School of Education

Developing Fully-online TBLT for Customer Relation Skills in a University in Thailand: From Needs Analysis to Evaluation

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Declaration

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

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

Human Ethics

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – updated March 2014. The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00262), Approval Number #HRE2019-0765

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Abstract

This hybrid-model thesis aims to address four questions: (1) What English tasks do Thai students need to be able to complete in their lives and careers after graduation from university? (2) Can these needs be met through fully-online instruction? (3) How can learners' engagement in online TBLT be facilitated? and (4) Does fully-online TBLT work in producing interactive L2 performance ability? Four studies, in response to each question, were conducted:

Study 1: The Customer Service Needs of English for International Communication Majors at a University in Thailand: A Task-based Needs Analysis

A Task-Based Needs Analysis (TBNA) was conducted for English for International Communications (EIC) majors at a university in Thailand. The TBNA consisted of cycles of data collection, each drawing on multiple sources and methods, to identify the occupational needs of EIC majors. These include (1) a document analysis, (2) semi-structured interviews with graduates and managers, (3) follow-up interviews with managers, (4) a means analysis, (5) a confirmatory survey, and (6) an analysis of target discourse (ATD). The study outcomes demonstrate how TBNA can provide a basis for designing task-based instructional modules and assessment procedures to better address the future occupational needs of learners within the tourism industry in Thailand. In addition, the study illuminates the nature of Thai learners' EFL needs and provides a heuristic for TBNAs in other contexts where needs-based instruction is beneficial.

Study 2: Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand

This case study demonstrates how a fully-online TBLT course incorporating interactive oral communication tasks was implemented in a university in Thailand using the Google Meet platform. The example module discussed focuses on one task type, 'Giving Directions', which was identified based on a task-based needs analysis as a critical task type for English for International Communication majors going into the travel and tourism industry in Thailand. The case study will provide a model for designing, implementing and assessing fully-online TBLT. The digitalized task materials to be used for teachers are also displayed.

Study 3: "Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students"

This study investigates the impact of using a criterion-referenced goal-tracking system on task engagement. The study was conducted during a fully-online TBLT program that consisted of 24 task performances of an interactive task type, Giving Directions, sequenced from less to more complex. Seventy-eight first-year English for International Communication majors at a university in Thailand completed the 6-hour TBLT module in either one of two groups: 1) Goal-tracking, which required learners to reflect on whether they had met pre-determined criteria for successful task performance, and 2) Non-goal-tracking, which required learners to reflect on their performance without the provision of any performance criteria. To determine the impact of Goal-tracking on task engagement, task performances before and after the module were analyzed for indicators of Engagement in Language use (ELU) and included words and turns produced (behavioral engagement), backchannels (social engagement), and negotiation of meaning sequences (cognitive engagement). A multivariate analysis revealed that learners significantly improved in ELU after completion of

the TBLT module regardless of group. However, while Goal-tracking resulted in significantly more negotiation of meaning sequences (cognitive engagement), Non-goal-tracking did not. Results are discussed in terms of how Goal-tracking within a TBLT course might be implemented to improve task engagement.

Study 4: The Impact of Fully Online TBLT on Learners' Task Outcomes: Unhitching the 'Linguistic Caboose' from Task-based Assessment

This study investigated the impact of fully-online TBLT based on PTP framework (Lambert, 2022, 2024) on learners' task outcomes which are to Criterion-referenced Assessment post-test scores. It also investigates the linguistic change that occurred through the performance of an online interactive task deemed critical to learners' occupational needs based on a task-based needs analysis (TBNA). The study was conducted at a university in Bangkok, Thailand. The incoming cohort of 78 English for International Communication (EIC) majors completed a six-day TBLT module on the task type, 'Giving Directions'. A Criterion-referenced Assessment of learners' ability to perform the task was given before and after the module was implemented. The treatment consisted of interactive role-play tasks interspersed with input-based (listening and reading) versions of the task that exposed learners to model performances created based on an analysis of target discourse (ATD). Group level gains on the Criterion-referenced Assessments indicated that learners increased significantly in their ability to complete the task based on non-linguistic performance criteria (p<.001) with a small effect size (d=.4). In terms of change in language use, qualitative comparison of pre-and post-tests of two groups of student samples including four CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) and four CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate) learners, based on each criterion and each test, provide evidence of learner's abilities to pick up linguistic and pragmatic skills through task performance.

The thesis provides EFL teachers and course designers in Thailand with descriptions of real-world tasks, the types of discourse they necessitate, and criteria of success as bases for designing online TBLT tasks. It also provides a model of how these tasks can be incorporated effectively into developing customer service skills instruction in Thailand and provides evidence of how these tasks function in terms of learners' engagement and task performance.

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We acknowledge that Curtin University works across hundreds of traditional lands and custodial groups in Australia, and with First Nations people around the globe. We wish to pay our deepest respects to their ancestors and members of their communities, past, present, and to their emerging leaders. Our passion and commitment to work with all Australians and peoples from across the world, including our First Nations peoples are at the core of the work we do, reflective of our institutions' values and commitment to our role as leaders in the Reconciliation space in Australia.

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List of Abbreviations

ATD	Analysis of Target Discourse
ATT	Analysis of Target Tasks
BCs	Backchanellings
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIC	English for International Communication
ELT	English Language Teaching
ELU	Engagement in Language Use
FSOs	American Foreign Service Officers
GT	Goal-tracking
ISLA	Instructed Second Language Acquisition
L2	Second Language
LGC	Learner-generated Content
LRE	Language Related Episodes
MMORPGs	Massive-multiplayer Online Role-playing Games
NA	Needs Analysis
NGT	Non-goal-tracking
NoM	Negotiation of Meaning Sequences
ONET	Ordinary National Education Tests
PPP	Present, Practice, Produce
PTP	Pre-Task, Task, Post-Task
RMUTP	Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon
SCMC	Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SSARC	Stabilize, Simplify, Automatize, Reconstruct, and Complexify
TBLT	Task-based Language Teaching
TBNA	Task-based Needs Analysis

TGC   Teacher-generated Content

TMTBLT   Technology-mediated Task-based Language Teaching

Chapter 1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the background of the study, including issues regarding English as a foreign language (EFL) instruction at universities in Thailand and the research objectives. A brief overview of the theories regarding instructed second language acquisition (ISLA), task-based language needs analysis (TBNA), task engagement, and criterion-referenced assessment is provided. Finally, the significance of the study and outline of the thesis are presented.

1.1   Background and Research Questions

In Thailand, where English plays a role as a foreign language in both instructional and occupational contexts, English is crucial for Thai people in terms of academic and career advancement and travelling abroad, but not for their day-to-day activities. It is unavoidably seen that Thai people generally have limited opportunities to use English in their daily lives. Even though English is a mandatory subject at primary and secondary levels for Thai students, the English proficiency of Thai students could be more satisfactory (Khamkhien, 2010; Chanaroke & Niemprapan, 2020). Besides, they could only practice English in a classroom setting. In other words, Thai students can be considered as EFL learners, with little exposure to English language input and less opportunity to use English productively outside of the classroom. This applies to the students of the Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon (RMUTP) in Bangkok, Thailand.

The study consists of a curriculum renewal project aimed at providing a practical basis for tertiary-level EFL teachers at RMUTP University to implement TBLT into their lessons and address three current problems in EFL instruction at universities in Thailand: (1) lack of connection between what happens in the classroom and learners' lives outside of the classroom (Phaisarnsitthikarn, 2020), (2) lack of motivation on the part of the Thai students to engage with instructional

activities in English classes (Vibulphol, 2016), and (3) an overemphasis on linguistic accuracy in the curriculum (Noom-ura, 2013) that is pervasive throughout the current goals, materials, methods and assessment practices. Furthermore, online English classes are also the new normal in Thailand and other parts of the world. It is essential that these classes provide the opportunity for meaning-focused (task-based) language use in the curriculum and encourage the learners to be actively engaged in the English instructional activities. These situations raise the following questions:

(1) What English tasks do Thai students need to be able to complete in their lives and careers after graduation from university?

(2) How can these needs be met through fully-online instruction?

(3) How can learners' engagement in online TBLT be facilitated?

(4) Does the fully-online TBLT work in producing interactive L2 performance ability?

In order to answer the four research questions, this *hybrid-model thesis* is consisted of four consequential studies. In response to Research Question 1, the study "The Customer Service Needs of English for International Communication Majors at a University in Thailand: A Task-based Needs Analysis" identifies Thai university students' occupational tasks they need to complete in English and criteria of success in achieving those tasks. To answer Research Question 2, the study "Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand" demonstrates how fully online TBLT was implemented in an instructional context. Regarding Research Question 3, the study "Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students" investigates the impact of using a learner-based goal-tracking system on task engagement. Lastly, concerning Research Question 4, the study "The Impact of Fully Online TBLT on Learners' Task Outcomes: Unhitching the

'Linguistic Caboose' from Task-based Assessment" aims to investigate the linguistic change that occurred through the ability to perform an online interactive task deemed critical to learners' occupational needs based on a task-based needs analysis (TBNA).

1.2 Theoretical Overview

The study covers the Task-based Needs Analysis (González-Lloret, 2014; Long, 2005, 2015) of which the RMUTP students' future occupational needs, the target tasks that they complete in English, and the criteria of success that are used to evaluate their ability to do these tasks effectively and efficiently, are identified. The findings from the TBNA serve as a basis for selecting and sequencing online task-based instructional modules for a customer relations skills course at the university. The demonstration of how the learners' needs were met in fully-online instruction is presented. The Goal-tracking system was then implemented in the module as a factor impacting learners' task engagement.   Finally, the impact of this course is evaluated through the Criterion-referenced Assessment which aims to triangulate whether the project actually works in practice.

1.2.1 Tasks in ISLA

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to a learning process by which individuals acquire any additional language after having acquired a first language. SLA studies focus on the factors affecting the cognitive, social, and affective processes involved in learning a new language. Additionally, Instructed Second Language Acquisition (ISLA) focuses on acquiring a second language through pedagogical activities in a classroom or educational setting (Loewen, 2020), which is also a primary focus of this thesis. ISLA is achieved through systematic

instruction. L2 learners gradually acquire language through carefully planned, meaning-focused pedagogic task sequences reflecting real-life language use.

The notion of 'tasks' has become ubiquitous in L2 teaching and research internationally (e.g., Long, 1985, 2015; Ellis et al., 2020). According to Ellis, Skehan, Li, Shintani & Lambert (2020), Tasks refer to "a meaning-focused pedagogic tool that requires learners to employ their own resources to fill gaps in knowledge and arrive at communicative outcomes" (p.1). Learners acquire language *through* task performance rather than *for* task performance. 'Tasks' in this sense help to protect the psycholinguistic integrity of incidental learning experiences in the L2 classroom (Lambert, 2018). Tasks provide learners with the opportunity to acquire language that is directly in line with their current interlanguage systems. Tasks allow them to draw on their own linguistic resources to meet specific communicative demands of a task type, and in so doing, notice gaps in their current L2 resources and potentially fill those gaps with language to which they are exposed in completing both input-based and output-based versions of the task type (Lambert, 2024). In other words, learners acquire language in line with their internal syllabuses (Long, 2015). However, at a broader level, tasks provide learners with the opportunity for experiential learning by building on their existing interests and knowledge as a basis for intelligent effort, unified activity, and meaningful growth of experience (Dewey, 2013, as cited in Ellis, Skehan, Li, Shintani & Lambert, 2020, Chapter 6) and promote learners' autonomy in maximising their learning (Little, 2016, 2022). Using tasks in L2 instruction might allow learners to bring aspects of their real lives into the classroom and foster a genuine role for the learner in the learning process. The current studies aim to address issues regarding L2 instructional context at RMUTP in Thailand. They investigate how fully online interactive TBLT classes can provide engaging needs-based opportunities for incidental foreign language acquisition.

1.2.2 Task-based Needs Analysis (TBNA)

It has been argued that in contexts such as Thailand, where learners have specific occupational needs for a foreign language, a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) is an essential step in L2 instructional design (Long, 2005, 2015; Ellis & Shintani, 2013; Skehan, 2016). TBNA involves collecting information from multiple sources and methods to serve as a basis for determining what and how L2 learners need to learn (Brown, 2009; Long, 2005). Clearly defining learners' needs can help teachers and course designers set relevant learning objectives as well as develop effective teaching materials and assessments. When learners have specific occupational needs for the target language, needs-based programs can also provide them with a more agentive role in the learning process and help to avoid situations in which instruction is unfocused and results in motivation being lower than normal and graduates leaving language programs with no clear idea of what they have learned or the ability to pull it together for any functional purpose (Lambert, 2010, 2022). Brown (2009) and Long (2005, 2015, 2022), for example, both suggest that language courses should be designed based on a needs analysis to improve instructional transparency, relevance, accountability and learner motivation.

TBNA involves identifying what L2 learners "have to be able to do as a result of the program in order to succeed in their lives and careers after graduation" (Lambert, 2010, p.100). The information obtained from TBNA can close the gap between the classroom and the real world by helping learners and future employers understand how classroom activities parallel real-life situations. In order to be effective for this purpose, however, TBNA data should be collected from specialists or experts in the workplace who have hands-on experience with the actual communicative demands that language users will face (Long, 2005). Furthermore, the triangulation of multiple sources and methods is essential to the validity and reliability of a TBNA (Long, 2005, 2015; Hillman & Long, 2020).

For example, a TBNA study conducted for American Foreign Service Officers (FSOs) working at the US embassy in Japan exemplified how target tasks, sub-tasks, and language discourse were gathered using several sources and methods (Hillman & Long, 2020). The study employed two-step TBNA: (1) identifying target tasks and (2) collecting and analysing target discourse samples. The study initially identified 68 target tasks relevant to FSOs working in Japan. An analysis of target discourse (ATD) was then conducted to analyse the most complex target task, "Delivering a celebration speech in Japanese". Two prototypical models of "Delivering a celebration speech" were proposed for use in input-based pedagogic tasks. The authors point out that TBNA is not only meant to provide a basis for creating ESP courses, materials, and assessments that best fit the learners' needs, but it should allow the identification of target tasks, sub-tasks (steps), and commonalities in language use surrounding the successful performance of target tasks that most relevant to the leaners' real-world situation.

The occupational tasks and social survival tasks (Long, 2005) obtained from the TBNA can serve as a basis for setting goals and objectives of a course, designing pedagogic tasks, and assessing success in performing the tasks. Multiple attempts have been made to understand the English language needs of learners as a basis for organizing L2 instruction (e.g., Gonzalez-Lloret & Nielson, 2015; Hillman & Long, 2020; Jasso-Aguilar, 1999; Kim, Jung, & Tracy-Ventura, 2017; Lambert, 2010; Lu, 2018; Ulla & Winitkun, 2017). TBNAs have also been conducted in Thailand. These include the needs of public bus ticket sellers (Wattanakul & Boonteerarak, 2017), intercultural interpreters (Boonteerarak & Wongnang, 2017) and front-desk receptionists in eight boutique hotels in Bangkok (Chammankit, 2015). Unfortunately, none of these studies has been comprehensive enough to provide a basis for TBLT. Further research is needed to determine: (1) the specific tasks essential to the graduates in key workplace domains (Long, 2005, 2015), (2) the sub-tasks in completing these tasks (Hillman

& Long, 2020), (3) criteria for determining successful completion (Gonzalez-Lloret, 2020; Lambert, 2010; Long, 2015; Robinson, 2011), and (4) the analysis of target discourse on these tasks (Hillman & Long, 2020; Long, 2022).

Given the need to identify Thai university students' occupational English tasks they need to accomplish in the future, Study 1 aims to illuminate the nature of Thai learners' EFL needs as a basis for task-based instruction and assessment. To this end, a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) (Long, 2005, 2015, 2022) was conducted for English for International Communication (EIC) majors at Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon (RMUTP) in Bangkok, Thailand. The TBNA combined multiple sources and methods of data collection to identify the occupational needs of EIC majors based on multiple cycles of data collection from graduates and experts in key areas of job placement. The outcomes of the TBNA provide an empirical basis for designing task-based instructional modules (as demonstrated in Study 2), pedagogic interventions (Study 3) and assessment procedures (Study 4) to better address the future occupational needs of EIC majors for customer service skills within the tourism industry in Thailand.

1.2.3 Task Engagement

According to Hiver et al. (2023), engagement refers to "how actively involved a student is in a learning task and the extent to which that physical and mental activity is goal-directed and purpose-driven" (p.3). As far as communicative language teaching (Ellis, 2003) is concerned, L2 learners' quantity, quality, and form of learners' discourse and participation behaviour could be considered as the indicators of engagement in language learning. Key aspects of engagement in language learning literature are comprised of behavioural aspect (i.e., the qualitative action choices of learners' participation), cognitive aspect (i.e., the learner's sustained mental effort and attention), social

aspect (i.e., affiliation and willingness to participate), and emotional aspect, that is subjective or affective responses of learners during tasks (Baralt et al., 2016; Lambert et al., 2017; Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

Engagement has recently received attention from researchers in the field of pedagogic task performance. According to Philp and Duchesne (2016), task engagement is perceived as a multidimensional construct with behavioral, cognitive, social, and emotional aspects. When it comes to measuring engagement, emotional aspects of engagement (enjoyment, anxiety) are often determined by self-reports (Baralt et al., 2016; Dao & Sato, 2021; Nakamura et al., 2021), behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement have been identified by discourse analytic measures which, taken together, have been referred to as Engagement in Language Use (ELU) (Lambert et al., 2017). The current study adopts the ELU framework to focus on an under-researched task type in task engagement research, an information-transfer task. Furthermore, verbal indicators of the learners' ELU were determined whether online TBLT could facilitate learners' deliberate and active involvement in task performances. To be more specific, Study 3 investigates the impact of a task implementation condition, *Goal-tracking* (see the section below), that involves a post-task reflective practice in which learners evaluate and track their performances in reference to successful task completion criteria.

1.2.4 Goal-tracking

A reflective learning intervention that has been argued to promote task engagement is *Goal-tracking*, or asking learners to evaluate and track their performances on a learning task based on a goal, or a criterion of success, until the goal is attained (Lambert, 2023a). In contrast to other post-task reflection activities (e.g., Dao et al., 2020; Kartchava & Nassaji, 2019; Khezrlou, 2021), Goal-tracking involves repeated interventions, each of which occurs between

performances of the same or similar tasks. In this way, learners can incrementally 'track' improvements in their performance over time. Thus, the temporal aspect of goal-tracking means that learner engagement may build over a series of task performances as they approach their end goal (Ibrahim & Al-Hoorie, 2018; Dörnyei et al., 2015). In the context of TBLT, Long (2015) recommends providing students with task goals that are generated as part of a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) (e.g., performing a greeting, asking for information, confirming directions etc.). Formulating criterion-referenced benchmarks for successful task performance in this way may satisfy students' explicit learning goals to a greater extent than when expectations are based on teachers' or learners' own intuition (e.g., Bocanegra-Valle, 2016; Serafini et al., 2015).

