantly maintained across the entire task time by using the CARCS model, or if the student motivation and participation would die off after a short time. By looking at graph 1,

we can see the tendency of student engagement to fall off at some early point during the 20 minute period observed for the control task. However, a much more constant, unwavering engagement of students is apparent in graph 2 for the experimental task. By comparing the average observed engagement levels for the two tasks at each of the 40 time periods scored (graph 3) a clear difference between the maintenance of motivation and resultant engagement can be seen. For the control task, student engagement starts to seriously drop off after around eight minutes and the students became almost completely disengaged from the task at around the 15 minute point. However, the experimental task (which received CARCS design adjustments compared to the control task) produced an almost constant and maximum engagement from the students throughout task time up until just a minute or two from completion. Students were on the whole participating and focusing upon their task far more consistently compared to during the control task. Hence, teachers not considering the elements of the CARCS model in their motivational task design may well find themselves struggling to keep students on-track and continually working upon tasks put before them compared to those who do use such a model. An ideal situation desired in a TBL setting is for a teacher to be able to set up a task, stand back for a moment and then facilitate as necessary during the task time. With the use of a proven engagement sustaining model such as the CARCS model, teachers can freely fulfill this role of facilitator and move further away from the role of disciplinarian.





### 3. Research question 3

The final question addressed in the experiment was which of the five elements of the CARCS model (control, attention, relevance, confidence or satisfaction) was reported by students to be of the most positive influence on engagement in tasks. From the post-task interviews with students some commonalities arose in terms of aspects of the task design which may have been most related to the increase in student engagement due to the CARCS design model. The main findings are summarized below:

*Control:* One aspect of motivational design which was mentioned on several occasions by the interviewed students for the experimental task was the ability to be creative during the task. Students made comments such as “I could make any character I liked” and “I enjoyed being able to choose what my character looked like and what skills it had”, suggesting that students found the ability to be able to take control of and have freedom in the direction in which their task developed was motivating. Tasks which allow students to make decisions in the content and development of the task can clearly create higher motivation among students in general and allowing this element of control should be considered by teachers when designing creative tasks such as this.

Humor was another factor mentioned in a positive light, with many of the interviewed students talking about how the characters they created were “funny” and how they found the experimental task funny as a whole when being carried out. With regards to the control task, no points relating to control in a positive sense arose from the interviews, but comments such as “I wanted to make up my own rules, but the task was about set rules for a park” and “I didn’t really know about my local park” suggested that a feeling of control was lacking and limiting for the students in terms of being able to make choices in terms of language. This point further backs up the likelihood that allowing students to take control of the content of a task can improve motivation during tasks and allowing for appropriate and teacher approved humorous input from students should be allowed to increase motivation and overall engagement.

*Attention:* A point most noticeably commented upon by students in terms of the attention element of design was the popularity of the use of visuals in the pre-task quiz and the ability to see students’ own drawings develop across the task time. Students responded very positively to the question about visuals and handouts (question five in the interview) for the experimental task, with many students describing them as “great” or “interesting”. For the control experiment, there were no negative comments made about the worksheets as such, but the general enthusiasm expressed by students was lower than for the experimental task. That is to say, that the interviews did not explicitly reveal that the experimental task’s attention variable of design was much more motivating than for the control task, but a higher level of enthusiasm in speaking about and describing the experimental task’s visuals with positive adjectives was present.

As expected when using the CARCS model to improve student attention, the use of pictures and interesting, eye-catching visuals appears to have done its job in grabbing and holding the focus of students better during task time. This positive effect on motivation by visuals should always be kept in mind by teachers of TBL, as even though it is obvious to most teachers that attractive worksheets for example improve student motivation, the frequency of positive commenting on the effect of such visuals in the interviews suggest its high importance for motivation and engagement.

*Relevance:* With regards to how the tasks were received by the students in terms of how relevant they may have been to the students' interests and learning needs, the task's theme was the most talked about. Throughout the interview, none of the students spoke about their interests or motives as language learners, but more about the task topics themselves. Several students described how they found the comic book character theme of the experimental task as "fun", "interesting", or "more interesting than other classes" and generally gave a very positive reporting of how much it interested them. Again, for the control task, no negative comments were really received about its theme (perhaps due to fear of offending the teacher), but one student stated "I have never been to my local park and am not interested in it".

