Centre for English Language Studies

Postgraduate programmes, Open Distance Learning

ESSAY COVER SHEET AND DECLARATION

IMPORTANT: Please complete ALL sections of this template and PASTE it into the FIRST PAGE of your essay

Student ID number	1189734
Module Number (1-6)	1
Title of Degree Programme:	MA TEF/SL
Title of Module:	Language Teaching Methodology
Assessment Task No.	LT/09/11
First or second submission (second submission is used for resubmitted work only)	First
Date Submitted	September 30, 2011
Name of tutor	Joel Baker
Word Count	4500

Exploring TBLT in a Japanese EFL/ESP context

Daniel Hougham

Assignment submitted for Master of Arts in TEF/SL

September 2011

Module 1 - Language Teaching Methodology

LT/09/11
...although PPP lessons are often supplemented with skills lessons, most students taught mainly through conventional approaches such as PPP leave school unable to communicate effectively in English (Stern, 1983). This situation has prompted many ELT professionals to take note of... second language acquisition (SLA) studies... and turn towards holistic approaches where meaning is central and where opportunities for language use abound. Task-based learning is one such approach...
(Willis, 2005: 4–5)

Do you think that Task-Based Language Teaching, if adopted in your own teaching context, would result in more students being able "to communicate effectively in English"? Why (not)? What would be the advantages and/or problems of implementing a task-based approach in this context?

Word Count: 4500 (excluding cover page, contents, table, references, and appendices)

Centre for English Language Studies Postgraduate Programmes
THE UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM
Edgbaston
Birmingham B15 2TT
UK

Contents

1. Introduction

Increasingly, it has been recognized that traditional approaches to teaching such as present-practice-produce (PPP) have failed to enable learners to develop the second language (L2) proficiency needed to communicate effectively (e.g. Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1996; Ellis, 2003). As Ellis (2003: viiii) comments,

> if learners are to develop the competence they need to use a second language in the kinds of situations they meet *outside* the classroom they need to experience how language is used as a tool for communicating *inside* it.'Task' serves as the most obvious means for organizing teaching along these lines.

Ellis' comment is representative of the now widely held view that language teaching should treat language primarily as a tool for communicating rather than as an object for study or manipulation.

The gain in popularity of task-based language teaching (TBLT) is evident not only in the large number of recent publications on TBLT by leading scholars (e.g., Skehan, 1998; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Willis and Willis, 2007) and, but also in the fact that in recent years a number of Asian countries including China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong, have adopted TBLT as their official English teaching approach (Adams and Newton, 2009).

Despite its growing popularity and compelling psycholinguistic rationale, TBLT has been questioned by some (e.g. Swan, 2005; Sheen 2003) who claim it lacks empirical evidence and is impractical, particularly in EFL contexts where a more form-focused approach is reportedly required.

This paper will argue that, if adopted in my own teaching context - a nursing college in Japan - , TBLT would result in more students being able to communicate effectively in English. I will begin with a review of the TBLT literature. I will then describe my own teaching context and look at the main advantages and problems of implementing TBLT in this context. Finally, I will consider the next steps in moving forward with TBLT.

2. TBLT Literature Review

2.1 The inadequacies of PPP

TBLT is commonly described both as an 'extension of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) movement' (Richards 2006:27) and as a reaction to the inadequacies of PPP, which, since the 1980s, has received widespread and well-founded criticism (D. Willis 1996: v) and yet remains popular today in various contexts around the world.

One of the problems with PPP is that, because the target language is specified in advance and the emphasis is placed on accuracy and the avoidance of error, it tends to result in stilted production and to give learners a sense of failure (J. Willis, 1996). An emphasis on accuracy almost inevitably leads to a loss of self-esteem, a sense of failure, and resulting drop in motivation (Willis and Willis, 2011). Unfortunately, this has caused many EFL learners to lose motivation and to develop a poor self-image as language learners. As a case in point, a recent study (Kikuchi and Sakai, 2009) on Japanese learners' demotivation to study English found that the use of non-communicative (i.e. traditional) methods, which typically involve PPP, was perceived to be a significantly demotivating factor.

Another problem with PPP is that its underlying assumption, namely that learners acquire a language sequentially as a series of products, was shown to lack credibility in linguistics and psychology (Skehan, 1996:18). Contrary to PPP's underlying assumption, SLA research (e.g. Corder 1967) showed that learners follow their own built-in syllabus, irrespective of what they are taught. In light of this evidence, many researchers and teachers adopted the new view that language 'learning is constrained by internal processes' (Skehan, 1996:19).

PPP has proved highly durable, however, because of its convenience for the teaching profession (Skehan,1996: 17). One of the factors that has allowed PPP to remain popular is that there has been considerable conceptual uncertainty about TBLT, in particular, "the definition of the central concept of 'task' itself and what activities are (or are not) included in it" (Littlewood, 2007: 247), an issue to which we now turn.