The current study employs a Goal-tracking system to promote the learners' engagement by allowing them to understand the criteria of success on the task and to take an agentive role in reaching their performance to criterion levels. This could be done by having them complete short lists of criteria to evaluate their own task performance (e.g., Stroud, 2017). To determine the impact of Goal-tracking on task engagement, verbal indicators of engagement in language use (ELU) (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Aubrey, 2023) during task performance were collected before and after a TBLT module for a group that participated in Goal-tracking and a group that was given an equal amount of time to reflect on how to improve their own performances. Goal-tracking of this type was found to have a positive impact on performance and engagement as presented in Study 3 of the current study.

1.2.5 Criterion-referenced Assessment

In TBLT, the primary goal is to develop learners' ability to use language for meaningful communication. Needs-driven L2 tasks were designed to simulate authentic communication situations, and learners were encouraged to actively

engage in the task, using their language skills to achieve the criteria of success in performing the tasks. In a TBLT program, one primary concern regarding its achievement is whether the students were equipped with the abilities they need to complete L2 tasks successfully. Those L2 tasks are retrieved from a TBNA, after which they are classified and modified into pedagogic tasks, which are then be included in the task module. When it comes to TBLT assessment, Long (2015) recommended task-based performance tests are tests that assess student abilities as a result of the course. One aspect of task-based performance tests in TBLT is involved criterion-referenced. Criterion-referenced Assessment is an approach to assessment that focuses on measuring learners' performance against predetermined criteria rather than comparing their performance to that of other learners. The Criterion-referenced Assessment aims to "determine whether each student can or cannot perform the target tasks at a satisfactory level, i.e., to criterion" (p. 331). This type of assessment mainly emphasises task completion with explicit benchmarks of behavioural outcome, as opposed to assessing linguistic accuracy. In other words, Criterion-referenced assessment in TBLT involves assessing learners' performance regarding task objectives and quantitative measures (e.g., pass or fail, did or did not).

The current study relied on the aspect of assessing learners' achievement in TBLT based on the Criterion-referenced Assessment. Study 4 of this research determines changes in Criterion-referenced Assessment scores of the learners as well as language changes that occurred during their task performances as a result of online TBLT.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Educational institutions in Thailand and worldwide have mandatorily turned in-person instruction into a complete online learning experience due to the COVID-19 crisis. The challenge faced by foreign language teachers is not

only to provide effective lessons for learners in a digital environment but also to encourage the learners to engage in online tasks productively. In particular, listening, reading, and writing skills are anticipated the most in foreign/second language online classes, as opposed to speaking skills (González-Lloret, 2020). This case study exhibits how TBLT could be implemented in fully online speaking lessons for the "*Giving directions*" task, elicited from a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) (Long, 2015; Long & Hillman & Long, 2020) and how the tasks were sequenced and evaluated.

Practically, this study is intended to contribute to the methodological directives in the design of needs-based occupational language courses that could be beneficial for both physical and online TBLT instructions. Study 1 demonstrates how TBNA provided essential information for designing foreign language instruction at a university in Thailand. It supports Long's (2005, 2015, 2022) claim that triangulation of multiple sources and methods is essential for TBNA, and that multiple cycles of data collection are beneficial for designing foreign language instruction (Lambert, 2010). It has also contributed to the existing TBNA research, especially in consensus building on target tasks, criteria of success and target discourse that might lead to a sound foundation for customer service task-based instructional design. Additionally, the study presents how criterion-based Goal-tracking can be built into a needs-based program that features criterion-referenced testing. Additionally, Study 3 represents an empirical study that demonstrates how learners' engagement could be quantified by using the ELU framework (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Aubrey, 2023).

Theoretically, Studies 3 and 4 in this thesis contribute to the TBLT literature by pointing out a potentially valuable means of implementing tasks to improve learners' engagement. Specifically, the study examined the positive effects that the Goal-tracking system, as opposed to simple reflective practices and varies from gamification (to be discussed in Chapter 6: Study 3), has on

enhancing the L2 learners' engagement. It is argued that learners may need concrete specific goals to guide their behaviour and this can be done through an analysis of target discourse for a chosen task (see Chapter 4: Study 1) as part of a task-based needs analysis (Long, 2022). Moreover, the approach to task sequencing of the thesis (to be discussed in Chapter 2) is based on Robinson's (2010) SSARC model, but the pedagogy is based on a PTP (Pre-Task, Task, Post-Task) framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024) showed positive impact on learners' task performance indicated by criterion-referenced testing, in completing interactive information transfer task type. In sum, the approach to Goal-tracking used in the present study represents a relatively unobtrusive intervention into task sequences and aligns well with Criterion-referenced Assessment (Long, 2015).

1.4 Thesis Outline

This thesis consists of nine chapters. Following the Introduction chapter, Chapters 2 and 3 review the literature regarding TBLT course design and learner engagement. The thesis comprises four studies that answer the four research questions. The included studies representing each chapter are as follows.

- Chapter 4: Study 1 "The Customer Service Needs of English for International Communication Majors at a University in Thailand: A Task-Based Needs Analysis"
- Chapter 5: Study 2 "Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand"
- Chapter 6: Study 3 "Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students"
- Chapter 7: Study 4 "The Impact of Fully Online TBLT on Learners' Task Outcomes: Unhitching the 'Linguistic Caboose' from Task-based Assessment"

Additionally, Chapter 8 discusses the results based on the research questions. Lastly, Chapter 9 concludes the thesis by summarising key findings and implications.

Chapter 2. TBLT Course Design

This chapter will discuss varying approaches to task complexity and task sequencing. The intention is to provide for both the historical background and evolution of these two sub-topics, and how they lead to the approach used in this thesis. There are varying approaches to both task complexity and task sequencing. Ultimately, this thesis uses much of the background provided by Long in combination with Robinson's complexity model. Proper task sequencing would allow a course designer to construct an end-to-end syllabus. This is the end-goal for this thesis, building a fully-online TBLT course.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an instructional approach that is devoted to implementation of meaning-based, communicative tasks as the unit of analysis for identifying language learning needs, setting curriculum goals, developing language classroom activity, and assessing language competencies in an ESL/EFL instructional context (Long, 2015). The review in this chapter ends with Robinson's SSARC (stabilize, simplify, automatize, reconstruct and complexify) model. This was the model followed during the execution of this thesis. According to Brown (2009) and Long (2015), language programs should be designed based on instructional transparency, relevance, accountability, and learner motivation. In order to do so, an essential step is to identify the needs of language learners by conducting a Task-Based Needs Analysis (TBNA) (Long, 2005, 2015, 2022). Further, one considerable aspect of employing a TBLT approach in EFL classrooms is how the information obtained from TBNA could be used as a basis for selecting and sequencing task-based L2 syllabuses. In other words, how can course designers and curriculum developers go from needs-analysis to TBLT task design? This chapter examines the area of task-based course design from the perspective of task complexity, which is used as a basis for task sequencing (Long, 2015, Robinson, 2010). It then further examines details of sequencing within the scope of Skehan (1996, 1998) and Robinson's

(2010) approach. The goal is to show the background of TBLT course design and, ending with Robinson's SSARC model, how it guided thesis development.

2.1 Long's Task Sequencing

Long's task sequencing approach is a primary basis for the task sequencing in this thesis. Long takes a somewhat varied approach to task sequencing than has been implied so far, or seen in other models such as Robinson's SSARC model. For Long (1985, 2015) task complexity takes on a secondary role in task sequencing, in a sense. Actually, task complexity is the critical factor in sequencing, but task importance, by virtue of influencing task selection, could be viewed by one as more important. That is, if a task is included on a first draft list when building a syllabus or module, and is then removed due to lack of importance, task importance has effectively overridden task complexity. Still, once the task selection is complete, task complexity is the main factor in determining task sequence. In fact, Long only has two criteria for sequencing. As such, task complexity remains critical, but it is used secondarily to task importance in the sense that task importance is prioritised for the sake of initial task selection. Long begins from a different point than most researchers in terms of defining tasks. The Long derivation of tasks is centered around real-world activities. For example, in this thesis, following Long's approach, the real-world target task of giving directions is used. Long establishes a range of tasks based on the subject matter at hand that the curriculum is addressing. Again, note that the thesis research does precisely the same, as seen in Chapter 4 (Study 1). Actually, establishing a task list is a two-step process in Long's three-step task selection process. Long first recommends establishing a broad-based list of tasks based on the learners' needs, known as Task-based Needs Analysis (TBNA). This needs-based approach is critical to Long's process. From the first list, the second step is to expand the list to include sub-tasks within each target task. One can already see where this is headed pedagogically- *Pedagogic tasks*, as each

target task could yield its own module within the curriculum and syllabus design. The third step in Long's task selection process is actually somewhat of a step backwards in order to refine the task list. That is, the list, after expanding it, is now reduced in order to remove any tasks that may only apply to a sub-group of learners. The intent is to direct the tasks most broadly for all learners. At this stage, the tasks may also be defined more broadly, or in the verbiage previously established, it could be described as defining the tasks more abstractly – *Task types*, categorised groups of target tasks. By removing the tasks limited to sub-groups of learners there is some aspect of reducing learner-based factors. Reducing these learner factors is a fundamental concept in most research discussed, especially regarding task complexity. It's not evident that this is Long's purpose here. Rather, it is just intended that tasks apply to all learners. It is merely an interesting side effect which helps conform Long's approach with that of others within this spectrum of research. Once the task selection is complete, they can be designed within a pedagogic fashion and prepared for sequencing. This is the essential work of Chapters 4 and 5 in this thesis. Chapter 4 follows Long's approach closely for task selection, while Chapter 5 takes the next step towards task design, in online TBLT in particular. Note that the task selection for the research is based on a TBNA to identify the most critical task within the service industry in Thailand. "Giving directions" is the task type that the thesis research uses.

Task sequencing is where Long's approach varies a bit. The focus isn't simply on task complexity. To be clear, task complexity is, in fact, the only factor considered in task sequencing within each pedagogic module. However, the module sequence itself is affected by task importance, just as task selection is influenced by task importance. In establishing the task list utilizing a needs-based approach, it is likely that the course designer either already has or easily can establish the relative need that each task holds for the learners' success. This is the basis of Long's approach to task sequencing, at least at the module level. The

more critical task modules are placed first in the sequence, while the more tailored or less critical modules are placed later in the sequence. The modules may be categorized by task type. The target task sequencing is where the task complexity dictates. The task types are then ordered, within their respective modules, in accordance with their task complexity. Long (2005, 2015, 2022) also suggests an analysis of target discourse (ATD) to create samples of prototypical language to be used in tasks that provide target language input in TBLT courses (see further discussion in Chapter 4 of this thesis). According to Prabhu (1987), the focus for building tasks simply relies on cognitive demands. However, Long uses a real-life approach to establishing needs-based tasks. The result, as can be seen here, is that this can impact the sequencing as well, because Long extends the needs analysis into the sequencing. Chapter 4 – Study 1, Customer Service Needs of English Majors at a University in Thailand: A Task-Based Needs Analysis, in association with this thesis, follows Long's idea of identifying critical task types, target tasks, and steps involved in task completion which are important to a group of specific L2 language-needs learners. Prior to establishing that, however, as noted above, from Long (2005, 2015, 2022), the issue of task complexity must be addressed. This issue is critical in formulating the task sequencing, and is addressed in the following section.

2.2 Task Complexity

As the purpose of L2 learning depends a great deal on the needs of the learners, TBLT studies predominantly determined learner needs and related instructional objectives in relationship to L2 syllabus designs (Long, 2005, 2015; Long & Robinson, 1998). Traditionally, synthetic approaches (Chomsky, 1957) influenced language syllabus design have mainly focused on "what linguistic units (grammatical structures or words) a 'typical' L2 learner may need to know" (Malicka et al., 2019, pp.2). On the other hand, as Baralt et al. (2014) posit, it has

widely been seen that a number of language modules are sequenced according to the aspect of linguistic complexity. To date, there are a number of promising evidence-based proposals in relationship to task sequencing in L2 programs, albeit still no widely agreed-upon criteria or steps that we can claim to be most effective for task sequencing (Baralt et al., 2014; Lambert & Robinson, 2014; Malicka, 2018). The next section describes systematic approaches and hypothesises regarding TBLT task design.

In the early 1980s the idea of task complexity began to come into focus. Brown et al. (1984) proposed that the level of abstractness of a task could be considered as criteria for task sequencing. The proposal introduced the notions of "simple vs. complex" in sequencing instructional tasks in that dimensions of complexity increase, from simple to more complex, in the following order: static relationships between fewer number of objects (e.g., describing relationships among *X* and *Y*), static relationships between greater number of objects (e.g., describing relationships among *X*, *Y*, and *Z*), dynamic relationships (e.g., describing subsequent events or dynamic processes), and abstract notions (e.g., argumentation or justification). For example, in a task for giving directions, if one were to be asked for directions from Point A to Point B, and the trip can be achieved through one mode of transportation, giving these directions would be a rather simple task. On the other hand, if instead directions are requested from Point A to Point D, requiring stops and changes of transportation mode at Points B and C, this would be a more complex task. To be clear, it would still fall within the sphere of a simplistic task, as there are significant constraints on the answers and it isn't at all abstract. However, it would fall on the more complex end of the simplistic spectrum. Figure 2.1 presents Brown et al. s' (1984) proposal for task sequencing. This task sample is given, as this is the task example explored in the thesis.

Figure 2.1

Brown et al. s' (1984) proposal for task sequencing.

Simple <------------------------------------ > More Complex

Static relationship (fewer objects) — Static relationship (more objects) — Dynamic relationship — Abstract notions
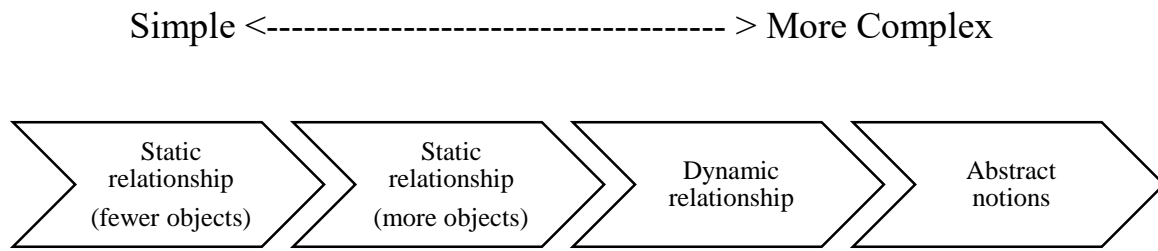
Later, Prabhu (1987) suggested basing sequencing criteria on task types. He conducted the Communicational Teaching Project, also known as the Bangalore Project by implementing task complexity regarding "a reasonable challenge" (pp. 55) on the part of a speaker. According to Prabhu (1987), simple information-transfer tasks require a lesser challenge than information transmission tasks that need a higher degree of mental processes (e.g., inferencing and deduction) and they are less so than information gap tasks. Additionally, information gap tasks require a lower level of challenge than reasoning gap tasks while the highest level of challenge presents in opinion gap tasks. It could be argued that Prabhu (1987) and Brown et al. s' (1984) proposals relate to the amount of cognitive effort required by the learner. If the learner is merely conveying information in the task, Prabhu sets forth that this is the simplest task to perform. This is considered low complexity because it is merely relaying of known facts. It does not require the learner to develop their own concepts and ideas. The cognitive effort of required for language production may even be relatively low, as the learner could have source materials to work from. For example, in this thesis a task of "Giving Directions" is presented. In the execution of this task, one can reference a map, which will contain some of the required information. Clearly, there is still considerable language production necessary in such a task (giving turns, directions, distances, etc), but the complexity is

comparatively low in tasks conveying information. Also, conveying information can be thought of a close-ended, discrete task. The learner is asked for a defined piece of information; once successfully provided, the task is closed. The next level of complexity is that of reasoning. This is more complex because it requires the learner to think through logical steps and reach a conclusion, which they then must put into language and convey. Naturally, information would likely be an input into the reasoning, but the learner is providing more than just information itself. Rather, they are utilizing logic to make conclusions, and those conclusions are ultimately what must come through in the language production. In the thesis sample task, the complexity is raised somewhat from simply providing information. The learner must go through some process of reasoning to determine what steps must be taken by the person they are speaking to. The most complex task, according to Prabhu, is that of giving an opinion. With an opinion, while it may well have some basis on information, it is primarily the learner's own unique content. As a result, the cognitive effort for providing an opinion is the most complex. Contrary to conveying information, an opinion is more of an open-ended task, as the answer and the degree of detail provided is largely determined by the learner. There is also more potential for engagement (difference of opinion, for example). Prabhu's hierarchy and the Brown et al. organizational structure for determining complexity are similar. Closed, discrete tasks are simplistic; open-ended tasks require significantly more cognitive effort and are therefore considered to be more complex. Figure 2.2 represents Prabhu's (1987) hierarchy of challenges based on task types, and the work in this these attempts to use a moderate level of complexity given the learners' skill level in the research conducted. As will be shown in Chapter 4 other factors went into the task selection as well. Nonetheless, it does seem to be an appropriate complexity level given the learners involved. The sample task, as noted above, is a combination of providing information along with some degree or reasoning. This would be a low to moderate complexity level on Prabhu's hierarchy.