The experimental task was designed to be much more relevant for the students in terms of the interests in their daily lives and it was believed to have connected more closely in such a way than the control task. This point also can be said to be partly responsible for the clearly higher level of motivation and engagement among the students and designing communicative tasks with themes closely related to the interests of the students should be considered by teachers to produce a more motivating effect and task engagement.

*Confidence:* Among the interviewed students, almost all of them stated that the experimental task was easy to understand and background knowledge on the topic also helped in completing it. One student said "I know lots about comic book characters, so it was easy to make one" and another stated "it was fun, because I could combine things I knew about different characters". Problems mentioned with the control task by several students evolved around the English required to complete it. "I didn't understand how to write the sentences" was something said by two of the students, indicating that clarity in how to complete the task was lacking. The lack of examples given and initial guidance with

language use for the control task may well have accounted for this lack of confidence and could have clearly led to the lower engagement observed during the main task.

If students are not sure how to complete a task, it is clearly not fair to expect them to be able to do it in an engaged way. The creation of tasks in which confidence with the level and familiarity of language use, and familiarity of topic will produce more motivated participation from students and should also be considered in design of tasks. Students facing topics and language they are not confident with in a second language are less likely to reach a level of engagement hoped for by teachers during tasks.

*Satisfaction:* Perhaps the most notable difference in responses between the two tasks from the interviews in terms of motivation was related to satisfaction. When asked what the main motivation for finishing the task was, almost all of the students stated that the candy promised in return for task completion was the single biggest motivator. It seems that the outside external motivational influence of reward may well have accounted for a large proportion of student engagement and is a source of motivation with great potential to produce engagement during tasks. Students can clearly be ‘bribed’ into task completion with rewards and this external influence can be noted as a useful motivator for TBL in high schools in Japan.

### **The effect of using external rewards**

A great deal of research has gone into the effects of the act of passing out rewards upon extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in the past (Deci, 1971, 1972; Harackiewicz, 1979, Hidi, 2000) and the situation is not quite as simple as it might first seem. Most noteworthy, it has been shown that external rewards may have a negative impact on intrinsic motivation and belief in competency (Ryan & Deci, 2000) by enforcing a belief that the results occurred due to an external influence and not one from within. Furthermore, a studies of the psychology and neuroscience of motivation and attention by researchers such as Derryberry and Tucker (1994) have shown that such motivation created in people can affect both the breadth of and to what exactly attention is given by the receiver of external motivation such as rewards. This introduction of a possible extra variable of motivation is confusing to the exact effects of the candy given out during the experimental task and has

been considered upon concluding on the direct relationship between prizes and student engagement.

That being said, prizes are clearly something which lead to motivation and engagement during tasks, but it must be remembered by teachers that giving a prize to students in TBL for task completion has a complex effect on motivation and one which may alter intrinsic motivation in the long run by creating beliefs that the cause of motivation lies outside the learner and produces less of a desire for internal self-motivation. According to the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) (Ryan & Deci, 2000) prizes awarded based on good performance and not perceived to be completely controlling the outcome (when the student has an internal locus of causality for the result to happen) are expected to have a positive effect on intrinsic motivation. A constant use of rewards for task completion is thus not recommended, due to the possible negative effect on inner beliefs about why students should or if they are capable of learning something, but as long as occasional rewards are based on good results and are not the only reason students want to complete their task well prizes such as candy can be used to good effect on both engagement and long-term intrinsic motivation.