2.2 Defining a 'task'

'Task' has been defined in many and various ways. This is because, as Shehadeh (2005: 17) explains, 'the study and description of task has been approached from different perspectives and for different purposes', for example research purposes as opposed to pedagogical purposes. Based on a

study of a number of previous definitions of 'task', Ellis (2009: 223) identifies the following essential criterial features common to most definitions:

1.The primary focus should be on meaning
2.There should be some kind of 'gap'(i.e. a need to convey information, to express an opinion or to infer meaning).
3.Learners should largely have to rely on their own resources (linguistic and non-linguistic) in order to complete the activity.
4.There is a clearly defined outcome other than the use of language.

On the basis of Ellis' criteria, "an important distinction can be made between a 'task' and a 'grammar exercise'" (Ellis, 2009:223). The main purpose of the latter is to practice correct language rather than to process messages for meaning, and its outcome is simply the use of correct language. In other words, the latter may satisfy criteria (2) and (3), but it does not satisfy (1) and (4). Another important difference between a task and a grammar exercise is that in tasks learners are free to use a range of language structures to achieve task outcomes - the forms are not specified in advance (Willis and Willis, 2001).

For language teaching purposes, Ellis' criterial features are helpful because they enable teachers to select activities that involve communicative language use in which the student's attention is focused primarily on meaning. As Nunan (2006: 17) points out, though, 'this does not mean that form is not important'. It simply means that form is secondary to meaning. By emphasizing meaning over form, having a clearly defined outcome, and not restricting learners to pre-specified items, tasks aim to enable learners to develop fluency and a sense of achievement while not neglecting accuracy.

2.3 Defining TBLT

The important distinction between a 'task' and a 'grammar exercise' underlies another important distinction, that between 'task-based' and 'task-supported' language teaching (Ellis 2003). In the former (as in Prabhu 1987), 'task' is the central unit of planning and teaching. In the latter, which is the approach that is today still most commonly used in many contexts around the world, 'tasks' (but more accurately referred to as 'grammar exercises') are used as one technique to supplement a traditional structural syllabus, likely involving PPP.

The underlying idea of TBLT is that 'learners begin a teaching sequence by making the best use they can of the language they already have in order to achieve the goals of the task". (Willis and

Willis 2011: 6). Various ways of doing TBLT have been proposed and they all have three main phases in common, which are presented in table 1 below, from Ellis (2003).

Table 1: A framework for designing task-based lessons (Ellis, 2003)

Phase	Examples of options
A Pre-task	framing the activity, e.g. establishing the outcome of the task planning time doing a similar task
B During Task	time pressure number of participants
C Post-task	learner report consciousness raising repeat task

The framework above is not monolithic, but rather allows for creativity and variety in the choice of options in each phase.

2.4 Arguments for and against TBLT and some pro-TBLT responses

While TBLT has gained in popularity, it has also come in for much criticism because it takes issue with traditional views of language teaching. In this section I will summarize some of the main arguments for and against TBLT that are most applicable to my context, and some pro-TBLT responses.

Proponents of TBLT commonly argue that conventional approaches such as PPP do not work and do not reflect current understanding of SLA research (e.g. Skehan, 1996; Ellis, 2003). Critics of TBLT, on the other hand, counter-argue that it lacks sufficient classroom-based empirical evidence to prove claims for its superiority over more form-focused approaches (e.g. Bruton, 2002; Sheen, 2003, Swan, 2005). However, while the need to demonstrate the efficacy of TBLT in classroom contexts has been acknowledged (e.g. Ellis, 2009; Samuda and Bygate, 2008), there have been plenty of small-scale studies demonstrating that task-based learning does lead to acquisition,

examples of which include Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1994), Takimoto (2009), and Kozawa (2010). In a Japanese nursing college context similar to my own teaching context, Kozawa (2010) found that, through task-based collaborative dialogues, her students benefited both in perceived ability and in significantly improved speaking skills as evidenced by ability perception surveys and speaking tests.

Proponents of TBLT also argue that tasks enable learners to learn through communication and engagement (e.g. Prabhu, 1987; Ellis, 2003). Critics, on the other hand, counter-argue that beginner learners need to be taught grammar because without it they will not be able to communicate, and therefore TBLT is unsuitable for many EFL contexts where a more structured approach is reportedly required (e.g. Sheen, 2003; Bruton, 2005; Swan, 2005). Critics also claim that TBLT provides learners with less new language than traditional approaches (e.g. Swan, 2005; Sato, 2010) However, these objections mistakenly 'assume that TBLT requires production right from the start – when learners are beginners' (Ellis, 2009:237). In fact, as Ellis (2009: 237) points out, TBLT can be both input-providing and output-prompting, and,

> with beginners the appropriate approach would clearly be one that emphasizes listening and reading tasks. There is plenty of evidence (see e.g. Ellis 1999 for a review of studies) to show that input-based approaches enable learners to develop not only the ability to comprehend input but also the grammatical resources they will need to speak and write.