Figure 2.2

Prabhu's (1987) hierarchy of challenges in task sequencing.
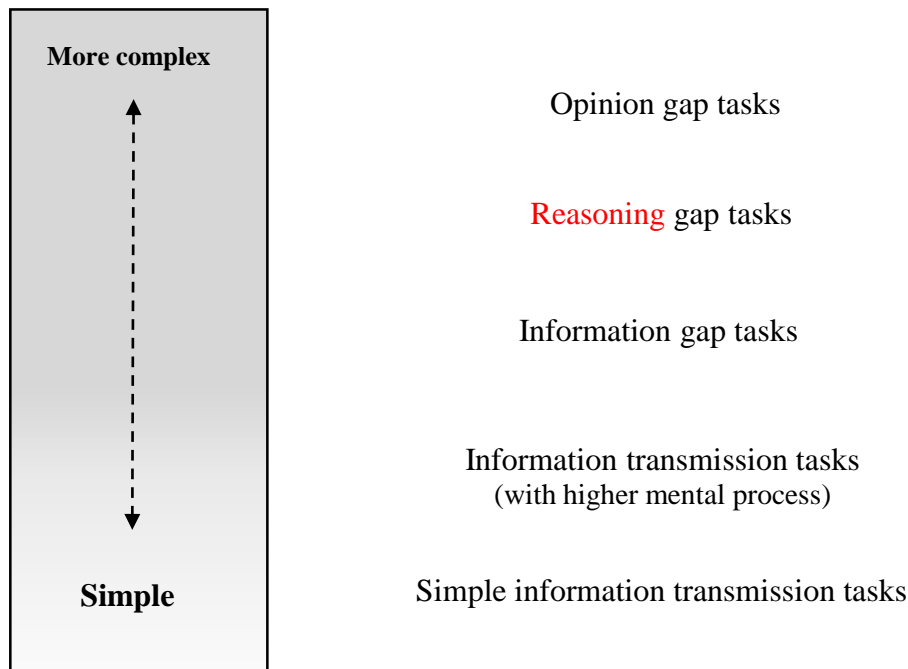
Development of objective criteria are still necessary in order quantify task complexity, in order to proceed to task sequencing. Candlin (1987) was one of the first to try to establish parameters in a more objective manner. Though Candlin did this explicitly for task sequencing, which will be addressed in the next section, this section will close with the examination of Candlin's criteria for sequencing, and then some variations thereof by other researchers. The reason for this is because most of Candlin's criteria are, indeed, related to task complexity. Candlin came up with six criteria for gauging task complexity. They are not necessarily in order of importance. The six criteria are as follows:

1) Cognitive load: If the task is abstract, it requires more thinking, more cognitive effort, and more cognitive load on the part of the language learner (cf. Brown et al, Prabhu).

2) Communicative stress: The situational stress of the task with regard to the communicative process, such as the learner's task unfamiliarity or the number of individuals involved.

3) Code complexity and interpretive density: This is more related to reading and writing. For example, the language and linguistic tools used within expository and formal essay and argumentative writing might be produced at a higher learning level than is common in standard conversational English language vocabulary and linguistics.

4) Content continuity: The continuity between the in-classroom task and how it would transfer to the real world target tasks. If it would convert poorly, it would mean that more efforts would be needed or the results aren't very beneficial.

5) Process continuity: This criterion is about the learner's preference, opinion and comfort with the sequencing of the tasks. If the learner is not properly prepared for the next task within the pedagogical plan, it is not likely to be successful.

6) Particularity and generalizability: This relates to the learner's lack of knowledge or familiarity with the situation that the task presents (not the environmental factors).

Other researchers have also developed their own task complexity approaches. Both Brindley (1987) and Nunan (1989) have developed their own proposals. In Brindley the determination isn't based solely on the task (much like "process continuity" from Candlin), but also dependent on the learners themselves. Brindley breaks the assessment into three different factors: learner, task, and text factors. The value behind Brindley is that it is, conceptually, a very natural assessment. The learner factor, for example, is precisely what one might expect. It is the assessment of the learner's traits in approaching the task, from both the psychological aspect of confidence to the functional aspect of the

learner's prior knowledge and experience. The task factor element is similar to task complexity, being the cognitive demand of the task. Brindley does include more structural elements within the task factor assessment, however. For example, temporal limitations, background information provided, and the numbers of steps for completion of the task are also considered, along with the cognitive requirements. Finally, the task factors assessment is somewhat similar to #6 in Candlin's criteria, where the familiarity with a task is considered. However, once again, Brindley expands into the structural elements by including the length of the task within this proposal. The overlap with Candlin is quite evident here, as it relates to cognitive requirements and task familiarity. Although this discussion describes the early stages of task complexity research and understanding, it remains relevant to this thesis. The research in Chapter 6 presents the execution of a full TBLT module. Just as one example, the Brindley (1987) research referenced above mentions the number of steps for task completion as a measure of task complexity. Number of steps is, in fact, one of the factors for determining task complexity within the thesis research.

Nunan (1989) is similar to Brindley in that there are three factors involved. Nunan, however, defines these factors differently, as input, learner, and procedural factors. Nunan's examination of these factors digs far deeper than Candlin and Brindley into some of the details of the task. For example, when examining the input factors Nunan examines various linguistic details such as vocabulary and grammatical complexity as well as the complexity of the sentence structures. When dealing with spoken tasks, Nunan also considers the speed, clarity and understandability (including number of participants) within the spoken portion of the task. Moving to the learner factor, Nunan's definition varies from Brindley's within some of the specific details, but the two are largely similar and vary from Candlin in the same manner. Both Nunan and Brindley consider the psychological aspects such as motivation and confidence, which Candlin does not

significantly consider in analyzing the learner. Finally, Nunan's third item is the procedural factor. Nunan uses this to blend the cognitive requirements with the actual difficulty of the task itself. For clarity, the difficulty of the task within the procedural factor does not overlap with the input factor. The input factor is more intended to analyze the linguistics and English proficiency level used within the task. The procedural factor, however, is more concerned with the intended difficulty contained in the construction of the task. It considers issues such as the length of the task and the number of steps required, how involved the instructions are and the amount of background and supporting information that are provided to assist in guiding the learner. This approach by Nunan is intriguing, as it can be viewed in both a positive and negative light. Nunan is the only one to combine the cognitive requirements with the factors involving task difficulty. These two are logically related and Nunan appears correct in uniting them into one procedural factor. On the other hand, this entire conversation begins from the baseline of the cognitive demands. This is the most basic issue in determining task complexity. As such, one could argue that it should be a standalone item, not blended in with other factors within a broader factor, as Nunan does here. In fact, Section 2.1 discusses Long's task sequencing approach, in which learner factors are reduced. Nunan's approach is still relevant to the thesis approach, as it contains many of the same task-related aspects as in Brindley (1987). As discussed in the Brindley section above, some of these task-related criteria, such as number of steps involved for task completion, are used in the determination of task sequencing in the thesis' TBLT module.

Regardless of which approach one prefers or agrees with, it is evident that there is continuity between the Candlin (1987), Brindley (1987) and Nunan (1989) approaches. The differences are largely organizational, as discussed above with regard to Nunan incorporating cognitive demand into the task structure factor. There certainly is not a perfect one-to-one correlation between

the three approaches, as Brindley and Nunan consider psychological approaches that Candlin does not. Candlin, on the other hand, appears to be the most concerned with the real-world application of task sequencing. This is yet another aspect that is drawn on for the thesis. Chapter 4, regarding task selection follows an entire procedure (interviews and surveys) to focus on real-world tasks. Thus, Candlin's approach may be more applicable to the thesis research. Nonetheless, there is significant overlap between the three researchers' work. All three, necessarily, incorporate the most significant factor, cognitive demand, which is simply the amount of thinking and mental processing required by the learner to complete the task. All three also include an analysis of the difficulty of the task presented. Once again, there are differences in the details, as Brindley and even more so Nunan bring structural aspects of the task into consideration. However, on the broader level, all three take a similar approach in the examination of the task itself. In summary, all three proposals for task complexity have relatively similar approaches and are applicable to the thesis determination of task sequencing, which is borne out of task complexity.

2.3 Task Sequencing

Task complexity is the primary factor in task sequencing for a course designer. As noted earlier in this chapter, it is a natural progression within the pedagogy framework inside of TBLT that a syllabus evolves from more simplistic to more complex as one moves through the curriculum. However, unfortunately, the three proposals from Candlin (1987), Brindley (1987) and Nunan (1989) do not provide a flawless approach to task sequencing. There are two primary problems that come up in association with the task complexity approaches. The first is related to cognitive demand. The problem with the cognitive demand factor in this prior research is that it is mostly a subjective assessment. It involves significant presumptions. A learner may have a higher skill level in one language

area than another. As a result, unless the instructor (or whomever conducts the complexity assessment) has full knowledge of learners' capabilities, the assumption will, perhaps wrongly, be incorporated into the complexity assessment. The second problem with these assessments is that they require knowledge of the learner that may not be available at the time of task sequencing. It is true that in a formal educational environment (e.g., a school or university setting) in which courses are also scheduled in sequence, there can be some expectation of certain levels of knowledge and experience on the part of the learner. Beyond that formal educational setting, however, one may be faced with a situation wherein there is no a priori knowledge of the learner's ability and experience. The research in this thesis does however, presume a classroom setting. Its specific purpose is to argue in favor of a fully online TBLT curriculum intended for service sector students at a university in Thailand. This means that there are likely prerequisite courses that learners have been required to successfully complete and, as such, there is an expectation of the learners' knowledge and skill level entering the TBLT course in question. As a result, this issue with task complexity (insufficient knowledge of the learners' ability) is not relevant to the thesis research. However, as a general discussion of task complexity that is not necessarily going to be the case in all circumstances. As such, considering learner factors within the task complexity assessment may not even be plausible, as that information may be lacking. It may be a wiser approach, and frankly, a simpler one, to separate these factors out more distinctly. This will be examined further in this sub-section.

It is helpful to start with the approach put forth by Skehan (1996, 1998, 2009). Skehan largely adopts from the previously discussed three approaches, specifically Nunan (1989) and Candlin (1987), but Skehan does make an effort to streamline the factors in a way that makes the factors more functional for task sequencing, especially within the TBLT framework. There are two primary

concepts within Skehan's approach: *Three-way Distinction* and *Trade-off Hypothesis*. The three-way distinction is essentially Skehan's attempt to redefine the criteria factors from the previous approaches into a more user-friendly, workable system, one which removes, for example, the fact that the assessor of task complexity may not have the necessary knowledge regarding the learner to adopt the Candlin, Brindley or Nunan approaches directly. Skehan also relates the factors to the task outcome or learners' performance as it relates to the learner's development in terms of language complexity, fluency and accuracy. The Skehan approach is not the primary approach utilized in the thesis research. However, as a matter of background understanding, it is valuable to examine. Skehan is building on previous research and moving the understanding of task sequencing forward.

Skehan's three-way distinction is essentially just the breakdown of the factors used in this approach. The three factors incorporated here are code complexity, cognitive complexity and communicative stress. All three factors will be examined in more depth, but it is worth noting the inclusion of cognitive complexity here. While this is a source of one of the criticisms of the previously discussed approaches, as it is somewhat subjective in the previously discussed research, it is also unavoidable. As noted repeatedly in this discussion, this may be one of the most critical factors to consider. After all, this is almost the very definition of task complexity: how much cognitive effort is required on the part of the learner. As such, despite being an imperfect measuring stick, Skehan necessarily includes it within the three-way distinction framework. Indeed, it is included as its own element. This is the critical aspect in Skehan's research, as it is an attempt to separate out the components. The thesis utilizes Long's approach (see 2.5), which attempts to isolate cognitive complexity. This is why Skehan's approach is important in furthering the issue of task sequencing.

First, Skehan addresses code complexity. Code complexity is referring to the actual language skills required for the task, be it understanding the task or executing it to its successful completion. As is likely self-evident, the more advanced linguistic techniques and breadth of knowledge that are required for a learner to successfully complete a given task, the more complex it is determined to be. Yet, even as we turn to Skehan for an improved TBLT approach to task complexity and, thereupon, task sequencing, not all answers are sufficiently provided therein. Skehan leaves it to the reader to define what one considers more advanced linguistic features. Commonly, for example, due to its non-existence within some non-English languages, verb tenses can create issues for learners. Different verb tenses can be viewed with different levels of complexity. However, most would likely agree that they exist on a continuum. Future continuous tense, for example, would likely be viewed as more advanced than simple present tense and, yet, less advanced than past perfect continuous. There are gradations within, however, and verb tenses are, of course, just one aspect of language instruction. As such, Skehan leaves the reader and the eventual course designer with an unclear notion of how to assess complexity within the "code complexity" factor.

Next in Skehan's approach is cognitive complexity. Skehan does make a valiant attempt here at disjoining cognitive complexity from the learner. As noted above, this is a critical step on the way to Long's approach (section 2.4), which is the basic approach this thesis uses in task complexity. Recall, cognitive complexity is one of the major criticisms of the previously discussed approaches. Those previous approaches did not attempt to disconnect learner effects from cognitive complexity. One cannot necessarily know the knowledge and experience level that a learner brings into a task. That is very circumstantially dependent. Within the framework of an entire institutional pedagogical structure, a course designer may have reasonable expectations and inferences about a

learner's prior knowledge and experience. Simply put, a learner may have prerequisite courses that must have been successfully completed prior to entering into the next course. However, beyond such a formal structure, that may be lacking. Moreover, every student within a class, despite having completed the necessary prerequisites, is not likely to be operating on the same L2 ability level. Skehan's cognitive complexity approach is one of the first efforts to resolve this core issue. Still, Skehan cannot totally avoid incorporating some elements related to the learner. In the first of two sub-elements, the aspect of familiarity is examined. This would be related to a learner's a priori knowledge. One can see how Skehan (and others) are faced with limitations, as familiarity is a very necessary element to assessing complexity. If a learner has great familiarity with the topic, the general area of study in question, and even the style and type of task, the level of complexity for this learner may be lower than for a learner with no familiarity in any of these aspects. In further reading below, the division of complexity and difficulty will make further attempts to address and correct this issue. Skehan's attempt to separate from the learner is more evident in the second sub-factor, that of cognitive processing. In this element, Skehan examines the information provided to the learner, its fullness, clarity and organization. While the cognitive processing sub-factor does not completely remove the learner (learner's abilities may remain a consideration), it does attempt to minimize learner-based effects on the assessment. Interestingly, as Skehan breaks down examples of simple versus complex "cognitive complexity" the discussion returns to a familiar theme from earlier this chapter, abstraction. Abstraction is implied with the cognitive processing element. The amount of information and guidance provided to the learner should influence the amount of thought required. The more information, specifics, guidance and direction that are provided in a task, the easier it will be for a learner to perform, and the lesser the cognitive complexity.

Skehan's third factor is communicative stress. This is similar to Candlin's (1987) communicative stress element. Skehan does expand on the concept by examining a few other sub-elements. As with Candlin, Skehan does include the number of participants within the task, referred to by Skehan as scale. Also similar to Candlin, the Skehan approach considers situational stress. Although, unlike Candlin, whose situational stress examination is built around task unfamiliarity creating stress for the learner, Skehan again attempts to remove the unknowns related to the learner. Skehan breaks down the situational stress into the amount of time the learner has to complete the task (time pressure), the critical vested interest the learner has in successfully executing the task (stakes) and the strictures placed on the learner as to how they are allowed to execute this task (control). A final sub-element, which could potentially contribute to situational stress is whether the learner must utilize (and switch back and forth between) multiple language skills, like utilizing reading and speaking skills during the execution of a single task. This sub-element is referred to by Skehan as modality. These situational stress sub-elements are, effectively all quantifiable (though some subjectivity remains). As such, Skehan largely removed the learner aspect within the communicative stress factor and, therefore, reducing learner-related elements from the task complexity assessment. There is some existing question surrounding Skehan's communicative stress factor in that there is no detailed explanation for how expansion equals complexity. For example, do three participants rather than two truly increase complexity? Also, does having to switch between skills (modality) increase complexity? However, an argument could be made that it's simple common sense. The more participants introduced into a task means that the learner will need to shift focus and, if the task is a speaking task, there could be instances of over-talk, and if the group is not homogeneous, there could also be elements of accent variety introduced. Similarly, most learners have different proficiency levels for different skills. As such, modality will naturally introduce added stress whenever the learner is

required to switch to their less-proficient skill set. Therefore, Skehan's approach does appear to be effective. That said, Long builds further upon this and, therefore, is the approach of choice for the thesis (see section 2.4 below).

2.4 Trade-off Hypothesis

The fundamental principle behind Skehan's (1996, 1998, 2009) Trade-off Hypothesis is found in its name. A trade-off, obviously, is giving up one benefit to gain another. This trade-off hypothesis is related to the results and production aspect of Skehan's approach. As such, what this is suggesting is that, in the production of a task, a learner's performance may excel, or at least be generally successful, in one quantifiable parameter of their language skills, while other parameters may suffer. The theory is that all aspects of language improvement cannot be addressed at the same time. The simple notion is that one's attentiveness to one aspect of language performance will draw the learner's attention away from the other aspects. Skehan (2009) expands on this idea with the consideration of a learner's temporal attention capabilities. While, on its face, one could be sceptical of the claim that a learner is incapable of maintaining attention on multiple areas of language (it might seem plausible that a high-level learner could properly focus on multiple aspects at once), there is further investigation of this topic, for example, in Van Patten (1985) and even more so in Van Patten (1999), where the concept is fleshed out more explicitly. As such, there does appear to at least be a broad sense of agreement and even verification via follow-on research over this notion that a learner can focus primarily only on one aspect of their language skills at a time.

Skehan uses three language aspects in the trade-off hypothesis. These aspects are outlined in Skehan and Foster (1999). The three aspects are fluency, accuracy, and complexity/range. These must be further defined, as one could argue that accuracy is a component of fluency. That might be true on a second

order (understanding meanings is considered, by Skehan, an aspect of fluency; getting meanings correct or incorrect could be viewed as a measure of accuracy), but for the most part, Skehan and Foster do attempt to partition these aspects in a way that allows for a distinct separation between the three. It should be noted that Skehan (2009) introduces the importance of addressing lexical performance in addition to these three language aspects (fluency, accuracy and complexity). Still, that is just an expansion of the concept. Fluency, accuracy and complexity remain central. Here is how each is defined by Skehan and Foster (2001):

> *Fluency*: The ability to utilize the language on the fly, in a real-life, real-time environment, and it includes some focus on the understanding of meanings.

> *Accuracy*: This is defined more broadly by Skehan and Foster as the learner's ability to avoid errors. This is a very intriguing definition as it is giving the learner credit for the logical cognitive processing that will lead them to utilize only the language aspects that they are comfortable with or skilled at. It's an interesting approach because it requires the learner to recognize their limitations, and what linguistic structures they may be more prone to utilize improperly.

> *Complexity/range*: The use of this aspect is important given the manner in which accuracy is defined. The definition of accuracy may allow the learner to "get away with" simplistic language structures in order to avoid mistakes. This may not be an ideal way to quantitatively assess one's language skills; they would achieve a high score (high accuracy) by resorting to the most remedial language level possible. The use of complexity/range will offset this. If the learner is using more complex language structures and taking more risks it may reflect a more confident and knowledgeable learner. Yet, in raising the complexity level, they may

be more prone to lower accuracy. This complexity/range parameter will aid in making a more fair and complete assessment.