## **Conclusion**

This paper has discussed the issues involved with TBL for high school classes studying a second language and referred more specifically to Japanese high school students studying English. Common issues faced by teachers teaching TBL in Japan include students showing a lack of focus, low levels of participation, disruptive behavior, and a tendency to do something other than the task during task time. A new model of motivation design for tasks (The CARCS model) was developed to attempt to reduce or eliminate these problems by using Keller's (1987, 1992) original ARCS model of design (attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction) and incorporates an additional element of 'control' for students in terms of their task content and progression. By doing so, the research of others (Dörnyei 2001, p. 76; Egbert, 2003) on how to best engage students in tasks with a motivation state and Keller's original model have been combined to improve the likelihood of student engagement in tasks for a longer period of time during class, when a lack of participation in TBL by students left alone to work might usually be an issue.

Observational testing of the CARCS model using a control and experimental task showed that a highly significant increase in student overall engagement and maintenance of that engagement during tasks can be achieved by integrating the model. This proved the potential value of the model as a design tool for TBL tasks in Japanese high schools and its implementation is recommended as an alternative approach for teachers who struggle to create tasks which engage and motivate their students to participate willingly (following changes similar to those made to the task in appendix 2). Furthermore, post-task interviews revealed that all five components of the model's design (control, attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction) play a significant role in creating the motivation required for this increase in student engagement to occur and the model should be fully implemented for the best effect on engagement to occur.

More specifically, two areas most frequently and enthusiastically reported upon as motivators by students were the use of visuals and information based around the interests of the students (the use of comic book characters as a task topic, surfacing from good attention and relevance design components for the experimental task) and the reward used for task completion (the candy offered for task completion, coming from the satisfaction design component of the model). Hence, the most influential aspects of the CARCS model on student engagement in TBL potentially lie with using visuals and information relevant to student interests (good pictures and themes for worksheets for example) and external rewards for task completion (such as candy). Both are strongly recommended as changes to current tasks in TBL, if current tasks do not appear to be producing engaged and participating classes for the teacher. However, teachers must remain aware that overuse and misuse of external rewards may in fact have a negative long-term effect on intrinsic motivation of students and so ensuring that rewards are given to students based on good results and not in a way which completely controls student behavior during tasks (Ryan and Deci, 2000) is recommended.

### **Future research**

Further research into the effectiveness of the CARCS model using longer task times (not only 20 minutes) and larger classes (more than 20 students) could of course reveal its ability to promote and maintain student engagement on a larger scale. If it were so that the

model can maintain a high level of engagement for large classes for long periods of time, it would indeed be worthy of use in many different language learning settings, particularly those with oversized classes and frequent issues with student alertness and participation.

Additionally, a future study of the CARCS model's effect on engagement with the removal of the external reward (candy in the case of this paper) could eliminate the arguments discussed in this paper with the complex relationships between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and focus of attention given to things by students. This may produce a clearer image of the model's influence on student behavior without confusing the two topics of external rewards and task design itself.

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## Appendices

### 1 Task worksheets

#### a Control task worksheet

##### Five park rules

Please work with your partner and write five REAL rules for a park close to one of your homes (Example: You cannot drive a car in the park). When you are finished you will present it to your teacher by reading each sentence out one by one.

##### Park rules (Things you CANNOT do)

Rule 1.

Rule 2.

Rule 3.

Rule 4.

Rule 5.

##### Things you CAN do in the park:

1.

2.

3.

##### Park facts:

1. (Where is it?)

2. (Who goes there?)

3. (What is in the park?)

(Draw a picture of your park here)

#### b Experimental task worksheet

## Create your own animation character!

Work with a partner and design your own character. When you are finished you will present it to and get a score from your teacher. You must present your character for 2 minutes, but can read out and show your teacher any English you want!

Fact 1:

Fact 2:

Fact 3:

Fact 4:

Fact 5:

What special powers/abilities does he/she/it have?

(Draw a picture of your character here)

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1.

2.

3.

Extra information?

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1.

2.

3.