Not only can tasks provide learners with rich exposure to a wider range of language, but they also can provide a means of adjusting the input to the learners' level in order to make it comprehensible (Ellis, 2003). Studies (e.g. Loschky 1994; Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki 1994; Ellis and Heimbach 1997) have shown that what Ellis calls 'listen-and-do tasks' can be enriched with new vocabulary in ways that foster acquisition. It is also possible, as Mackey (1999) has shown, to design tasks that will result in the required use of a target structure. Furthermore, these kinds of tasks can be used effectively with beginners (as in the beginner tasks described in Prabhu, 1987) and can thus cater to the 'silent period', which characterizes the early stages of acquisition for some learners (Krashen 1981).

Other arguments that are especially applicable to my own teaching context are that TBLT gives learners real opportunities to do things with the language (Willis and Willis, 2007, 2011) and task is the ideal unit for specifying the content of ESP courses because it most closely reflects what

learners need to do with the language (Long, 1985). If these opportunities are at the appropriate level of difficulty and if learners are properly guided, then learners are very likely to complete each task successfully and little by little develop a sense of achievement and a resulting increase in motivation. Learners are also more likely to develop autonomously because they are encouraged to explore language and to analyze it for themselves (Willis and Willis, 2011).

To sum up, PPP is inadequate to the task of enabling learners to communicate effectively in English and, as Ellis (2009) points out, many of the arguments against TBLT are based on fundamental misunderstandings or misrepresentations of the theoretical rationale behind TBLT. Having looked at the background, some of the key concepts, and some arguments for and against TBLT that are relevant to my context, let us now turn to a detailed look at the advantages and problems of implementing TBLT in my context.

3. Implementing TBLT in a Japanese ESP context

I will begin with a description of my teaching context and will then discuss the advantages and problems of implementing TBLT in this context.

3.1 My teaching context

My learners are in their first-year of a two-year vocational nursing college program in Hiroshima, Japan. The ‘English for Nursing’ course is intended to develop the students’ basic communication skills and knowledge of English for nursing. The course is 90 minutes per week for 15 weeks and is required for all first-year students, whose ages range from 18 to 45 years old. There are 32 students in the class, most of whom are false beginners who can read and have some knowledge of basic grammar and vocabulary, but have very little oral English ability. Most if not all of the students have experienced six or more years of learning English as a foreign language in high schools where heavily form-focused approaches such as grammar translation and PPP were and still are by all accounts the standard teaching methodology. Some students have indicated that their primary motivation to learn English is career- and communication-oriented (e.g. they would like to help foreign patients in their expected careers as nurses). Others have indicated that they have little motivation to learn English.

3.2 The Advantages

In the context just described, the implementation of a task-based approach offers a number of distinct advantages, which I will discuss in this section with reference to a specific example of how TBLT concepts have been applied.

3.2.1 Motivation

As discussed in the literature review, an advantage of TBLT is that it affords learners real opportunities to do things with language - opportunities which have a clearly defined outcome, the the successful completion of which is inherently satisfying and motivating. I will illustrate this advantage by describing a listening task sequence, adapted from Grice (2007), that I used with my nursing students. The main task involved having the students listen to a nurse get personal details from a patient and, while listening, complete a patient record form, which was the outcome of the task. Prior to the main listening task, I gave students two pre-tasks. The first was a warm-up listening task that involved students looking at a picture of several patients in a hospital waiting area (Appendix 1), listening to the patients describe their problems, and deciding which patient was speaking. Students compared their answers in small groups, then were allowed to look at the listening script (Appendix 2), and then we checked answers as a whole class. The second was a vocabulary-priming task that consisted of two parts: (1) learners were asked to look at a completed patient record form (Appendix 3) and to identify which patient from the first pre-task was recorded on the form. At this time, learners were also given a Japanese-English glossary (Appendix 3) that listed some the essential words that appeared on the record form and in the listening scripts. Students checked their answers in pairs. (2) Students were asked to look at a list of words (Appendix 3) and to find words and abbreviations in the patient record form with the same meanings. Again, they checked answers in pairs. After completing these pre-tasks, it was time to start the main listening task, which consisted of two parts: (1) Students were asked to look at a blank patient record form (Appendix 4) and to complete the form while listening to a conversation between a nurse and a patient. The recording was played thrice while students listened intently and tried to complete the form. They then checked answers in pairs. (2) Students were asked to listen again and complete the gaps in a number of questions the nurse asks (Appendix 4), again checking answers in pairs, and then as a whole class. Finally, as a post-task activity, students were allowed and encouraged to read the listening script (Appendix 5), to underline the nurse's questions, and to

try to identify and categorize grammatical patterns such as the past simple and past continuous tense. I set this post-task for homework to be looked at next class.