Those last two parameters especially show the trade-off aspect of this approach. Accuracy and complexity will almost necessarily yield a trade-off (we must say, "almost," because an extremely higher skilled learner may be able to execute both parameters at a high level). However, Van Patten (1999) and Skehan (1998) also address the trade-off that the first parameter, fluency, may have on accuracy and complexity. Accuracy and complexity are placed under an umbrella of "form". That is, they are mostly concerned with linguistic structures. Fluency, however, allows for meanings, vocabulary and definitions. This is viewed by Skehan and Foster (2001) as being completely separate from form. As a result, a learner (Skehan focuses on adult L2 learners) will have difficulty managing both fluency and form in parallel. Therefore, there will be a trade-off between the two areas. Skehan's observations were that these L2 learners will most typically address their focus towards the fluency area, leaving the accuracy and complexity components (form) to be degraded to some extent. Psychologically, this would appear to be a very logical conclusion reached by Skehan. Consider an L2 adult learner in the midst of executing a task of some sort. Their focus, as Skehan suggests, would be primarily on finishing the task in accordance with the instructions. Most learners might focus on word meaning to ensure that their ideas and thoughts are conveyed properly. Issues of form, unless they are the explicit point of the task at hand, will almost always be viewed as a secondary issue.

To review, Skehan's Trade-off Hypothesis is specific to certain trade-offs. That is to say, not every trade-off combination is examined. There is interplay between all, but, for example, due to the nature of an L2 learner's priorities, it is unlikely that one would witness a trade-off between fluency and the form parameters (accuracy and complexity) wherein the fluency is the one to suffer.

It's only a one-way trade-off. The form is likely to suffer in the face of a focus on fluency. Skehan also doesn't isolate accuracy or complexity versus fluency. Accuracy and complexity are only taken together in this regard, under the "form" definition. In short, Skehan addresses effectively two trade-offs. One is the two-way trade-off between accuracy and complexity. The second is the one-way trade-off, where "form," production and task performance, could suffer due to the focus on fluency (particularly for L2 adult learners). The empirical studies conducted by Skehan and Foster (Skehan & Foster, 2012; Foster & Skehan, 2013) also support their claims. While this trade-off hypothesis is not major focal point of the thesis research, it does point to the importance of assessing production in different areas. While not a focus, this is addressed in Chapter 7, in which the assessment is not merely done through pre-test and post-test scores, but the actual discourse of the learners is conducted. The actual trade-offs are not addressed, but the importance of examining language production from multiple aspects is included.

As this section makes clear, Skehan does not really consider task sequencing in detail, but focuses on performance in terms of the trade-off hypothesis. What is seen, broadly, is that task sequencing should be correlated to task complexity or task difficulty. As we attempt to step forward to a more explicit sequencing model, we can find that in Robinson (2010), where the SSARC model for pedagogical task sequencing is introduced.

2.5 Robinson's SSARC Model of Task Sequencing

Robinson (2007, 2010) differentiates between Task Complexity and Task Difficulty. Task Difficulty is more of a subjective opinion on the part of the learner. It is measured from the learner's perspective (how difficult do they think the task is?). Task Complexity, however, is more objective and is based on the actual measurable components of the task itself. As such, these are separate

elements in the discussion that follows. Robinson (2007, 2010) establishes far more detail within the task sequencing structure than we've seen in other analyses. The approach is called *The Triadic Componential Framework* for task classification. As the name suggests, it is a three-pronged classification approach with various components underneath the three primary categories. The three categories are Task Complexity, Task Condition, and Task Difficulty.

The first parameter, task complexity, is broken into two subgroups, resource-directing variables and resource-dispersing variables. Both resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables are related to the cognitive requirements of the task. "Resource-directing" variables are related to the actual language subject matter of the task. Any task requirements that force the learner to focus on language code aspects would be considered "resource-directing." The "resource-dispersing" variables are other aspects of the task that may have little or nothing to do with language functions but do put some degree of cognitive pressure on the learner (Robinson & Gilabert, 2007). This could include time constraints, facts and information that simply must be remembered, following the instructions and steps of the task. To sum up, resource-directing variables assess Task Complexity with respect to the language requirements, whereas resource-dispersing variables assess Task Complexity concerning the ancillary (non-language) task requirements. The tasks in this thesis were sequenced based on Robinson's "resource dispersing" approach in that tasks were ordered from less to more complex, in line with learners' developing capacities to complete them. In short, the task increased in its complexity rather than language complexity.

The second category is Task Condition. Task Conditions are interactive factors. As with the initial category, Task Complexity, Task Condition is also broken up into two sub-categories, *participation variables* versus *participant variables*. The participation variables are the functions by which the participants execute the task, as it relates directly to them. For example, it could be a one-

way (single participant) task or a two-way task; the participants could be working towards a common solution or, perhaps, as in a debate style, they could be working towards opposing goals. These "participation variables" define the participants' roles in the task. The "participant variables" are precisely as the term implies, these are the variables that a participant brings to the table which may impact their performance of a task, items like gender, established proficiency level, content knowledge, cultural aspects, etc. These are factors inherent to the participant and completely unrelated to the task explicitly, even though they can still have an impact on the execution and performance of the task.

The final category, Task Difficulty includes two sub-categories: ability variables and affective variables. The ability variables are the learner's abilities, including aptitude, reasoning and memory retention. The affective variables are similar but more related to items one might associate with personality, like, motivation, anxiety, emotional control, etc. This shows the difference Robinson identifies between Task Complexity and Task Difficulty.

One might recognize an issue here within this framework. Robinson, as with most of the other researchers in TBLT, is left with a learner factor (Task Difficulty), which may not be known beforehand. As a result, it is an unknown factor in attempting to build a syllabus and establish effective task sequencing. However, that is essentially Robinson's point here. He is partitioning out the various factors. Both the Task Conditions and the Task Difficulty have some relationship to uncontrollable variables regarding the learner. These two categories are difficult to account for in task sequencing. As a result, Robinson concludes that the sequencing of tasks should occur according to Task Complexity (which is the degree of cognitive complexity) only. Indeed, Robinson even gives name to this conclusion, *the Cognition Hypothesis*.

It should be made clear that within the Cognition Hypothesis predictions, the sequencing of tasks in order of cognitive complexity, though intended to

maximize outcomes, does not remove the possibility of other factors influencing outcome, such as affective elements. In Robinson (2007) it was observed, for example, that learners exhibiting low anxiety levels did manage to perform better in the areas of complexity and accuracy. Anxiety tends to be a personality trait and is found within the Task Difficulty category. Yet, it still bears on the output results. Regarding the sequencing's impact on language production, research comparing repeated performance on easy versus difficult tasks has revealed minor but significant effects on learners' accuracy and fluency, but not syntactic complexity (Jackson & Suethanapornkul, 2013). Thus, basing task sequencing solely on Task Complexity does not intend to ignore or underestimate the roles of both the Task Condition and Task Difficulty. Robinson does not dismiss the effect of these elements. He asserted that task difficulties should ultimately fit into the learners' profiles (e.g., aptitudes and motivation) (Robinson, 2011: 5-8).

Finally, Robinson (2010) brings all of this to practice with the SSARC (Stabilize, Simplify, Automatize, Restructure and Complexify) model. Robinson explicitly sets out to establish distinct criteria for development of a pedagogically relevant task sequencing system. This goal, if successful, would lead to a more organized, task-based syllabus. One aspect of Robinson's work in this model is the effort to ensure that the criteria being used are precise and, possibly, even measurable. The aim is to make this as objective as possible. Robinson even discusses the need for these items to be able to be examined within a research environment. In other words, they need to be testable and provable. Indeed, Robinson also allows for the fact that the criteria may not be perfect. This humble approach leaves the field open for more theory development, research, and revising criteria such that either better criteria are used, or existing criteria are refined to, perhaps, make them more objective. In closing, keep in mind that these criteria in question will be all of the criteria within the Task Complexity category. Robinson (2010) makes it clear that only the criteria falling within the

cognitive function areas (Task Complexity) should be used for determining task sequencing. As such, any work of researching and/or refining criteria is, at least for the topic of task sequencing, only to be directed into the criteria related to Task Complexity. As noted earlier, that doesn't mean other criteria from other categories can be ignored. The researcher must remain aware of them, as they can influence the outcome. Those other categories must be kept front of mind when analyzing research results. However, in terms of the actual criteria being researched for the end result of task sequencing, those must remain within the Task Complexity category.

An example of this criteria-based task complexity analysis and application is seen in this thesis in Chapter 5. It is scaled down to one module, not an entire course syllabus, but the concept follows the same theme as in Robinson's (2010) SSARC, whereby objective measures related to the task itself are used to define complexity. Chapter 5, Table 5.2 provides the example used in this thesis for the task sequencing. The criteria of authenticity, scale and transport are used. The objective complexity scale for authenticity is just the use of overly simplified maps (maps which may display only the required information, and not distracting ancillary information that might be found on a real-life map), very an actual authentic map. For the scale criterion, the learner was to consider only a small area, with few detail elements that they need be concerned with, while the more complex scale utilized a larger region with more elements. Finally, for the transport criterion, the complexity increased as the necessary modes of transport or transit increased. This is how task complexity was applied in an objective manner for the task sequencing within this thesis.

2.6 Frameworks for L2 Instruction

There are three basic task-oriented teaching frameworks. Along with the Robinson (2010) SSARC framework, there are the PPP (Present, Practice,

Produce) and the PTP (Pre-Task, Task, Post-Task) frameworks. This sub-chapter will review the PPP and PTP frameworks (SSARC is discussed above in 2.5). This will demonstrate the progression towards the SSARC model used in this thesis research. The PPP framework focuses the efforts on the more traditional teaching style, whereby linguistic goals are set. The PTP framework moves closer to the approach for TBLT, as it focuses more on the task itself. With pre-testing and post-testing, the PTP model is close to the structure used in this thesis. Therefore, it is helpful to review the background of the L2 instructional frameworks.

2.6.1 PPP (Present, Practice, Produce)

The basic concept of the PPP framework is centered around the teaching of linguistic elements. The tasks themselves are not the focus. The linguistic teaching goals are laid out in a syllabus. For each linguistic goal the PPP method is employed. "Present" concerns the instructor's presentation of the lesson to the learners. "Practice" involves the learners taking part in various exercises intended to increase their abilities in the lesson's linguistic goals. Finally, "Produce" represents the task, wherein the learner is required to perform a task which will employ the linguistic element being taught. Throughout these steps, the linguistic element is always the focus in the PPP framework.

Although the work in this thesis does not follow the PPP framework, it can still be a useful model. DeKeyser (2007) favors the PPP approach for L2 learners because it allows for a focus on discrete teaching elements (the linguistic goal of the individual lesson). In Lambert (2010, Chapter 2) the convenience of the PPP framework is also addressed. Placing a task at the end of each lesson fits very well within the syllabus structure. It is a very simple, organized method by which to execute an entire course. Furthermore, it requires the learners to employ the learned linguistic goal at the close of each lesson. This could aid in success as

the learner may be more focused on the elements presented in the lesson and, therefore, will be more apt to include these elements with more frequency during task production. There are multiple advantages to a PPP framework approach.

There are, however, also some disadvantages to the PPP framework. The focus on linguistic elements may require learners to follow specific forms in the their task production. As noted by Lambert (2010), in reference to Ellis (2009a), this violates both of Ellis' principles for tasks. First, the focus on linguistic form may detract from a learner's tendency to focus on meaning. Second, the learner is also guided away from using their own linguistic resources by being forced to focus on a form directed by the lesson. In fact, by violating these Ellis (2009a) principles, one could even question whether or not the tasks within the PPP framework are *actual* tasks within the definition used here. Indeed, Lambert (2010) calls these tasks, "task-like". For this reason, the PPP framework is not preferred in a TBLT environment and is not the framework used in this thesis research.

2.6.2 PTP (Pre-task, Task, Post-task)

Researchers have proposed several task-based methodologies to implement task-based teaching in L2 classrooms, which involve three phases: Pre-Task, Task, and Post-Task (Skehan, 1996, 2009; Ellis & Shintani, 2013; Willis & Willis, 2007), known as the PTP framework. The PTP framework centres more on the task itself. As a result, there isn't a specific linguistic goal for each lesson or task, as seen in the PPP approach. Rather, the PTP framework is concerned with fluency, complexity and accuracy (Skehan, 1996, 2009). This is much closer, as compared to the PPP framework, to the approach employed in a TBLT setting and as used in this thesis research.

The Pre-task phase includes activities that teachers and students can undertake before engaging in a task, such as activating previous knowledge, modelling task examples, providing input, and giving learners time to plan. During the Task phase, learners mobilize all necessary resources to perform the task. The Post-task phase is where learners demonstrate the results of their work, reflect on what they have learned, or engage in task repetition.

The approach to the PTP framework has variations developed by many researchers in this field, but the focus will be on Skehan (1996, 2009, 2014) which focuses on balancing fluency and complexity. The concern is that there is a trade-off between the two, which is why Skehan argues for an approach that alternates focus between fluency and complexity. The trade-off originates from a learner's attention to fluency. In the desire to speak fluently, an L2 learner is unlikely to attempt to use language with which they aren't comfortable. As a result, the learner will reduce complexity to protect fluency. Therefore, Skehan's approach seeks to ensure that complexity is successfully attended to.

Pre-task phrase: In Skehan's approach the pre-task is intended to familiarize the L2 learner with the task sufficiently that the cognitive load can be reduced. The goal in reducing load is obviously to enhance the chances of task production success. The other purpose in the Pre-task step is the introduce the learner to novel forms. This, again, as discussed above, would be to ensure that complexity is not overshadowed by fluency. Studies have shown a positive impact on task fluency and complexity when a planning stage is added (Bui & Huang, 2018; Ellis, 2009b; Stroud, 2021). In order to achieve these pre-task goals, Skehan proposes three types of activities within the pre-task stage. The first activity is to provide the learners with information, presentations, samples, or any other materials which could familiarise these learners with the task they will be asked to produce. The second activity is to have the learners practice the task or a similarly related task. This will enhance the learners' familiarity and

prepare them for what is expected out of the task production. The final activity is to allow the learners time to prepare before executing the task. The preparation time would, hopefully, give the learner time to think about how to incorporate novel forms, thereby helping to prevent complexity from suffering. These three activities should help reduce cognitive processing load and maintain complexity.

Task phrase: The during-task stage, in the Skehan approach, is not without instructor input. There are three different types of interventions proposed by Skehan (1996, 2009), and outlined by Lambert (2020). The first intervention involves orienting the learners. That is, the instructor can direct the learners in such a way that the task will focus more on fluency versus accuracy, or vice versa. This may not only direct the student towards the proper, expected task production, but it may reduce the learner's load as their attention is more centred on the type output (fluent or accurate) that the instructor directed. The second intervention is adjusting learner control of the task. By restricting learner control and forcing the learner to execute a task within the bounds of explicit restrictions, it may enhance complexity. This comes from the fact that the restrictions may force the learner to employ novel or non-mastered language forms. Alternatively, allowing the learner more control over the task content and organisation would be aimed at enhancing fluency, as the learner is more likely to employ a form to which they are already familiar. Learner control would also be intended to enhance engagement by increasing the level to which the learner is invested in the task. The final during-task intervention is providing (or removing) visual aids. For example, in this thesis research, maps are provided for the learners in order to aid them in giving directions. Visual aids can be supplied in order to reduce processing load on the learners, as they have information to refer to, which can enhance task production. Removing the visual aid can force the learner to access more information from memory. Even though the visual aid my not explicitly contain the language elements (such as a map), it could provide clues which make

the language easier to access for the learner. So, removing the visual aid could increase the level of difficulty in performing the task. Of course, this isn't an exhaustive list of potential interventions, but this provides at least three possible during-task interventions for an instructor.

Post-task phrase: There are also three Post-task interventions proposed by Skehan (1996). The first is task repetition. This can be an execution of the same task or it could involve some variation thereof, whether it be a similar parallel task, the same task with different input information (different locations on the same map), partnering/teaming, or presenting the task execution in a different manner (performing in front of the class, recording on video, etc). Scheduling of the task repetition may also be important for the sake of learner preparation. The task repetition is used in the Post-Task phase of the thesis (See Chapter 5). The second intervention is for the learner to review and analyze their performance. This is also a key element in reflective learning, which is addressed in the thesis (Chapter 6). However, this can also improve initial performance if the learner is aware in advance that they'll need to review and analyze their task output. Accuracy may be enhanced as the learner is cautious to avoid errors, knowing that errors will increase the effort involved in the review and analyze post-task intervention. The final intervention is a simple test. Importantly, in all three interventions, it is important that the learner be informed of the Post-Task intervention ahead of time. This can aid in the learner's task production. Take, for example, the third Post-Task intervention, a test or what Long (2015) called an 'exit task' for the module. The learner is more likely to concentrate and focus on the task knowing that a Post-task test is upcoming. So, even though these are all Post-Task interventions at least part of their purpose is to improve the task performance.

While the PTP framework is preferred compared to the PPP, especially when considering this thesis, it does have its limitations. As noted in Lambert

(2020) the Pre-task and Post-task activities can be quite similar to the activities involved in the PPP framework, meaning PTP has a lot of the same limitations as the PPP framework. However, Ellis (2006) noted that although the Pre-Task and Post-Task phases are not mandatory, unlike the Task phrase, they aid in ensuring the impact of task performance in language acquisition. Furthermore, those Pre-task and Post-task activities can be time-consuming. As such, the PTP approach, which is intended to focus on the task itself, may actually have little time for task production. Finally, the syllabus structure may also take considerable effort with this PTP approach. As seen in this thesis research, in Chapters 4 and 5, task selection alone is a major effort. Designing a pedagogy with ideal tasks is not a trivial endeavour. Nonetheless, the PTP framework, at least for the research presented in this thesis, is preferable and leads naturally into the SSARC (Robinson, 2010) model.

2.7 Conclusion

In examining the evolution of task complexity and task sequencing, the definition of task complexity has changed almost entirely. Initially, it was problematic in dealing with many learner-based elements which cannot be assessed in a fully objective manner, it would be a difficult challenge to make such an assessment on task complexity. However, through Skehan and then even more so Robinson, we witnessed the stripping down of task complexity whereby those learner aspects were shipped to task difficulty and task condition. Long also suggests removing tasks that apply only to sub-groups of learners from TBLT modules. Thus, Robinson leaves us with a clean task complexity objective set of criteria. With that, a course designer is then capable of properly assessing complexity and, in turn, establishing effective task sequencing within their pedagogy. The assessment of task complexity is driven by the ideas of Robinson (2010) and the SSARC model, where objective criteria can be applied to define

the complexity. In this thesis, this is put to work in the research in Chapter 5, where a complete task module is developed, containing four separate tasks of increasing complexity, and the complexity of each can be defined by three criteria.