**Scores**

English use

Creativity

Effort

Total

2 CARC  design detail  two tasks

	Control task	Experimental task
<b><u>Control</u></b>		
1. Self-expression	Students made to report on park rules which allow no freedom of expression of feelings or interests.	Freedom to be creative and humorous in making any kind of character with no serious limitations in appearance or description of the character.
2. Autonomy	Students told to produce and present their task outcomes in a set way.	Students allowed to choose their own rules for production and presentation of their task outcome to the teacher.
3. Decisions in learning	Language use limited to specific usages and presentations told to follow a set method.	Language use and presentation method decided by the students with only a time limit enforced.
<b><u>Attention</u></b>		
1. Perceptual arousal	No pictures on handouts, no realia shown and no example pictures shown.	Attractive pictures on handouts, realia (a comic) shown and example super hero drawing shown to class.
2. Inquiry arousal	Pre-task quiz relates only to Japanese laws, thought to be of little interest to the students.	Pre-task quiz designed to arouse curiosity about foreign as well as Japanese cartoons and example super hero drawing used as a quiz to arouse curiosity.
3. Variability	No pictures or variation of presentation of images, and no guidance for breakdown of time for task completion given.	Use of different displays of images (realia, example task super hero and worksheet pictures) and task broken down into different sections (thinking, drawing, writing, practice and presenting time).
<b><u>Relevance</u></b>		
1. Goal orientation	No guidance given on the use of the language in the task.	Students told about the use of the language in the task introduction (to describe people they know) and students given an example super hero version of the teacher.
2. Motive matching	Task topic is thought to be unrelated to student interests or motives to study English.	Task topic is thought to be linked closely to student interests and communicative interests (cartoon characters and describing people).
3. Familiarity	Task may not relate to students' daily lives (they may never go to the park or have knowledge of the rules there). Task is also not broken down into sections they are familiar with (left to complete as they pleased).	Task relates to student knowledge and experiences (cartoons they are aware of in their daily lives) and methods of learning similar to structure they are familiar with (language introduction, examples given, task undertaking and presenting).
<b><u>Confidence</u></b>		
1. Learning requirements	No example task given and no scoring system used, so students unclear on required focus for achievement or how to succeed.	The use of an example super hero and a scoring system enables students to feel confident about and understand requirements for focus of effort clearly.
2. Success opportunities	No scoring system or breaking down of the task into steps leaves little chance for students to feel success during or after the task.	A scoring system gives students feeling of success. Breaking up of the task into sections (language intro, example, task, presentation) gives the students smaller goals to achieve at a steady pace.
3. Personal responsibility	Students take no real responsibility for their undertaking or outcome of the task, due to a lack of performance measurement (a scoring system).	Students can attribute success to themselves for their own efforts on the task with a scoring system (awarded by the teacher).
<b><u>Satisfaction</u></b>		

1. Intrinsic reinforcement	Students told to hand in their sheets and the end of the task and no instructional design is used to enforce intrinsic motivation.	Students told to introduce their character to their next teacher and family at home if they wish.
2. Extrinsic rewards	No rewards, prizes or specific praise given to any pair.	Students are given rewards for completing the task and prizes are given to the best three pairs (in terms of scoring). Students are given praise from the teacher for good scores for their tasks.
3. Equity	No scoring system means students can work hard or not and get the same kind of feedback from the teacher. A feeling of unfairness may follow.	Rewards given to only those who complete the task in time and prizes given to those who have the highest scores. Scoring system is explained prior to the task and students are shown how it can be considered to be fair.

### 3 Task observation sheet

Class: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Task: Control / Experiment

Task Time (minutes)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10							
(seconds)	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0
High Alertness (>2/3class)																		
High Participation (>2/3class)																		

Task Time (minutes)	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20								
(seconds)	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0	30	0
High Alertness (>2/3class)																		
High Participation (>2/3class)																		

Score: /40

### 4 Post-task student interview questions

1. How were the two tasks you did? (Warm up question)
2. Did you enjoy anything in either class? (Warm up question)
3. What did you enjoy about creating your park and/or character in the tasks?
4. Did you like the worksheets and pictures you used today and in the previous class?  
What about them did you like? (Attention question)
5. What did you think of the topic of parks and animation characters? (Relevance question)
6. Was it easy to create your park and character worksheet? Why? (Confidence question)
7. What was the biggest reason you wanted to finish creating your park and character and show it to me?  
(Satisfaction question)