During the first two phases of this sequence most of the students appeared intently focused on successful completion. After the first two phases, while circulating around the classroom, looking at students' record forms, and getting feedback from students, I observed that most students were able to complete the task successfully evidenced by their completed record forms, though some students reported having some difficulty with some unfamiliar words which we then promptly attended to.

In this example and in other experiences of mine of asking these learners to engage meaningfully with listening texts to complete a task prior to asking them to identify and analyze specific language forms, many of my learners have tended to appear highly attentive throughout the task sequence and have indicated a high degree of satisfaction on completion of the task. Also, when encouraged and given freedom and guidance to analyze texts for themselves such as during the post-task above, many of my learners have tended to show a high level of interest. I would therefore agree with Willis and Willis (2011) that this type of activity is effective in helping learners to develop autonomously and in enhancing their motivation.

3.2.3 Rich source of input

Given the very limited exposure to English input outside my classroom in Japan, it is arguably necessary to maximize use of English in the classroom, thus providing learners with as much input as possible. As the learners in my context are mostly false beginners, it is arguably most appropriate, as Ellis (2003) argues, to start with input-based tasks such as the one described in the previous section because they engage learners in meaning-centered activity in a non-threatening way and they help learners develop the proficiency that, later on, can be used in production tasks. When learners are listening to the task instructions, they are exposed to much meaningful input because I give the instructions in English. Also, the listening texts in the previous example are very rich in useful language. There are many words and phrases learners could be asked to identify and underline, for example:

- phrases containing the simple past
- phrases containing the past continuous
- questions designed to elicit personal information

- symptoms
- illnesses or other medical conditions

Furthermore, a task-based approach allows me to provide much teacher-led input and scaffolding that my learners need. For example, by extending the task sequence above, in the following lesson, my learners were given two more blank patient record forms and asked to listen to two other patients' give their details (which I invented) and complete the forms. Once the learners had become more comfortable with completing the form and had become familiar with the essential vocabulary, they were then ready to start producing meaningful output of their own.

3.2.2 Meaningful language use and interaction

If my students are going to learn how to use English to communicate effectively, it is vital that they *use* English as much and as meaningfully as possible in the limited class time (90 minutes per week) that we have together. One of the main reasons for using 'task' as the central unit around which to design and teach a language course is that tasks provide opportunities for meaningful language use and interaction. It is now widely recognized that, contrary to Krashen's (1981) assertion that acquisition is dependent entirely on comprehensible input, opportunities for sustained output are necessary for interlanguage development (Ellis, 2005). The best way to afford learners opportunities to produce sustained output is to ask learners to perform oral and written tasks in pairs or small groups.

To further extend the example above, my learners were subsequently asked to role-play a nurse and patient. The patients had to invent personal details and the nurse's had to make a list of questions to ask the patients. They did this in pairs and then changed roles and partners a number of times.

A good thing about incorporating small group work into a lesson is that both input and output co-occur in oral interaction and 'interaction is not just a means of automatizing existing linguistic resources but also of creating new resources' (Ellis: 2005: 219). Both the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996) and the sociocultural theory of mind (Lantolf, 2000) provide much theoretical support for the view that social interaction creates favorable conditions in which acquisition takes place.

As many proponents of TBLT have argued, the benefits of social interaction are not likely to be reaped unless learners are engaged in the meaning-focused socially interactive pursuit of accomplishing a task, and it is through TBLT that this is possible.

3.3 The Problems

While the implementation of a task-based approach offers some distinct advantages in my context, it also faces some potential problems. In this section I will discuss the main ones and will look at some ways in which each one might be solved.

3.3.1 Traditional Asian philosophy of education

It is commonly discussed that the principal Western concepts of TBLT are radically different from those of the traditional Confucian view of learning and teaching in Asia (e.g. Hu, 2002; Burrows, 2008). The traditional Asian philosophy of education has arguably affected the cognitive development of Asian learners and their reaction to various teaching methods. My learners may have thus developed what Knowles (1982, in Richards and Lockhart, 1994: 60) calls an 'authority-oriented learning style'. Learners with an authority-oriented learning style are said to like and need structure and sequential progression and they prefer the teacher as an authority figure. Such preferences may be at odds with the kind of collaborative, experiential learning identified as desirable for TBLT (Ellis, 2009).

However, Butler (2011) drawing on McKay (2002) cites evidence (e.g. Kubota, 1999; Savignon and Wang, 2003) showing that the stereotypical view of Asian students as passive, shy, and preferring lecture-style instruction does not always accurately portray students in Asia. Furthermore, Adams and Newton (2009) point to evidence (Weaver, 2007) suggesting that, once exposed to task-based teaching, Asian learners can adjust their preferences for learning.