Chapter 3. Learner Engagement

This chapter will center around learner engagement and a criterion-referenced goal-tracking system which plays a role as an intervention in enhancing learner engagement during TBLT instruction in the thesis. Learner engagement is a crucial aspect of effective second language (L2) teaching. When learners are engaged, they are more motivated, active, and invested in the learning process, leading to better outcomes (e.g., Aubrey et al., 2022; Dao, 2021; Dao & Sato, 2021; Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Lambert et al., in press; Nakamura et al., 2021; Stroud, 2017; Qui & Lo, 2017). For the purposes of this thesis and this chapter, Goal-tracking will be considered as a sub-chapter. This is because Goal-tracking, in this thesis (see Chapter 6), is an aspect that could reinforce learners' deliberate and active involvement in task performances. The point of this chapter will examine the background and development of the concept of learner engagement. The focus will be on Engagement in Language Use (ELU) (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023), which is the key tie to the thesis. The Chapter 6 research investigates the impact of goal tracking on ELU. That study is used in the overall thesis to show that learner engagement can be successfully driven in an online TBLT environment. Thus, engagement and goal tracking are important elements in supporting the thesis.

The first section in this chapter will provide a definitional framework for task engagement. It will also briefly examine the relationship between motivation and engagement. Motivation is a psychological situation that a learner has entering a task. It will lead to engagement as the learner enters the task with a positive and strong attitude. That attitude, however, could be interrupted by the nature of the task. It could be directly related to the task being performed, wherein the task doesn't fully engage, or it could be caused by the task being somewhat confusing, or several other reasons. This could yield disengagement, decoupling the motivation from the engagement. The second section of this

chapter will then address TBLT within an online environment, particularly. The third section will discuss the background of Goal-tracking. Again, this ties into engagement, as it is the primary tool used in Chapter 6 to increase learner engagement. The results of Chapter 6 provide evidence that if learners are made aware of the criteria for successful performance and track their progress on these criteria, their engagement in tasks in online TBLT can be improved. As such, engagement and goal tracking are tied together in this thesis and presented together in this chapter.

3.1 Defining Task Engagement

3.1.1 Background and Initial Definition of Task Engagement

Colloquially, to be engaged in something, just means that one is interested in it to the level of active participation. Not surprisingly, initial discussions of task engagement (e.g., Dornyei & Kormos, 2000) focused precisely on this idea of participation. The original central thesis was that engagement was defined as involvement, or participation, in a task, and it was to be considered from the standpoint of how much a learner was involved, that is, the actual volume of involvement. The actual measurement parameters were based on the language output, however, as attempts to measure actual involvement may be too subjective. Thus, while the focal aspect was involvement, the assessment function centered on the production. Nonetheless, this was a good first step by Dornyei and Kormos (2000) in attempting to quantify engagement.

Platt and Brooks (2002) shift away from production as the primary way to measure engagement. Many interrelated factors are at play involving both engagement itself and other factors which could influence production. Therefore, measuring engagement via production may not be very effective or efficient. Platt and Brooks take the approach that engagement is best viewed as the learner's integration of the tools, concepts, language resources and acquired abilities.

A highly engaged learner may both possess and utilize a large set of language tools, whereas the inverse should also be true. This does seem to be a reasonable assertion, as it fits with common sense. One could imagine that a learner lacking tools or abilities may find it difficult to engage, for any number of reasons. This was seen within the research of this thesis, where one beginner-level learner struggled to engage due to an apparent lack of L2 ability. This is seen in the discourse analysis of the learner results in Chapter 7 (Study 4). That learner required significant assistance in attempting to participate in the task. This does not necessarily mean the reverse would always be true. That is, a high-ability learner isn't certain to display higher engagement. Other factors can come into play, such as interest. However, it would be sensible to expect at least some generally higher level of interaction or engagement from a learner with a wide range and high level of tools, strategies and approaches. In time, engagement measures have shifted from a focus on the final output production of the learner towards a focus on the learner's ability to enter into the task.

3.1.2 Evolution and Expansion of Task Engagement Definition

Some researchers are more focused on function, while others are more focused on task. Both approaches have benefits. On the one hand, it would seem natural to focus on the learner, as that is the participant producing the engagement. This learner-based approach is examined by Svalberg (2009) and expanded on in Svalberg (2018, 2021). The focus is on the learner's processing ability, including the ability to access previous knowledge, build and form proper English constructs, and fluency. However, another approach is to accept that the tasks as the starting point, shaping tasks in such a way that they enhance engagement. This latter approach views the task as the driving force behind the engagement. This is the approach taken by this thesis. Indeed, the research

shown in Chapter 6 reveals that including certain elements within a task, specifically, in this case, goal tracking, learner engagement can be improved.

Philip and Duchesne (2016) also focus on the social side of the learner. They break engagement down into four categories, *behavioral* (i.e., the qualitative action choices of learners' participation), *cognitive* (i.e., the learner's sustained mental effort and attention)*, social* (i.e., affiliation and willingness to participate)*, and emotional*, that is subjective or affective responses of learners during tasks. The emotional aspect is difficult from an objective measurement standpoint, as it typically depends primarily, if not solely on feedback from the learner (Baralt et al., 2016; Lambert & Aubrey, 2023), leaving the assessor or researcher unable to establish an objective set of inputs. However, in the other three categories, Lambert, Philip and Nakamura (2017) generate a discourse analytical system. Lambert refers to this as Engagement Language Use (ELU) (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023).

A task-based approach is thus more relevant to the work herein. Lambert (2017, 2023a) brings tasks to the forefront in relation to building a pedagogical TBLT construct. A primary aspect Lambert examines is the learner's vested interest in the task. That is, a task must allow learners to find tangible benefits in completing the task. Giving the learner a vested interest may increase task motivation. While a task-based approach here is preferred, these aspects are not independent and a more holistic, broader approach is required. One can give more focus to the task structure and how it drives task engagement, as do Lambert & Aubrey (2023), but what they also do, properly, is understand and incorporate the other interrelated non-task factors. Indeed, other researchers have further expanded on this by making these task-based assessments within the realm of non-task-related criteria/parameter variations. For example, Nakamura et al. (2021) examine the task-based language conditions necessary for engagement from the perspective of the learner's differing backgrounds, particularly differing

cultures (see also Aubrey 2017, 2020). Several other researchers, cited below, have further examined this and how these learner-based factors, or other culturally-influenced elements, such as environmental factors and the participants, can influence task engagement, and ultimately the successful task production and learning of an L2 learner. Lambert and Zhang (2019), for example, examine how learners functionally engage with the task at hand. Dao has also done considerable work in this area (Dao, 2021; Dao & Sato, 2021). In fact, Dao's work somewhat crosses over with Nakamura et al. (2021), and Lambert & Zhang (2019), wherein Dao (2019) examines how social differences impact a learner's engagement with the task. This holistic approach is necessary for the construction of effective tasks.

3.1.3 Operational, Quantitative Approach to Task Engagement

In measuring ELU, Lambert and Aubrey (2023) bring a range of discourse analytic measures into a multi-faceted model of task engagement. Lambert and Aubrey (2023) discuss the three parameters, behavioral, cognitive, and social (emotion is excluded due to the inability to properly operationalize it in terms of ELU).

Behavioural engagement refers to the actions of the learner in terms of interaction with the task. It is measured simply by how much time was put in and the volume of language output. If considerable time is expended and the learner truly is attempting to execute the task, then they likely deserve some credit for engagement, despite not "scoring" well on the output aspect of the assessment. In an information-transfer task, for example, a weak L2 learner expending considerable time for little production is likely still reasonably engaged in the activity. Likewise, a higher-level learner may require only a small amount of time. However, if they are truly well engaged, the learner may utilize their time well and the volume of output production will still be significant, thereby

offsetting their potentially weak "score" on time. Time on task and amount of output (the numbers of words and turns produced) might thus be valid measures of behavioural engagement, but only if combined with other measures of language use (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023).

In contrast, cognitive engagement refers to the level of mental exertion expended in completing a task. An example is seeking more information or better understanding or Language Related Episodes (LRE) (i.e., when attention is directed at resolving language issues) (Swain & Lapkin, 1998) occurring during task performance. Additionally, negotiation of content (i.e., when attention is directed at clarifying or elaborating content through interaction) (Lambert & Zhang, 2019) could also be taken as if the learner is cognitively engaged.

The third dimension of task engagement discussed by Lambert and Aubrey (2023) is social engagement or the learners' support of each other in completing tasks. Measures of social engagement can vary to reflect the kind of language required for a specific task type. During interactive decision-making or opinion-based tasks, *affiliative* backchannelling (e.g., backchannel with rising tone; enthusiastic repetitions) indicate learners mutual solidarity. In more transactional tasks that do not require learners to give their personal views (e.g., asking for directions), *simple* backchannels (e.g., hmm, okay, right) capture the social aspect of showing understanding.

Regarding the ELU construct, the three dimensions (behavioural, cognitive, and social) interact with each other (Christenson et al., 2012; Philip and Duchesne, 2016). For instance, in a scenario where an L2 learner has relatively low skills. As noted in the behavioural section, they might offset poor output production with time. Alternatively, they may be prone to giving up if they don't understand the task. Similarly, lower-level learners may fail on cognitive engagement as their ability simply makes them incapable of producing sufficient elaborations and LREs in their final output, but time or social engagement could be trade-offs.

Nevertheless, ELU (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023) provides a multidimensional, quantifiable assessment of a learner's task engagement. This is a breakthrough which now allows task developers the research tools necessary to develop improved tasks and measure their impact on task engagement. In a study conducted by Lambert, Philp, and Nakamura (2017), for instance, narrative tasks based on learner-generated content (LGC) and teacher-generated content (LGC) were used to measure Japanese learners' ELU during task performance. The learners were in pairs and discussed picture stories provided by the teacher (TGC) and stories that they were personally involved in in the past or thought the partners would be interested in (LGC). The learners' ELU was assessed in terms of effort and persistence (behavioral engagement), elaboration and clarification (cognitive engagement), and the learners' affiliation in the discourse (social engagement). Lambert and Zhang (2019) then compared ELU across instruction, narration and opinion tasks in LGC and TGC conditions. The three tasks required the learners: (1) to solve, explain, and discuss a procedural problem with partners (Instruction Task), (2) to tell an anecdote based on problematic situations (Narration Task), or (3) to provide an opinion based on complex problems between people (Opinion Task). Five indicators of ELU were employed: (1) *Words* - the number of words produced in pruned discourse, (2) *Time on task* - the time that the learners spend on task performance, (3) *Elaborations* - the task content that learners expand on such as giving details, reasons, making suggestions, propositions, and opinion, (4) *Clarifications* - the attention learners make to clarify meaning such as requesting clarification, checking confirmation, and metalinguistic exchanges, and (5) *Backchannels* - the learners' affiliation with peer such as moves on the listener role which go beyond acknowledgement of comprehension that show support or sympathy to the speakers. These ELU indicators serve as a basis for measuring engagement, following this multi-dimensional approach, within this thesis research (see Chapter 6).

There is, admittedly, such a wide variety of possible tasks that the variations in how to construct them are almost endless. However, there are a few general rules that have been proposed. One is that learners should be allowed to discuss topics of their own that they are interested in, want to share, and feel are appropriate for the specific interlocutor(s) and social situation of a communicative task performance (Lambert, 2023a). By choosing a topic of interest to them researchers have found that learners' engagement is increased in many areas, from time involved, to the amount of output produced, to enthusiasm, to even some functions of language usage. Lambert (2017, 2023a) expands on these findings with a discussion surrounding proficiency. Speakers with a more advanced proficiency level may respond better in terms of engagement to learner-based tasks, rather than teacher-based tasks. A learner-based task gives the learner greater opportunity to incorporate individual content, as only this learner has access to the pertinent lexis and syntax to execute such a task successfully. In contrast, a learner of lower proficiency level may require a more structured task, one that is more teacher-driven, with clear instructions. So, this can go either way depending on the learner. Still, as the goal is to strive for the betterment of the L2 learner, the ideal would be a more learner-oriented task, where the subject matter and output are decided by the learner themselves. Nonetheless, within the scope of this thesis, the learners are judged to be "high-beginner" or "low-intermediate" (Chapter 7). Therefore, although learner-generated content (LGC) may be broadly viewed as ideal, the tasks in this thesis are teacher-generated Lambert (2017, 2023a). The learner proficiency level within this research dictates the use of tasks that fall under the teacher-generated content TGC framework. Specifically, the thesis uses a sample task of "Giving Directions." This task was determined via a TBNA and a criticality analysis (Chapters 4 and 5). However, it is appropriate, based on the learner level, that this TGC task be utilized for this thesis research.

3.1.4 Summary

Perhaps the best way to define task engagement is in terms of the quantity, quality, and form of learners' discourse and participation behaviour (Hiver et al., 2023). While this seems almost unchanged from the colloquial definition (see 3.1.1) as learners' participation, the important additional distinction, as discussed in 3.1.3, is in the function of the task. The construction of the task can significantly impact the participation level. The entire discussion of the ELU dramatically expands on this. Task engagement is as much about the "task" as it is the colloquial understanding of the word "engagement" or level of participation specifically for the pedagogic language learning context. The research on task engagement began with the Dornyei & Kormos (2000) publication, which established a basic definition focused on participation level. Svalberg's (2009) approach was different because it connected affective factors to engagement, in line with a learner-based approach to defining engagement. More recently, Kormos and Wilby (2019) give a motivation definition which is very much in line with the colloquial definition, that being someone's energy and drive entering into a task. However, Seeger and Boekaerts (1993) attempt to isolate the learner's aspect from the cognitive aspect by defining it as the "feeling evoked" by the task. Even with that understanding, however, Kormos and Wilby (2019) argue precisely what was mentioned above, that a learner's motivation can drive their initial engagement. That correlation may not hold throughout the execution of a task, as a learner's engagement could shift as the task is being executed based on a number of possible variables, such as, task design, cognitive ability, interest, etc. Motivation is more an indicator of initial task engagement.

Finally, Lambert (2017) and Lambert and Aubrey (2023) take the next step of providing the Engagement in Language Use (ELU) framework so that a multi-faceted model of task engagement can be measured objectively. This is used in

the thesis to quantify the ELU difference in the discourse that learners produced on a task, using a pre-test and post-test to gauge the changes in ELU.

3.2 Task Engagement in Online TBLT

In addition to teaching students effectively in a digital setting, foreign language instructors also need to motivate their students to complete online tasks in a productive manner. According to González-Lloret (2020), L2 online lessons prioritize listening, reading, and writing abilities over speaking ability. Task-based learning through technology (TMTBLT) is an instructional method that utilizes technology to facilitate interaction among learners during tasks. This approach can provide learners with new opportunities to engage with each other and has been shown to enhance collaboration and improve attitudes towards learning (Chong & Reinders, 2020). However, practical issues such as poor internet connections (Muntaha et al., 2023) and unclear benefits for learners' future (Smith & Gonzalez-Lloret, 2021) can present challenges. Previous studies on technology-mediated task-based language teaching (TMTBLT) provide pedagogical interventions to create engaging classroom environments (Smith & Ziegler, 2023). Smith and Ziegler (2023) review studies concerning engagement in three mediums of computer-mediated contexts. These include synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC), massive-multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs), and virtual worlds (VWs). The use of TMTBLT potentially promotes not only the cognitive dimension of engagement (e.g., Shekary & Tahirian, 2006; Egbert, 2020), but social (e.g., Baralt, 2014; Baralt et al., 2016), behavioural (Lai & Zhao, 2006), and affective dimensions (e.g., Carver et al., 2021) as well as L2 development (e.g., Torres & Yangguas, 2021; Aubrey, 2022).

This is in keeping with the findings of Aubrey (2022a), wherein learner engagement was enhanced via the use of video interactions rather than simple

text-based interaction. Aubrey found that significant differences resulted between video and text-based task performances. Aubrey breaks this down further by arguing that engagement was influenced by task design, task process, task condition and learner factors. Aubrey, King, and Almukhaild (2020) also found that similar task elements acted as pivot points for engagement versus disengagement. They are defined somewhat differently in Aubrey, King, and Almukhaild (2020), addressing issues like the purpose and familiarity of the task as well as how repetitious a task is. In Aubrey (2022a), however, the tasks are computer-based tasks. Aubrey's work breaks down the influences of TMTBLT task engagement.

Aubrey's (2022a) study was also conducted utilizing the written aspect of language skills. While that is frequently done as a sole-learner exercise, in this case it was conducted with more than one learner working together to produce one singular task output. This is important as collaboration can be an excellent way to measure engagement, especially in the cognitive aspects wherein discussion between the learners must take place in order to produce task output satisfactory to both (or all) parties. It can also reveal some affective aspects of engagement (for example, if one learner is more domineering in asserting their opinion, or if the other learner is just too shy to assert theirs, this may reveal itself within the collaboration). The only language skill missing from Aubrey's study is reading which is somewhat understandable, as that may not engage much differently between a classroom setting and an online setting. He also found that learners were more focused and interested in tasks in video-chat mode than in text-chat mode.

In closing, the impact of implementing fully-online TBLT on L2 learners' engagement is poorly understood. This thesis provides ideas on addressing this by demonstrating how an online TBLT course incorporating interactive oral communication tasks balanced with input-based versions of the same tasks was implemented at a university in Thailand on the Google Meet platform (Chapter 5

– Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand) and how Goal-tracking (which will be discussed in the next section) affected students' active participation and involvement in fully-online TBLT (Chapter 6- Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students). The two studies provide insight into the relationship between L2 learners' engagement and fully-online TBLT. The next section touches on the learners-based goal-tracking system and its role in TBLT task engagement.

3.3 Reflective Learning and Goal-tracking

For this sub-section the ideas of reflective learning and Goal-tracking will be considered. Again, the background of these ideas will be established. These two topics are being considered collectively due to their relationship together and their relationship within this thesis. The learners performed one intervention within the TBLT module as described in Chapter 6. This intervention was a self-evaluation. The self-evaluation leads to reflective learning, as discussed below. The research examines the reflective learning in two ways, through non-goal tracking, which was more subjective and left the learners to think about their performances more broadly, and Goal-tracking, which guided learners to focus on specific elements of their performance. The point of this portion of the research was to determine if learner engagement can be enhanced through a Goal-tracking system.

3.3.1 Reflective Learning

Reflective learning is a practice where learners improve their future performance by reflecting on how they performed on a completed task. Kolb (2014) has described it as a cyclical process where new tasks allow learners to apply what they have learned from reflective learning. First, a task is performed,

and then the learner considers that performance develops an approach to improvement and applies it to the performance of a new task. This cyclical process leads to potential improvements being put to the test in a follow-on task, making it advantageous. Additionally, reflective learning can increase learner engagement by requiring them to consider their own performance (e.g. Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). In a research study conducted in Chapter 6, both learner groups - one using Goal-tracking and the other not - showed improvement, indicating the efficacy of reflective learning.

Similar to the Goal-tracking versus Non-goal-tracking learner groups, as examined in the Chapter 6 study, the reflective learning approach can be more subjective or more objective. A more subjective approach is to simply ask learners their broad opinions on how they believe they performed a task and how they think they could improve upon their performance. This is an approach taken by Khezrlou (2021). Dao et al. (2021) were a bit more specific in directing learners to specific aspects of their performance, but the questionnaire was still quite subjective in merely asking the learners how they did on a variety of language issues. However, Locke and Latham (2002) suggest an even higher level of specificity in guiding the learners on their reflections. The idea behind this is that specific, objective goals can be set for the learners to consider in their reflections. To be clear, some subjectivity will remain, as this reflection will be based on the learner's own opinion of their performance. The intention of this more objective, goal-oriented approach, however, is to both reduce the subjectivity and to guide the learners to the more specific language issues that are trying to be addressed. Long (2015) further develops this in the TBLT environment through a discourse analysis. The analysis of a model discourse for a given task may allow one to establish specific criteria that are expected to emerge from that discourse. The result is specific criterion-based benchmarks that a learner would be expected to meet within the successful performance of the

task. Utilizing the criteria when performing a reflective learning intervention could improve the learner's attention to the most important aspects of the task performance. In turn, one would hope that this would yield greater improvement than criteria-free reflective learning.

3.3.2 Goal-tracking

One way to improve engagement in learning tasks is through a reflective learning technique called Goal-tracking. This involves evaluating and tracking performance on a task based on a specific goal or criterion for success, until the goal is achieved (Lambert, 2023a). Unlike post-task reflection activities (e.g., Dao et al., 2020; Kartchava & Nassaji, 2019; Khezrlou, 2021), Goal-tracking involves repeated interventions between performances of similar tasks, allowing learners to track their progress over time and build engagement as they approach their end goal. Studies have shown that this temporal aspect of Goal-tracking can lead to greater engagement and performance improvement over time (Ibrahim & Al-Hoorie, 2018; Dörnyei et al., 2015).

Criterion-based goal-tracking is more systematic, however, than simple reflective learning. The self-assessment is conducted repeatedly after the performance of the same or similar task. This allows the learner to track their progress over time. The constant re-assessment process should also act to increase learner engagement, as the learner is constantly required to evaluate their task performance, after each task is completed, and they are asked to do so with attention paid to specific criteria, which would hopefully focus their self-assessment efforts. Chapter 4 (The Customer Service Needs of English for International Communication Majors at a University in Thailand: A Task-Based Needs Analysis) demonstrates how Goal-tracking can be built into a needs-based program that features criterion-referenced testing. In the Chapter 6 research, this engagement aspect was specifically the goal. The ELU framework was used to

measure the effect of Goal-tracking on learner engagement. The results are shown in the chapter but, in short, the Goal-tracking learner group did yield significantly more improvement than the Non-goal-tracking group.

According to goal achievement theory, the level of engagement in an activity, such as Goal-tracking, depends on one's goal orientation (e.g., Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Studies have shown that learners who focus on *performance-oriented goals*, where they aim to show their ability compared to others (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014), tend to be motivated by game-based elements that involve earning points and competing with others (Dörner et al. 2016; Reese & Wells, 2007; Stroud, 2017). However, this approach may not necessarily improve their social and cognitive engagement in the task. On the other hand, *mastery-oriented goals*, where learners aim to improve their competence based on their own standards (Diefenbach & Müssig, 2019; Domínguez et al., 2013), have been shown to result in more meaningful task experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and higher overall achievement (Bong, 2009). In short, the Goal-tracking in the thesis is mastery-goals adoption.

In a TBLT environment, it is important to track progress based on criteria for successful task performance (Long, 2015, see also Chapter 7 of the thesis) rather than gamified point accumulation. Research is needed to differentiate between the two approaches (See Discussion section in Chapter 6). This manner of Goal-tracking involves a learner tracking their own performance over time. This is very different from the gamification approach. Utilizing games (Dörner et al., 2016) intends to achieve goals through competition. Learners compete against each other to achieve certain goals (performance-oriented goals). This competition is intended to drive learner engagement. Stroud (2017) found, however, that while this gamification approach did increase engagement, the social and cognitive aspects of engagement with not significantly increase. Instead, Stroud posited that the increased engagement came almost solely as a function of the competition aspect- *gamification*. One might simply argue that

learners were more engaged because the task was fun, but that there was little focus on competently performing the task. Therefore, the TBLT approach relies more heavily on mastery-oriented goals. Mastery-oriented goals track a learner's own progress towards competency-directed criteria (Belenky & Nokes-Malach, 2013). The concept behind mastery-oriented goals is that the learner, rather than be motivated by simple competition, is motivated by their own desire to see improvement in their performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The existing research on this, such as Bong (2009), supports Stroud's (2017) idea that performance-oriented goals are less advantageous than mastery-oriented goals. TBLT in general, and the research from Chapter 6 specifically, focuses the Goal-tracking on mastery-oriented goals that the learner self-assesses following the completion of each task.

3.4 Conclusion

The core of this chapter was to define task engagement and, beyond just the definition, expand on it through the entire end to end process, to where the discussion lands at Lambert's Engagement in Language Use (ELU) framework. That is something of the critical point in the discussion as this is where one is able to obtain an operationalized, quantitative methodology for measuring task engagement. Thus, it's not merely about the task engagement definition, but more importantly evolves into the quantitative observation of such. This is the ultimate tool which allows a task designer or a language curriculum developer to effectively assess the engagement level that a task invokes. This can then allow the designer to improve upon the task design to create more effective tasks. There is also a brief discussion about attempts to separate task motivation from task engagement. This is a challenging topic because it is effectively impossible to disentangle them entirely, but the point therein is the goal to reduce affective elements on the quantitative assessment of task engagement. Thereafter, task engagement is examined from the perspective of an online TBLT environment.

The research therein is somewhat inconclusive regarding the varying effectiveness among the four different language skills (although reading is largely not addressed). However, there are some valuable findings within the research. For example, it was found that video-based tasks are far more effective at engaging learners than text-based tasks. Taking this finding into consideration, Chapter 5 of this thesis uses video conferencing to operate the TBLT module and enhance learner engagement. This may seem like common sense, as a visual interface would likely be more interesting for the learners, but it's important to formalize, quantify and prove this point if one intends to build on this research and further develop a pedagogically effective online curriculum. Thus, common sense or not, these are critical findings in the advancement of online task development. Finally, the various areas of emerging and ongoing research were discussed. Many of those subtopics may appear complex and, as well they are. That is why they are areas currently under investigation within the TBLT community. Within that discussion, it was made clear how the elements of each area of research impact task engagement. That's critical to establish in the scope of this chapter so one can see the relevancy of that work. All of this should give the reader an overview of the development of the concept of TBLT task engagement, its evolution into an actual tool to use in shaping task design and development, and a look at areas of current research which will hopefully move this forward even more, including within an online environment.

With regards to the primary research questions of this thesis (see Chapter 1, Introduction), one question concerning task engagement is asked: "How can learners' engagement in online TBLT be facilitated?" The response to this question is presented in Chapter 6: Study 3 "Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students". The research conducted in Chapter 6 suggests that one intervention that could be used to improve learners' engagement is Goal-tracking, as opposed

to gamified point accumulation. The learners' engagement could be quantified by using a multi-faceted approach such as Lambert's ELU framework. Additionally, Chapter 4 (Study 1) reveals that it is possible to create criteria of success elicited by a Task-based Needs Analysis that could serve as a basis for criterion-referenced testing, to be used in a Goal-tracking system.

Chapter 4: Study 1

"Customer Service Needs of English Majors at a University in Thailand: A Task-Based Needs Analysis".

An attribution statement regarding the authorship of this co-authored chapter is provided in Appendix A.

4.1 Introduction

English is an essential skill for international business in Thailand and a primary factor in reinforcing the Thai economy. English is vital if Thailand is to succeed in competing with neighbour countries (Chamnankit, 2015). The tourism industry is one of the nation's primary sources of revenue with Thailand welcoming over 11 million foreign tourists in 2022 and expecting 20 million in 2023 (National News Bureau of Thailand, 2023). English proficiency is crucial for workers in the service industry, such as hotels, fitness centers, spas, restaurants, shopping malls and recreation centers.

English proficiency also plays a vital role in job placement of many Thai university students. Employers in both the public and private sectors in Thailand place a high priority on employees who have a good command of English (Bangkok Post, 2017; Raksaphet, 1991). Thai employees also believe that being proficient in English is important in getting a good job either in Thailand or abroad (Ulla & Winitkun, 2017) and a key to a higher salary (Khamkhien, 2011).

When it comes to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction, however, grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods are still the norm in the

Thai educational system (Kongkerd, 2013; Kong-In & Damnet, 2018; Saengboon, 2019; Soongpankhao, 2016). These approaches place a strong emphasis on grammatical accuracy as a criterion of success in language learning and may be a contributing factor in Thai learners' lack of communicative competence in English over the last three decades (Kong-In & Damnet, 2018; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Saengboon, 2004; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015; Ulla, 2021). In particular, English instruction in Thai universities might be argued to suffer from three specific problems connected with the current curriculum: (1) lack of connection between what happens in the classroom and learners' lives outside of the classroom (Phaisarnsitthikarn, 2020), (2) lack of motivation on the part of the Thai students to engage in English classes (Vibulphol, 2016), and (3) overemphasis on linguistic accuracy rather than communicative competence (Noom-ura, 2013).

Using tasks as a unit of analysis in designing courses for Thai students entering the service industry might provide a means of ameliorating these problems. Long (2015: 110), for example, argues that in addition to aligning with research and educational principles, analysis of language use surrounding target tasks captures the dynamics of target discourse and helps circumvent course designers lack of knowledge of the fields for which they are preparing learners by allowing them to draw on insider descriptions of job requirements.

Long (2015: 108) defines tasks broadly as the events that learners participate in 'in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between.' As a unit of analysis in language course design, however, Long distinguishes three levels at which tasks can be conceptualized (2015: 223-227). The first is 'target tasks' or the things that learners need to do in everyday life (e.g., taking plane reservations, taking train reservations, taking hotel reservations, taking restaurant reservations). The second is 'task types' or superordinate categories created by classifying target tasks based on common features (e.g., taking reservations). Finally, the third is 'pedagogic tasks' which are activities that learners complete in the classroom (e.g., filling out a reservation form while listening a recording of a booking, role-playing customers and receptionists booking reservations). In the present study, we adopt Long's three levels of tasks and further define pedagogic tasks in terms of four characteristics: (1) a primary focus on meaning; (2) a 'gap' that necessitates communication; (3) a clearly defined communicative outcome, and (4) learners drawing on the full range of their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources to complete the task (Ellis et al., 2020: 10).

The present study aims to illuminate the nature of Thai learners EFL needs as a basis for task-based instruction and assessment. To this end, a task-based needs analysis (TBNA), consisting of an analysis of target tasks (ATT) and an analysis of target discourse (ATD) (Long, 2005, 2015, 2022) was conducted for English for International Communication (EIC) majors at a university in a major

city in Thailand. The TBNA combined multiple sources and methods of data collection and involved multiple cycles of data collection from graduates and experts in key areas of job placement. The outcomes of the TBNA provide an empirical basis for designing task-based instructional modules and assessment procedures to better address the future occupational needs of EIC majors for customer service skills within the service industry in Thailand. The study also provides a heuristic for TBNAs in other contexts.

4.2   Task-based Needs Analysis (TBNA)

Needs analysis plays an important role in L2 course design (Ellis et al., 2020; Long, 2015), particularly in contexts where learners have specific occupational needs for a foreign language such as Thailand. Brown (2009) and Long (2015) both suggest that language programs should be designed based on a needs analysis to improve transparency, relevance, accountability, and learner motivation. Needs-based language programs can help to avoid situations in which instruction is unfocused, resulting in motivation being lower than it could be, or graduates leaving the program without a clear idea of what they have learned or the ability to pull it together for any functional purpose (Lambert, 2010).

Serafini et al. (2015) survey TBNA methodology in terms of the designs, methods, and procedures used in the preceding three decades, recommending a checklist to improve reliability and validity in TBNA research. First and foremost, TBNA requires triangulation of multiple data sources and methods of

data collection to ensure that it represents a consensus of the views involved. Several noteworthy studies have been conducted in Asian contexts comparable to the context in which the present study was conducted, and this review will focus on the most recent of these (see Serafini et al., 2015, for a review of TBNAs in other contexts).

So-Mui and Mead (2000) triangulated occupational needs data of learners entering the textile and clothing merchandise business in Hong Kong. They administered surveys to graduates working in this industry and their supervisors, conducting follow-up telephone interviews with some of them. They also observed workflows and collected language samples in the workplace. Likewise, Chew (2005) investigated the skills needed by bank employees in Hong Kong based on triangulation of interviews and questionnaire data. Cowling (2007) also examined the language needs of staff in a Japanese company by collecting data from the sale director, senior staff, and novice staff. More recently, Baralt et al. (2022) conducted a NA for a task-based Spanish program in Qingdao, China. Based on multiple sources and methods, target tasks essential in business were identified, including skyping with customers, giving factory tours via video, and answering queries about products. This previous NA work in Asia is very informative in suggesting combinations of sources and methods for collecting data, but TBNAs of customer service needs entering the travel and tourism industry in the Asian region are currently lacking.

In a recent TBNA in Spain, however, Malicka et al. (2019) investigated the English needs of hotel receptionists. The study employed interviews and non-participant observation to identify tasks that hotel staff in Barcelona complete, factors influencing the complexity of these tasks, and language typically used to complete them. The study revealed that the tasks faced by hotel workers in Spain are primarily face-to-face oral tasks with guests. However, among higher-level managerial staff, written tasks such as reading and responding to e-mails take on a more prominent role. Fifty target tasks were identified in the study and categorized into eight task types. In addition, making small talk with guests was found to be important for hotel staff.

Of direct relevance to the present study as well is a TBNA conducted at a university in Japan which addressed similar problems with university-level language education to those faced in Thailand (Lambert, 2010). The study involved multiple cycles of consensus-building based on multiple data sources and methods of data collection to identify the task types that English majors needed to complete after graduation. The study began with an analysis of existing documents to identify the workplace domains in which graduates had been placed over the years preceding the study. Open-ended research methods were then used to investigate the experiences of expert informants in the most critical of these domains. Semi-structured interviews with managers and employees with extensive experience in each domain informed the design of an open-item direct-mail survey to graduates over the five-year period preceding the study. The

information obtained from these open-ended methods were then organized thematically to create a closed-item direct-mail survey to all graduates over the 20-year period preceding the study. Both task types and criteria of success common across target workplace domains were identified. Furthermore, the most critical criterion of success across domains was, 'being able to communicate' whereas criteria such as speaking fluently and accurately were of less importance. This TBNA formed the basis for the design a two-year undergraduate TBLT program in Japan (Lambert, 2022).

However, a TBNA will not only include an analysis of target tasks (ATT), but also an analysis of target discourse (ATD) (Long, 2022). An ATD provides a basis for creating samples of prototypical language use on tasks to be used in tasks that provide target language input in TBLT courses (Long, 2022). Hillman and Long (2020) provide an example of an analysis of target discourse (ATD) for American Foreign Service Officers (FSOs) working in Japan. Their ATD was conducted on the task 'delivering a celebration speech' and resulted a discourse structure based on the sub-task steps commonly completed in performing the task type and two prototypical models of speeches. Language models of this type are critical for developing receptive tasks (reading and listening) that accurately model task performances. Other recent ATDs have focused on sub-task steps and language in weather forecasts in the U.S. (Maie & Salen, 2022) and office-hour interactions in a U.S. university (Sağdıç & Reagan, 2022).

TBNA research has thus expanded over the last two decades from a focus on identifying target tasks to identifying criteria of success, sub-task steps and target discourse to provide a comprehensive basis for TBLT course design. Further TBNAs are needed to build a broader knowledge and consensus on ways to identify: (1) the tasks essential to target workplace domains based on the procedures for the analysis of target tasks (ATT) (Long, 2005, 2015), and (2) the sub-task steps and language used in completing these tasks based on the procedures for an analysis of target discourse (ATD) (Long, 2022).

4.3   The Present Study

The study aims to provide an empirical basis for needs-driven curriculum renewal at a university in a major city in Thailand. Six rounds of data collection were employed to build consensus on the customer service needs of English for International Communication (EIC) majors: (1) an analysis of existing documents, (2) semi-structured interviews with graduates and managers, (3) a means analysis, (4) follow-up interviews with managers, (5) a confirmatory survey of all graduates over the ten-year period preceding the study, and (6) an ATD.

4.3.1 Research Questions

The following five research questions are addressed:

(1) What are the key workplace domains into which EIC majors are placed?

(2) What task types are common to these workplace domains?

(3) What is important in successful completion of these task types?

(4) What are the sub-task steps in completing these task types?

(5) What language is typically used to complete these sub-task steps?

4.3.2 The Context

The study was conducted for learners in the Bachelor of Arts in English for International Communication (EIC) program at a university in a major city in Thailand. The program aims to develop English communication skills for the 21st century Thai workplace. The curriculum consists of integrated English classes in the first two years, followed by specialized classes in the second two years (literature, linguistics, translation, interpretation, and communication). Students also have opportunities to participate in internships with potential employers. Most classes are taught by Thai English teachers and Thai is typically the language of communication in the classroom. However, one American teacher works in the program and teaches courses in English.

Approximately 75 students enrol in the four-year program each year. Their English proficiency ranges from CEFR A2 (Pre-intermediate) to CEFR B1 (Intermediate) with a small group of exceptions at the CEFR B2 (Upper-

intermediate) level (Council of Europe, 2001). Most students have graduated from high schools or vocational colleges where English classes focus on accuracy rather than communicative competence, and they have had little experience completing oral communication tasks in English classes. They also have few opportunities to use English outside of their classes.

4.4 Methods

A six-cycle Delphi study was conducted following Lambert (2010, see also Brown, 2016) to build a consensus regarding the English-language needs of EIC majors. A Delphi study consists of a sequence of interrogations of informants from populations who manifest a target construct. Information is collected, summarized, and re-distributed, inviting respondents to revise as they feel necessary until a consensus is reached. The researcher reduces irrelevancies in the data and retains central control through data selection (Landeta, 2006).