The experience with my nursing class is that some of the students have been hesitant to ask me questions and actively participate in group work, though many of the students have indicated a preference for pair- and group work and have not been reluctant to participate and ask questions. My experience suggests that Asian learners can indeed adjust their preferences but that, naturally, some make this adjustment faster than others.

It is often said that a crucial step in the implementation of TBLT is to explain to the students the rationale behind the approach and what is expected of them (e.g. Willis, 1996). Also, as many (e.g. Anderson, 1993; Holliday, 1997) have argued, what is sensible and essential, if CLT is to be successfully implemented, is being sensitive to local cultural norms, needs, and beliefs.

3.3.2 Large Class Size

One of the structural features of my context is that my class size is quite large; implementing a task-based approach with such a large number of learners is arguably no easy task. Large class sizes have been frequently mentioned as a major barrier to implementing CLT in Asian contexts (e.g. Li, 1998; Nishino, 2008). Introducing interactive activities and ensuring that everyone participates can be a challenge, as my own experience indicates. As my learners are mostly false beginners, some have been reluctant to use English during tasks, instead opting to engage in excessive off-task discussions, usually in Japanese.

One way to effectively deal with a large class is to conduct the class in teacher-led mode. One of the pioneers of task-based approaches, N.S. Prabhu, promoted teacher-led methods in his classes in Bangalore in the early 1980s. He used no group- or pair work, and his pupils learned to use English more effectively than their counterparts who were engaged in traditional language lessons (Beretta and Davies, 1985). The greater control of a teacher-led approach can be more effective than providing opportunities for learner talk, especially in the early stages of task-based learning (Willis and Willis, 2007).

3.3.3 Excessive use of L1

In my experience I have observed that some of my learners tend to use Japanese rather than English in order to complete the task at hand. An excessive use of L1 is a frequently voiced concern among teachers in foreign language contexts where students share the same L1. For example, Eguchi and Eguchi (2006) found that, while their college students in Japan enjoyed a project-based lesson (composed of a series of tasks), this was largely due to their excessive use of L1, and as such they found that little English learning resulted.

Fortunately, as Willis and Willis (2007:220) note, their are effective ways of preventing excessive use of L1 and encouraging learners with the same L1 to use English during pair- and group work. For instance, instead of banning the use of L1 outright, teachers can turn it to advantage by using it

in certain cases such as quick translation when an unknown word comes up. Also, while it is generally best to do all the classroom organization and instruction-giving in English, as this creates a very real context and purpose for listening, it is advantageous to check that learners understand the task instructions by asking someone to say what they think they have to do in L1. Another way is to draw up a set of rules for when L1 is allowed to be used by the teacher and by learners. Learners can be asked to do this as a task.

4.0 Conclusion

This paper has looked at a number of advantages and problems of implementing TBLT in my Japanese nursing college context. In sum, TBLT is intrinsically motivating and provides plenty of rich input and opportunities for meaningful language use. To return to our original question of whether adopting TBLT would result in more students being able to communicate effectively in English, it appears that TBLT is on balance advantageous to my students and is therefore worth exploring further. Although it is clear that, in theory, the potential advantages of implementing a task-based approach greatly outweigh the potential problems, which appear far from insuperable in my teaching context, there is clearly a need to combine ongoing needs analysis with materials and program evaluation so as to ensure the course is worthwhile and to demonstrate the efficacy of TBLT. As Evans and Squires (2006: 16) put it, 'without a needs analysis an ESP program is meaningless as ESP courses are by definition designed for specific learners and their needs'. As for program evaluation, Butler (2011: 49) notes that

> the overwhelming majority of studies conducted so far on this topic have employed interviews with teachers and/or classroom observations. In order to understand the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic effectiveness of various adaptations [of TBLT] tried out in Asian contexts, more diverse research approaches are necessary.

According to Sheen (2003: 232), 'what is needed is a return to the long-term comparative studies of the 60s and 70s'. While such large-scale studies of the effectiveness of a task-based course seem a daunting task for the ordinary teacher, one way in which they can be made more manageable is through carefully planned materials evaluations, in the form of task evaluations (Ellis, 1997).

References

Adams, R. and Newton, J. (2009) TBLT in Asia: Constraints and Opportunities. **Asian Journal of English Language Teaching,** 19 1-17.

Anderson, J. (1993) Is a communicative approach practical for teaching English in China? Pros and cons. **System,** 21 471-480.

Beretta, A. and A. Davies (1985) Evaluation of the Bangalore Project **ELTJournal,** 39 (2): 121-127.

Bruton, A. (2005) Task-based language teaching: for the state secondary FL classroom? **Language learning journal,** 31 55-68.

Bruton, A. (2002) From tasking purposes to purposing tasks **ELT Journal,** 56 (3): 280-288.