4.4.1 Cycle 1: Document Analysis

Brown (2016) stresses the importance of examining existing records before collecting new data to avoid redundancy or misdirected effort. The document analysis in the present study consisted of recent news reports and government/industry publications on the importance of English in Thai society, and job placements records over the five-year period preceding the study (2015-2019) published annually on the university website. The results of the document

analysis were used to justify the choice of task as a unit of analysis for English language curriculum renewal and to identify key workplace domains for sampling informants.

4.4.2 Cycle 2: Initial Semi-Structured Interviews

Interviews were conducted with employees and managers from each of the primary workplace domains identified in Cycle 1 to establish initial lists of target tasks. Invitations were sent by email. All informants provided informed consent to participate. Only employees with at least three years' work experience in a target domain were interviewed to ensure informed opinions. The managers interviewed oversaw hiring and evaluation of employees. Interviews were conducted with 13 informants from key workplace domain.

The interviews were conducted in the informants' first language (Thai) and lasted approximately 45 minutes. The interviews consisted of a four-phase protocol following Spadley (1979): (1) orientation (greeting, establishing an explicit purpose and interview process, activating background knowledge concerning the informants' work); (2) grand and mini-tour questions (encouraging informants to rethink events or work situations then narrow the questions to specific tasks, encouraging the interviewer to identify key conditions, sub-tasks and criteria of success on these tasks); (3) confirmation (summarizing key information in native terms and having them restate to confirm the researcher's understanding); and (4) leave-taking (commenting on additional

topics of interest, establishing interviewee expertise, determining willingness for follow-up interviews).

The interview data was used to create initial lists of target tasks for each workplace domain. These were then categorized into task types common across workplace domains based on the procedures outlined by Long (2015, pp. 223-227). Two criteria were used: (1) each target task mentioned fit into only one category, and (2) the final typology accommodated all target tasks mentioned. Categorizing criteria of success mentioned was more straightforward as they commonly related to key terms such as effectiveness, clarity, politeness, responding naturally, speaking fluently, and demonstrating cultural awareness. Criteria such using specific vocabulary, grammar and accuracy were rarely mentioned by informants.

To establish interrater agreement in identifying tasks and task types, the first author transcribed the 13 interviews and worked with a Thai English teacher from the program to identify the target tasks, as well as any sub-task steps and criteria of success mentioned in one interview. They then separated and independently coded two additional interviews. Following this, they met again to discuss any discrepancies until agreement was reached. The first author then coded the ten remaining interviews.

4.4.3 Cycle 3: Means Analysis

The means analysis investigated the constraints under which the program would be implemented to decide how many task types could realistically be treated, what the instructional modules would look like, and to anticipate any problems. According to Purpura and Graziano-King (2004, cited in Brown 2009: 276), a means analysis explores factors affecting curriculum implementation and change. In the present study, this consisted of information about the amount of instructional time available, established norms of attendance and punctuality, and support from the school in adjusting workloads, encouraging staff cooperation, and providing administrative support. These data were obtained through document analysis, informal interviews, and the first author's experience teaching in the program. The data collected were used to outline a preliminary TBLT course in terms of the length and number of task sequences to be included, the extent to which one lesson could be dependent on work in previous lessons, and the training and support needed by teachers.

4.4.4 Cycle 4: Follow-up Structured Interviews

Follow-up interviews were conducted with managers from each of the workplace domains in Cycles 1 and 2. These follow-up interviews served to fill in missing information regarding the task types, sub-task steps, and criteria of success. They also served to get initial insight into language typically used to complete sub-task steps.

Each informant's ongoing willingness to participate was confirmed. The interviews were conducted in Thai and lasted approximately 35 minutes. The structured interviews targeted specific details regarding tasks and criteria of success that informants had mentioned in Cycle 2 based on questions such as, *'You said that you... could you describe what that would involve?' 'Employees and managers often mentioned..., what do you think this mean?' 'When an employee completes..., what exactly do they have to do to do it well?' 'What would you typically say when doing... in English?'* (Spradley, 1979). Transcription and interrater agreement procedures were the same as in Cycle 2.

4.4.5 Cycle 5: Confirmatory Survey

A primarily closed-item confirmatory survey was created based in the results of Cycles 1-4 and circulated to a much larger sample of graduates employed in key workplace domains. The aim was to verify the emerging picture of tasks and success and to establish their criticality for inclusion in a task-based syllabus (Long, 2015: 223-227). Permission was granted by the Dean of the Faculty of Liberal Arts at the university to send the online survey. Survey participants also provided informed consent on a preliminary page of the survey.

The Qualtrics online survey consisted of closed-response items in which participants rated tasks and criteria of success on a Likert scale. The survey was in Thai and consisted of three parts (see Appendix D). The first focused on

background and experience (current job, work experience, years of experience). The second asked participants to rate the criticality of target tasks for their work. The third part asked them to rate criteria of success. Sections 2 and 3 allow learners to add open-ended responses to make the tasks and criteria more representative of their work. Before going live, the survey was piloted with eight volunteer students to identify and remove ambiguous, complicated, or abstract terms (Hillman & Long, 2020).

4.4.6 Cycle 6: Analysis of Target Discourse (ATD)

The ATD for the task 'Giving Directions', which will be discussed as an example, was based on recorded telephone conversations with hotel receptionists made by three English-speaking research assistants (American, Malaysian, Filipino). Each assistant called multiple hotels in two major cities in Thailand where graduates where typically placed to ask for directions from different locations. The managers of these hotels gave informed consent to participate in the project and authorized the research team to make and record the calls to their hotels. The receptionists knew that calls to the hotel were recorded.

A total of 10 conversations were recorded. They ranged from 3-5 minutes for shorter-distances to 9-16 minutes of longer-distances. The directions involved a full range of transportation modes, including walking, city trains, and private cars. The directions were all given by Thai speakers of English employed at the respective hotels.

The steps used in analyzing the ATD data included: (1) identifying the sub-task steps in each conversation, (2) tallying the frequency with which each step occurred, (3) comparing the language used to achieve each step, (4) identifying the most common forms used for each step, (5) creating concise, grammatically accurate conversations which retained the original discourse structure, functions, and linguistic strategies, and (6) elaborating any difficult language to make it comprehensible to EIC majors (see Long, 2015: 250-259). To establish interrater agreement, all conversations were coded by the first author and a Thai English teacher separately. They then met to discuss any discrepancies until agreement was reached.

4.5 Results

4.5.1 Cycle 1: Document Analysis

The document analysis generated information on expressed societal needs for English in Thailand and on the specific positions in which EIC graduates are placed after graduation.

Government and Industry Publications

Recent announcements by business, industry and government in the national and local news helped to better understand expressed social needs for English in Thailand. According to a survey conducted by the World Bank, Thailand faces a severe shortage of skilled labour (The Nation, 2016). With 83.5% of its workforce unskilled, Thailand has the lowest proportion of skilled

labour among the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). Furthermore, according to Kiatanan Ruankaew, deputy director-general of Dhurakij Pundit University's research department, the Thai education system has failed to prepare a workforce with the skill set needed by employers. A solution, suggested by Yongyud Wongpiromsarn, director of the committee on educational reform, is to expand area-based education in which learning outcomes are designed in conjunction with communities and local industries. In doing this, Wongpiromsarn stresses the importance of "working with every segment, including public, private and government sectors to define local needs and fill them with the right skills" (The Nation, 2016). The goal is to reform vocational education in the three major industrial provinces of Thailand and generate around 48,500 trained graduates every year from local vocational colleges. Three significant areas of emphasis are: (1) technology, (2) foreign languages (particularly English), and (3) research and development (Chakma, 2018). The present study is in line with these government, industry, and educational directives in considering the needs of employers in business and industry as a basis for educational design.

Job Placement Records

Through the analysis of job placement records, it was possible to identify key domains for the subsequent analysis of target tasks (ATT) (Long, 2022). Although the workplace domains of graduate placements in the five-year period preceding the study (2015-2019) varied from private companies to various public

services, there was considerable overlap in the work that graduates completed across these domains. Positions typically involved routine customer service, whether this was connected with work in hotels, fitness centres, spas, restaurants, shopping malls, or recreation centres. The most common jobs across the domains were customer affairs officer, receptionist, guest services staff, and sales (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Job Placements of EIC Graduates (2015-2019) (n = 184)

Position	Placements	Percentage
Customer affairs officer	56	30.43%
Receptionist	28	15.22%
Guest services staff	20	10.87%
Sales	20	10.87%
Marketing	15	8.15%
Telephone Operator	8	4.34%
Other	37	20.10%

4.5.2 Cycle 2: Initial Semi-Structured Interviews

The twenty-nine target tasks identified as being important by informants in the initial round of interviews could be categorized into eight task types common across workplace domains (e.g., hotels, spas, fitness centers, restaurants, recreation centers, etc.) (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

Target Tasks and Task Types

Task Types	Target Tasks
1. Answering queries	Regarding rates and availability (rooms/memberships/services/leases)
	Regarding items forgotten or lost at facilities
2. Messaging clients	Welcoming new customers
	Welcoming returning customers
	Warning customers (for smoking/forbidden activities)
	Sending confirmations (for a booking/order/service)
	Thanking patrons (for positive reviews)
3. Handling complaints	Regarding facilities or services
	Regarding broken equipment (e.g., air-conditioners)
	Regarding noise (e.g., other rooms, construction)
	Regarding food or menu
4. Giving directions	To nearby locations
	To distant locations (changes/modes of transport)
	To the company over the telephone
	Figuring out directions using online maps
	Locating local schedules (trains, buses, events)
	Locating local fares (trains, buses, events)
5. Explaining procedures	For collecting I.D./passport from guest and visitors
	For using facilities
	For joining leisure activities
6. Providing reception services	Checking guests in and out
	Booking reservations (face-to-face/telephone)
	Logging requests to clean rooms
	Informing guests about luggage services
	Instructing guests on using amenities
7. Responding to emails	Regarding reservations
	Regarding online reviews
8. Making sales	Over the counter (amenities, souvenirs)
	Over the telephone (orders, packages, promotions)

4.5.3 Cycle 3: Means Analysis

Learners in the EIC course enrolled in six classes each semester. Each class met once per week for 2.5 hours over a 15-week semester. However, actual class time was two hours as the norm was to arrive to classes 15 minutes late, and there was typically a 15-minute break after the first hour of each class. Moreover, students frequently had excused absences to attend official university activities. It was thus decided that one-hour task-based lessons would be planned so that

one lesson could be completed before the break and one after. Furthermore, later lessons would not be dependent on the outcomes of earlier lessons so that absent learners could rejoin.

Teachers in the program were confident in speaking English. They typically designed their own teaching materials and tests based on agreed goals for classes. This allowed curricular renewal without working around mandated instructional materials and examinations. The teachers were also enthusiastic about TBLT but lacked knowledge of the principles and practices involved. Initial training was thus needed. As administrative support had been secured for the project, teachers' workloads could be adjusted to allow them to attend the training sessions as part of their regular work rather than imposing additional work related to the project.

4.5.4 Cycle 4: Follow-up Structured Interviews

The follow-up structured interviews with managers in each workplace domain filled in specific details regarding what each task type involved to plan the modules to the specifications determined by the means analysis. An example for the task of 'Giving Direction' is provided in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Sub-Task Steps in Giving Directions

	Sub-Task Steps	Description
1	Greet customer	Employee greets customer with a standard company greeting.
2	Acknowledge problem	Employee acknowledges customer's need for directions.
3	Identify mode of transportation	Employee identifies whether the customer will be walking, driving, take a public bus or train, etc.
4	Explain route using visible landmarks	Employee gives directions to destination, mentioning salient buildings, streets, intersections, etc. along the route.
5	Clarify distances	Employee gives estimates of distance or for each stage of the route in minutes, meters, stops, streets, etc.
6	Offer additional support	Employee offers to arrange transport, send directions through social media, provides follow-up support by phone (if required).
7	Confirm understanding	Employee checks customer's understanding of key information.
8	Close the conversation	Employee closes the conversation with a standard company closing, thanking the customer.

The descriptions of sub-tasks steps were a critical dimension of the TBNA as they directly informed both the ATD and the development of criterion-based assessment tests (Table 4.4, see Long, 2015: 121 for 'Sending a Radio Message').

Table 4.4

Criterion-Based Assessment Test for Giving Directions

1	Greets customer with a standard greeting	P – F
2	Acknowledges customer's problem	P – F
3	Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation	P – F
4	Explains route using visible landmarks	P – F
5	Clarifies distances in minutes, metres, stops, streets, etc.	P – F
6	Offers additional support	P – F
7	Confirms the customer has understood key information	P – F
8	Closes the conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer	P – F

The criteria in Table 4.4 are scored Pass/Fail and are relatively objective. They do not include judgements on fluency, accuracy, complexity, lexis, appropriateness, etc. which involve subjective rating on the part of assessors and

constitute what Long refers to as a 'linguistic caboose' (Long, 2015: 331-334). In the program, learners would be assessed based on objective task-specific criteria as exemplified Table 4.4 for each task type, and critical changes in language use would be allowed to develop incidentally though performing sequences of pedagogic tasks which alternated input-based versions (reading, listening) and interactive versions. Problems with the quality of the language used to complete tasks would be dealt with as they arose during task performance through communicative focus on form (Long, 2015).

4.5.5 Cycle 5: Confirmatory Survey

The 389 graduates who completed the university's job placement survey between 2009-2019 were sent the online survey (see Appendix D). Seventy (18%) responded, and these were representative of the customer service positions in Table 1. In terms of experience, 17.5% had more than five years of experience in their positions, 17.5% had 3-5 years, 51.47% had 1-3 years, and 13.23% had less than 12 months. They were asked to rank the tasks identified in Cycles 2 and 4 in terms of their criticality for their work and make any modifications that they felt necessary. The results are summarized in Table 4.5 in terms of task types (cf. Table 4.2).

Table 4.5

Criticality of Tasks for In-Service Graduates (n=70)

Rank	Task Types	Extremely Important	Very Important	Moderately Important	Slightly Important	Not at all Important
1.	Giving directions	41%	27%	17%	5%	10%
2.	Responding to emails	40%	26%	13%	5%	16%
3.	Providing reception services	37%	26%	12%	4%	21%
4.	Handling complaints	35%	28%	11%	5%	21%
5.	Answering queries	33%	30%	9%	7%	21%
6.	Messaging clients	35%	25%	14%	4%	22%
7.	Explaining procedures	28%	28%	19%	7%	18%
8.	Making sales	12%	13%	25%	18%	32%

The data in Table 4.5 provided a basis for prioritizing task types that had been identified in the TBNA and initially ordering them with respect to one another (Long, 2015: 223-227).

The second part of the survey related to the criticality of general performance criteria mentioned by the informants during the interview process (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6

Criticality of Criteria of Success for In-service Graduates (n=70)

	Criteria	Extremely Important	Very Important	Moderately Important	Slightly Important	Not at all Important
1	Effectiveness	49%	38%	10%	3%	0%
2	Clarity	45%	36%	17%	1%	0%
3	Politeness	43%	35%	19%	3%	0%
4	Responding naturally while listening	39%	29%	26%	6%	0%
5	Speaking fluently	32%	41%	22%	6%	0%
6	Demonstrating cultural awareness	26%	41%	25%	7%	1%
7	Grammatical accuracy	14%	43%	29%	10%	3%
8	Sophisticated vocabulary	6%	33%	48%	10%	3%
9	Sophisticated grammar	7%	22%	48%	19%	4%

The results in Table 4.6 suggest that the primary focus in the Thai workplace is on successful task performance and pragmatics (Criteria 1-4) rather than grammatical accuracy and lexical and syntactic complexity (Criteria 7-9). Fluency (Criterion 5) was rated higher, but still considered less critical than task completion and pragmatics (Criteria 1-4).

4.5.6 Cycle 6: Analysis of Target Discourse (ATD)

The task of Giving Directions will be used to illustrate the results of the ATD. Based on the recorded conversations of Thai employees giving directions in English in the workplace, a common discourse structure for each task type could be identified (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1

Discourse Structure of 'Giving Directions'
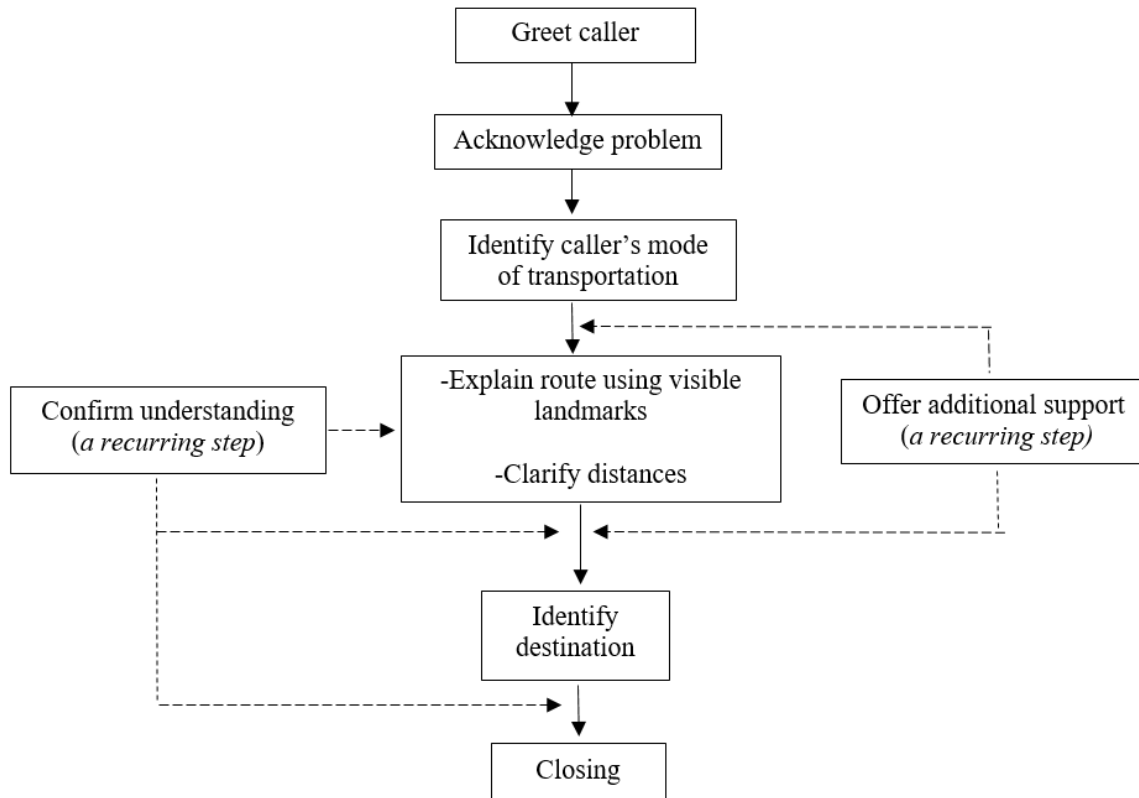
After identifying the discourse structure common to all 10 performances of the task in Figure 4.1, the language forms commonly used to complete each sub-task step were identified as a basis for creating prototypical language samples for input-based tasks. Table 4.7 provides a summary of these forms with the number of conversations in which each steps occurred.