Burrows, C. (2008) An evaluation of task-based learning (TBL) in the Japanese classroom. **English Today,** 24 (4): 11-16.

Butler, Y.K. (2011) The Implementation of Communicative and Task-Based Language Teaching in the Asia-Pacific Region **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,** 31 36-57.

Corder, S.P. (1967) The significance of learners' errors. **International Review of Applied Linguistics,** 5 161-169.

Eguchi, M. and K. Eguchi (2006) The Limited Effect of PBL on EFL Learners: A Case Study of English Magazine Projects. **Asian EFL Journal,** 8 (3): 207-225.

Ellis, R. (2009) Task-based Language Teaching: sorting out the misunderstandings. **International Journal of Applied Linguistics,** 19 (3): 221-246.

Ellis, R. (2005) Principles of instructed language learning. **System,** 33 209-224.

Ellis, R. (1999) Input-based approaches to teaching grammar: a review of classroom-oriented research. **Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,** 19 64-80.

Ellis, R. (1997) The empirical evaluation of language teaching materials. **ELT Journal,** 51 (1): 36.

Ellis, R. & Heimbach, R. (1997) Bugs and birds: children's acquisition of second language vocabulary through interaction **System,** 25 247–259.

Ellis, R., Tanaka, Y., & Yamazaki, A. (1994) Classroom interaction, comprehension, and the acquisition of L2 word meanings. **Language Learning,** 44 449–491.

Ellis, R. (2003) **Task-based Language Learning and Teaching.** Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Evans, H. and T. Squires (2006) Good practices for ESP programs in Japanese post-secondary institutions. **The Language Teacher,** 30 (9): 15-19.

Grice, T. (2007) **Nursing 1.** UK: Oxford University Press.

Holliday, A. (1997) The politics of participation in international English language education **System,** 25 409-423.

Howatt, A.P.R. (1984) **History of English language teaching.** Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hu, G. (2002) Potential Cultural Resistance to Pedagogical Imports: The Case of Communicative Language Teaching in China **Language, Culture and Curriculum,** 15 (2): 93-105.

Kikuchi, K. & Sakai, H. (2009) Japanese learners' demotivation to study English: a survey study **JALT Journal,** 31 (2): 183–204.

Kozawa, Y. (2010) "Facilitating collaborative dialogues through TBLT", JALT pp. 260-272.

Krashen, S. (1981) **Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning.** Oxford: Pergamon.

Kubota, R. (1999) Japanese culture constructed by discourse: implications for applied linguistic research and ELT **TESOL QUARTERLY,** 33 9-35.

Lantolf, J. (2000) Second language learning as a mediated process **Language Teaching,** 33 79-96.

Li, D. (1998) It's Always More Difficult Than You Plan and Imagine": Teachers' Perceived Difficulties in Introducing the Communicative Approach in South Korea **TESOL QUARTERLY,** 32 (4): 677-703.

Littlewood, W. (2007) Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms **Language Teaching,** 40 243-249.

Long, M. (1996) "The role of the lnguistic environment in second language acquisition" In Ritchie, W. and Bhatia, T. (ed.) **Handbook of second language acquisition** San Diego: Academic Press.

Long, M. (1985) "A role for instruction in second language acquisition: task-based language teaching." In Hyltenstam, K. and Pienemann, M. (ed.) **Modelling and Assessing second language acquisition.** Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Loschky, L.C. (1994) Comprehensible input and second language acquisition: What is the relationship? **Studies in Second Language Acquisition,** 16 303-325.

Mackey, A. (1999) Input, interaction, and second language development: an empirical study of question formation n ESL. **Studies in second language acquisition,** 21 557-587.

McKay, S.L. (2002) ***Teaching English as an international language*** **.** UK: Oxford University Press.

Nishino, T. (2008) Japanese secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding communicative language teaching: An exploratory survey. **JALT Journal,** 30 27-51.

Nunan, D. (2006) Task-based language teaching in the Asia context: Defining 'task'. **Asian EFL Journal Quarterly,** 8 (3): 12-18.

Nunan, D. (2004) **Task-based language teaching.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Prabhu, N.S. (1987) ***Second Language Pedagogy .*** Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, J.C. (2006) "**Communicative Language Teaching Today**" In Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C., Lockhart, C. (1996) **Reflective teaching in second language classrooms.** USA: Cambridge University Press.

Samuda, V. & Bygate, M. (2008) **Tasks in Second Language Learning** Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Sato, R. (2010) Reconsidering the Effectiveness and Suitability of PPP and TBLT in the Japanese EFL Classroom **JALT Journal,** 32 (2): 189-201.

Savignon, S. J., and Wang, C. (2003) Communicative language teaching in EFL contexts: Learner attitudes and perceptions **International Review of Applied Linguistics,** 41 223-249.

Sheen, R. (2003) Focus on form - a myth in the making? **ELT Journal,** 57 (3): 225-233.

Shehadeh, A. (2005) "Task-based language learning and teaching: theories and applications" In Edwards, C. and J. Willis (ed.) **Teachers exploring tasks in English language teaching** Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Skehan, P. (1998) **A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning** Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Skehan, P. (1996) "Second language acquisition research and task-based instruction" In Willis, D. and Willis, J. (eds.) **Challenge and change in language teaching** Macmillan.

Swan, M. (2005) Legislation by Hypothesis:
The Case of Task-Based Instruction **Applied Linguistics,** 26 (3): 376-401.

Takimoto, M. (2007) The Effects of Input-Based Tasks on the Development of Learners' Pragmatic Proficiency. **Applied Linguistics,** 30 (1): 1-25.

Weaver, C. (2007) "Willingness to communicate: A mediating factor in the interaction between learners and tasks. " In K. Van den Branden, K. Van Gorp & m. Verhelst (ed.) **Tasks in action: Task-based language education from a classroom-based perspective** Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Press.

Willis, D. (2003) **Rules, Patterns and Words: Grammar and Lexis in English Language Teaching.** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Willis, D. (1996) "Introduction" In Willis, D. and Willis, J. (eds.) **Challenge and Change in Language Teaching** Macmillan.

Willis, D. and J. Willis. (2011) Task-based learning and learner motivation **On Task,** 1 (1): 4.

Willis, D. and J. Willis. (2009) Task-based language teaching: some questions and answers. **The Language Teacher,** 33 (3): 3-8.

Willis, D. and J. Willis. (2001) "Task-based language learning" In R. Carter and D. Nunan (ed.) **The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages**
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Willis, D. and Willis, J. (2007) **Doing Task-based Teaching.** UK: Oxford University Press.

Willis, J. (1996) ***A framework for task-based learning .*** London: Longman.

Appendix 1

Patients in a hospital waiting area

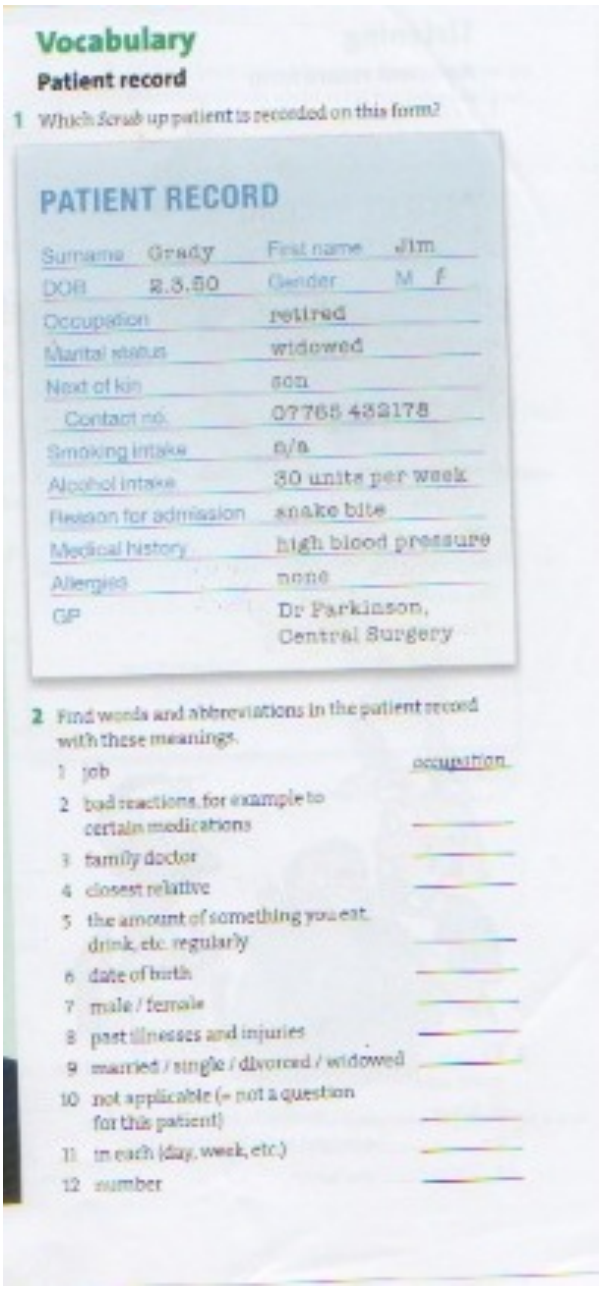
Appendix 2

Pre-task Listening script - Scrub up

1. I was at a party, and one of my friends gave me a little white tablet. I'd had a few drinks and I was feeling good, and I took it, even thought I didn't know what it was. It made me feel, like, really weird. I could see and hear really strange things, and it scared me. I still don't feel normal today and I'm worried.
2. It's not due until next month, but when I was washing up this morning there was a little blood. It worried me. Then I got these pains.
3. I was working high up on a ladder. My foot slipped and I fell. I hit my head but there is no blood and I don't feel too bad.
4. I was walking by the river and I think I stepped on it and it bit me. I don't know what type it was but it was long and silver with a black head.
5. I was looking in the mirror and I saw this big spot on my face. I checked it on the internet and I'm sure I've got cancer. Do you think I'm going to die?

Appendix 3

Pre-task vocabulary priming - Patient record



Vocabulary

Patient record

1 Which *Scrub up* patient is recorded on this form?

PATIENT RECORD

Surname Grady	First name Jim
DOB 2.3.50	Gender M / F
Occupation	retired
Marital status	widowed
Next of kin	son
Contact no.	07765 432178
Smoking intake	n/a
Alcohol intake	30 units per week
Reason for admission	snake bite
Medical history	high blood pressure
Allergies	none
GP	Dr Parkinson, Central Surgery

2 Find words and abbreviations in the patient record with these meanings.

1 job — occupation
2 bad reactions, for example to certain medications
3 family doctor
4 closest relative
5 the amount of something you eat, drink, etc. regularly
6 date of birth
7 male / female
8 past illnesses and injuries
9 married / single / divorced / widowed
10 not applicable (= not a question for this patient)
11 in each (day, week, etc.)
12 number

Appendix 3 (continued)

English-Japanese word list

allergy	アレルギー
date of birth	出生年月日
fatal	致命的
female	女性
gender	生の区分、ジェンダー
general practitioner, GP	一般医
intake	摂取
male	男性
marital status	夫婦関係の状態
medical treatment	加療
medical history	既往歴
not applicable, n/a	非適用
number, no.	ナンバー
prescription	処方
registration	登録する
relative	親戚
waiting room	控室

Appendix 4

A patient record form

Listening

A patient record form

1 Listen to the nurse get personal details from a patient. As you listen, complete the form.

PATIENT RECORD

Surname .....
First name .....
Gender M F
DOB .....
Place of birth .....
Occupation .....
Marital status .....
Next of kin .....
Contact no. .....
Smoking intake .....
Alcohol intake .....
Reason for admission .....
Family history
☐ mental illness ☐ tuberculosis
☐ diabetes ☐ HIV/AIDS

2 Listen again and complete these questions that the nurse asks.

1 What _____ you?
2 _____ date of birth?
3 _____ you born?
4 _____ married?
5 _____ smoke?
6 _____ do you smoke a _____?
7 _____ allergic to _____?
8 Do any of your _____ family _____ from any of the following ...?

Speaking

1 Student As work together in pairs. Student Bs work together in pairs. You are going to play the role of a patient admitted to hospital. Invent the following details.

- full name
- allergies
- occupation
- next of kin
- family history
- date and place of birth
- smoking and alcohol intake
- marital status
- reason for admission
- medical history

2 Student A – you are the nurse. Ask Student B, the patient, questions to complete the patient record below.

3 Now change roles.

PATIENT RECORD

Surname .....
First name .....
Gender M F
DOB .....
Place of birth .....
Occupation .....
Marital status .....
Next of kin .....
Contact no. .....
Smoking intake .....
Alcohol intake .....
Reason for admission .....
Medical history .....
Family history .....

Appendix 5

Main task - Listening script - A patient record form

M=Mustafa, N=nurse

N: Mustafa, isn't it?
M: Yes, that's right.
N: So, what happened to you?
M: I was working on a ladder. It was raining and I slipped and fell.
N: Did you hit your head?
M: Yes. I saw stars and felt sick at first. But now it's OK.
N: I see. You may have concussion. First, I'll take down your details and fill in this form.
So, what's your surname?
M: It's Hussein
N: Can you spell that for me?
M: H-U-double S-E-I-N
N: What's your occupation?
M: I'm a painter.
N: Right. What's your date of birth?
M: First of the ninth, eighty-two.
N: One-nine-eighty-two...and where were you born?
M: Karachi, Pakistan.
N: What's your marital status?
M: Sorry?
N: Are you married?
M: No, I'm single.
N: And do you have a contact telephone number for your next of kin?
M: 07709-401229 - It's my brother, Yusuf.
N: Do you smoke?
M: Yes.
N: How many do you smoke a day?
M: Twenty a day.
N: Uh huh. Do you drink?
M: No.
N: Right. Are you allergic to anything?
M: No.
N: Now, family history. Do any of your close family suffer from any of the following - mental illness?
M: No.
N: Diabetes?
M: My mother's parents are both diabetic.
N: Maternal grandparents...diabetes. Tuberculosis?
M: No.
N: HIV / AIDS?
M: No.