Table 4.7

Language Used in Giving Directions

Sub-Task Steps	Commonly Occurring Forms	Frequency
1. Greet the customer	• (Hotel's name), Sawasdee Kha/Krap, how may I assist you? • Good morning. Thank you for calling (Hotel's name), How may I assist you? • Sawasdee Kha/Krap, reservations, (Staff's name)'s speaking, how may I help you?	10
2. Acknowledge problem	• Yes, sir. • Alright. • So, you want to know how to get to the hotel, right?	10
3. Identify mode of transportation	• How will you get here? • Will you walk or go by car? • How will you come to the hotel? Your car? BTS? Public transportation? Or how?	9
4. Explaining route using visible landmarks	• From SIAM station, you can take the green line direct to SILOM or BANG WAH station, but you get off at SAPAN TAKSIN station. • Our hotel is opposite of the AUDI showroom. • You just go straight on the expressway and then there's a fee of 25 Thai baht, so after you pay for a fee, then you just go straight until you see the victory monument, then you can get off at RAMA 9 exit. • Turn to the second right, you will see the temple on your left, walk pass that.	10
5. Clarify distances in minutes, meters, stops, streets, etc.	• I think it's approximately 15 minutes. • Turn left, keep going about one kilometre. • You walk a little bit, one minute from the station to the hotel. • It's not far. It's not over 10 minutes. • You get off after the third stop.	10
6. Offer additional support	• Do you have the LINE application? I could share the hotel's location for you. • You can visit our website or Facebook. We have a map on the website. • We can send a car to pick you up at the station. • If you're not quite sure just call to us again.	6
7. Confirm Understanding	• Are you ok? • Do you get it? • You want me to repeat? • Ok?	6
8. Close the conversation, thanking the customer	• You're welcome, Kha/Krap. Sawasdee Kha/Krap. • My pleasure Kha/Krap. • Have a good/nice day. Bye. • Thank you, Kha/Krap.	10

Note: Polite particles were found in all conversations ("Kha", used by females and "Krap", used by males)

Finally, Table 4.8 provides a model conversation that was created based on the discourse structure and language forms common to the task type (Figure 4.1 & Table 4.7). It relates closely to the sub-task steps identified in the structured interviews (Table 4.3) and the criterion-referenced performance assessment for this task type (see Table 4.4). In creating these language models, grammatical errors in the original recordings were corrected but unfamiliar and challenging language was retained. This language was made comprehensible through elaboration and repetition (see Long, 2015: 251-259).

Table 4.8

Prototypical Conversation for 'Giving Directions'

Speaker	Language used	Sub-task step(s) completed
Bank Employee	Good afternoon, UOB Bank, Sawanna Speaking. How may I help you?	*Greet customer with a standard company greeting.*
Customer	Good afternoon, I'd like to go to your bank, but I'm not sure how to get there.	
Bank Employee	Yes, certainly. I can tell me how to get to UOB bank. Where are you now, sir?	*Acknowledge problem.*
Customer	I'm at the MRT Yak Tiwanon Station.	
Bank Employee	Okay, will you come by the underground train then?	*Identity mode of transportation.*
Customer	Yes, the MRT?	
Bank Employee	Yes. Our bank is near the MRT Wat Mangkon Station. Just by the Wat Mangkon Temple. You should first take a train from Yak Tiwanon Station to Tao Poon Station. It's an interchange station. You change from the purple line to the blue line at Tao Poon Station. Okay?	*Explain route using landmarks.* *Confirm customer has understood key information*
Customer	Yes, I think so.	
Bank Employee	Okay, you take the second train from Tao Poon Station to Tha Phra Station. It's another interchange station.	*Explain route using landmarks.*
Customer	How far is it from Tao Poon Station?	
Bank Employee	Tha Phra is nine stations from Tao Poon. Get off the blue line at the ninth stop from Tao Poon Station, sir. Then take a third train from Tha Phra to Wat Mangkon Station. Wat Mangkon is four stations from Tha Phra. Is that clear so far? You take three MRT trains.	*Clarify distances.* *Explain route using landmarks.* *Clarify distances.* *Confirm understanding*

Customer	Yes.	
Bank Employee	Okay, when you get off at Wat Mangkon Station, take the first exit and walk down the steps. Then, walk along Prang Nam Road. You will see the Nam Sae Thai traditional medical clinic on your left. Walk past that. Cross Yaowarat Road. The bank will be on the other side of the road right in front of you. Do you need me to repeat?	*Explain route using landmarks.*
		Confirm understanding
Customer	How far is it from the MRT station to the bank?	
Bank Employee	It's about 200 meters. Our website also has directions to the bank, but if you have any problems, you can call me back. My name is Sawanna.	*Clarify distances.* *Offer Alternatives*
Customer	Okay, it's not too far. Thank you.	
Bank Employee	You're welcome. Thank you for calling UOB bank.	*Close conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer*

4.6   Discussion

This study investigated the English needs of EIC majors at a university in Thailand as a basis for TBLT course design. Through the triangulation of data from multiple source and methods and over several cycles of task collection, a consensus on key dimensions of learners' needs was developed. The approach used was similar to that used by Lambert (2010) for general-interest English learners in Japan. However, the present study expanded the model to include an ATD in addition to an ATT (Long, 2022). Furthermore, the study demonstrates that learners at Asian universities are not all general-interest learners like those in Lambert's (2010) study. In some university contexts, learners have specific occupational needs and a TBNA is essential to providing focused language education which addresses these needs. Such needs-based instruction provides a means of providing education designed in conjunction with local industries 'to define local needs and fill them with the right skills' as suggested by the

committee on educational reform (The Nation, 2016). Developing a skilled workforce that meets employers' needs is critical to Thailand's success in regional and international trade. Furthermore, the study demonstrate how needs-based instruction might address key pedagogic problems identified in English instruction in Thai universities, including lack of connection between classroom work and learners' lives (Phaisarnsitthikarn, 2020), lack of learner motivation (Vibulphol, 2016), and emphasis on linguistic accuracy over communicative competence (Noom-ura, 2013).

In terms of the analysis of target tasks (ATT), the study revealed that the majority of EIC majors are placed in customer service positions, and that eight task types are necessary across these workplace domains (Table 4.2). These results are comparable to those of Malicka et al. (2019) who studied the English-language needs of hotel workers in Barcelona, Spain in that the task types in the two studies involved tasks in both in oral and written modes. Interestingly, the eight in Malicka et al. (2019) were focused specific on work in hotels, but the present study demonstrates that task types can be identified which are common were common across the range of customer service positions in Thailand (see Tables 4.1 & 4.2).

Success on the eight task types in the present study involved completing sub-task steps that were specific to each task type (see Table 4.4), and success across workplace domains was conceptualized primarily in terms of effective task completion (effectiveness, clarity) and pragmatic competence (politeness,

responding naturally) (see Table 4.6). Linguistic dimensions of tasks performance such as grammatical accuracy, lexical complexity, and syntactic complexity were seen as being of less importance. These results are comparable with those of other TBNAs in Hong Kong (So-Mui & Mead, 2000) and in Japan (Lambert, 2010).

In terms of the analysis of target discourse (ATD), it was found that there were commonalities in the steps completed in customer service tasks that allowed a discourse structure to be established for each task type (e.g., Figure 4.1). Furthermore, commonly occurring language associated with these steps could be identified (e.g., Table 4.7). This provided an empirical basis for constructing realistic language models to use in the creating of input-based (listing, reading) pedagogic tasks (e.g., Table 4.8). This is consistent with previous research by Maie and Salen (2022) who identified common subtasks and associated linguistic features in weather forecasts as a basis for designing task-based input materials. Similarly, Hillman and Long (2020) identified common step and associated language forms for developing models of Japanese celebration speeches for training of U.S. Foreign Service Officers.

However, it should be kept in mind that the tasks investigated in previous ATD research have been relatively formulaic in nature with a primary focus on information transfer. The present study also focused on the transfer of specific information with little personal involvement or interpretation involved. In tasks that involve personal involvement, discourse structure might be less predictable. The task of Giving Directions discussed in the present study, for example lacks

the social and emotional dimensions of task engagement that characterize tasks such as relating personal anecdotes, making personal recommendations, and explaining how to do or make things of personal interest (Ellis et al. 2020, Chapter 6; Lambert, 2023; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Future ATD research is needed on tasks that involve more personal involvement between interactants.

The study demonstrates how TBNA provided essential information for designing foreign language instruction at a university in Thailand. It supports Long's (2005, 2015, 2022) claim that triangulation of multiple sources and methods is essential for TBNA, and that multiple cycles of data collection are beneficial (Lambert, 2010). The approach began with existing documents, moved to interviews with a small number of well-selected experts, and finally moved a survey to verify the emerging picture with a larger number of informants. It is hoped that the study will provide a heuristic for bring together recent theoretical and methodological directives in the design of needs-based occupational language courses.

Chapter 5: Study 2

"Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand".

An attribution statement regarding the authorship of this co-authored chapter is provided in Appendix A.

5.1 Introduction

Foreign language courses, particularly those focusing on oral communication skills, are challenging to implement online. This case study demonstrates how an online TBLT course incorporating interactive oral communication tasks balanced with input-based versions of the same tasks was implemented at a university in Thailand on the Google Meet platform. One task type, Giving Directions, is used to illustrate the approach. This task was identified as critical for English for International Communication (EIC) majors going into the travel and tourism industry in Thailand based on a TBNA. The case study illustrates how online interactive tasks were designed, implemented, and assessed.

5.2 The Context

The project aimed to develop online English instruction for EIC majors as a basis for future curriculum renewal. The incoming cohort of 80 learners aged 18–19 was the target group. They had attended online lectures through *Google Meet* since beginning university the semester before the project. Their English proficiency ranged from CEFR A2 to B1 with a few learners at B2 (Council of Europe, 2001). Most graduated from high schools or vocational colleges where English classes focused on accuracy rather than fluency, and they had little experience in completing oral communication tasks. They also had few opportunities to use English outside class. A survey of job placements revealed

that graduates were typically placed in customer service positions in hotels, fitness centers, spas, restaurants, shopping malls, or recreation centers. The most common jobs were in customer affairs, reception, guest services, and sales (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press).

The cohort was taught by five Thai English teachers. The teachers were enthusiastic about TBLT and learning how to do it. The author teaches in program and led the project. The incoming cohort was divided into ten groups of eight for the TBLT classes. These groups were considerably smaller than the normal face-to-face English communication classes which would typically have been four groups of 20. However, the university supported the project and made formal allowances for increased teacher workload.

5.3 The Need for Tasks

Tasks were used to address three issues:

1. **Relevance:** Create transparency between what learners do in the classroom and their lives and careers outside of the classroom.

2. **Engagement:** Create an active role for learners in using language to arrive at real-world communicative outcomes.

3. **Development:** Develop learners' confidence and fluency in using their language resources productively.

5.4 The Project

The Google Meet platform was used to implement the project. This videoconferencing platform operates on the Chrome web browser and allows multiple split screen layouts. The teachers could thus monitor multiple pairs, each in a separate 'breakout room' as they completed interactive tasks on a single

computer screen. Adding the Volume Master function to Chrome extensions helped teachers control volumes in each breakout room when pairs were speaking simultaneously. LINE chat then provided a direct communication channel between teachers and individual learners via their personal mobile phones. Instructions, A/B information-gap worksheets, and web links to input-based task materials were sent via LINE.

5.4.1. Task Selection

A TBNA was conducted for EIC majors which identified eight target task types (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). Table 5.1 summarizes the task types and representative target tasks.

Table 5.1

Target Tasks and Task Types

Task Types	Target Tasks
1. Answering queries	Regarding rates and availability (rooms/memberships/services/leases)
	Regarding items forgotten or lost at facilities
2. Messaging clients	Welcoming new customers
	Welcoming returning customers
	Warning customers (for smoking/forbidden activities)
	Sending confirmations (for a booking/order/service)
	Thanking patrons (for positive reviews)
3. Handling complaints	Regarding facilities or services
	Regarding broken equipment (e.g., air-conditioners)
	Regarding noise (e.g., other rooms, construction)
	Regarding food or menu
4. Giving directions	To nearby locations
	To distant locations (changes/modes of transport)
	To the company over the telephone
	Figuring out directions using online maps
	Locating local schedules (trains, buses, events)
	Locating local fares (trains, buses, events)
5. Explaining procedures	For collecting I.D./passport from guest and visitors
	For using facilities
	For joining leisure activities
6. Providing reception services	Checking guests in and out

	Booking reservations (face-to-face/telephone)
	Logging requests to clean rooms
	Informing guests about luggage services
	Instructing guests on using amenities
7. Responding to emails	Regarding reservations
	Regarding online reviews
8. Making sales	Over the counter (amenities, souvenirs)
	Over the telephone (orders, packages, promotions)

Based on the TBNA, the task type with the highest criticality for graduates was Giving Directions. This task type will thus be used as an example in the following sections.
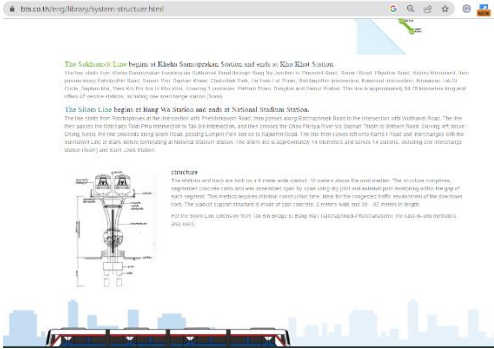
5.4.2. Task Design and Sequencing

Administering materials in PDF format allowed high quality visuals and easily accessible web links to videos and interactive worksheets. Listening tasks were linked through YouTube and shown with screen sharing during the online classes. Responses from learners while listening were enabled through *LiveWorksheets* (https://www.liveworksheets.com), which simulates traditional paper-based worksheets in interactive online formats. Responses included such things as dragging place names and dropping them into correct locations on maps and matching pictures. When finished with a given worksheet, students pushed a submit button and received immediate feedback and correct answers. Open-ended responses went to teachers for verification.

Input-based task sequences included both listening and reading tasks. The reading tasks were based on English-language directions published on local transportation company websites and transcriptions of conversations based on an analysis of target discourse (ATD) (Long, 2022; Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). The listening tasks consisted of videos of fluent Thai speakers of English giving directions to foreigners and were created based on the ATD. They followed the sub-task steps identified (See Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1

Sample Input-Based Task

Sub-Task Steps	Sample Discourse	Visual Material
Greets customer	A: Good morning, Bangkok Hospital, how may I help you? B: Hello, yes, may I know how to get to your hospital, please?	**Listening**
Acknowledges problem	A: Certainly sir, where are you now? B: I'm near the train station, on First Street.	Lesson1_Step 5
Clarifies mode of transport	A: Alright, how will you get here? By car? B: Hm, I am walking now. Is it too far to walk?	
Explains route with landmarks	A: No not at all, you just turn right onto Central Avenue. You will then see the Victory Monument on your left.	
Clarifies distances	A: Go straight and keep walking for around two hundred meters. B: Two hundred meters? That's quite far.	Lesson 3 (Step 4)
Offers additional support	A: Yes, well, we could send a car to pick you up. B: It's ok, I can walk. I'm somewhere on Central Street, there's a restaurant on my left-hand side. A: Alright then you will see an intersection, go past that, the hospital is on your left, opposite the temple.	**Reading**
Confirms understanding	A: Do you want me to repeat it?	
Closes the conversation	B: No, thank you so much. A: You're welcome. Good bye.	

Using Adobe Premiere Pro software version 2021, the model listening samples were edited and virtual images and sound effects were added to facilitate comprehensibility. For example, objects were moved along the maps in real time

during the instructions to facilitate comprehension of the language used to describe the route, the numbers or names of the various locations mentioned appeared at the times that they were mentioned, and street noises and other sounds such as telephones ringing were added to promote multimodal cues to meaning. The videos were then uploaded onto YouTube and links were provided in the PDF materials accompanying each lesson.

Pedagogic tasks in each module were sequenced in terms of increasing complexity across the module (see Table 5.2, see Appendix H, for Task materials).

Table 5.2

Giving Directions Module

Sequencing Criteria	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4	Lesson 5
	Simple --> Complex				**Exit Task Performances**
Authenticity	Simplified maps	Simplified maps	Authentic maps	Authentic maps	Authentic maps
Scale	Small Area, Few Elements	Small Area, Few Elements	Large Area, More Elements	Large Area, More Elements	Large Area, More Elements
Transport	One mode of transport	Two modes of transport	Two modes of transport	Three modes of transport	Three modes of Transport

The versions of the pedagogic tasks increased in complexity between lessons in terms of authenticity (from artificial to authentic maps), scale (from smaller to larger map areas with more elements), and transport (from one to three modes of transportation). The exit task represented a fully-complex version of pedagogic task which simulated the demands of the task learners would face in the workplace by included authentic maps, displayed a large area with many elements, and three modes of transportation (Long, 2015).

5.4.3. Task Implementation

In implementing the tasks, input-based tasks were alternated with the interactive task performances in each lesson (see Table 5.3). This allowed learners to (1) activate their current interlanguage resources in line with the task, (2) notice difference between the language they used and model task-based language use, and (3) incorporate any forms that that they saw fit into performance. This approach was adopted from a TBLT program design project in Japan (see Lambert, 2020, 2022; Lambert & Hailes, 2002, for materials).

Table 5.3

Lesson Structure for Giving Directions Module

Phase 1	Task Performances x 3
Phase 2	Input-Based Task Sequence
Phase 3	Task Performances x 3

Learners were divided into groups of eight for manageability on the Google Meet platform. Groups of eight allowed learners to work in sub-groups of four and repeat pedagogic tasks three times with different partners each time to avoid boredom and maximize short-term fluency gains (Lambert et al. 2017). This procedure is illustrated in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2

Task Repetition Procedure
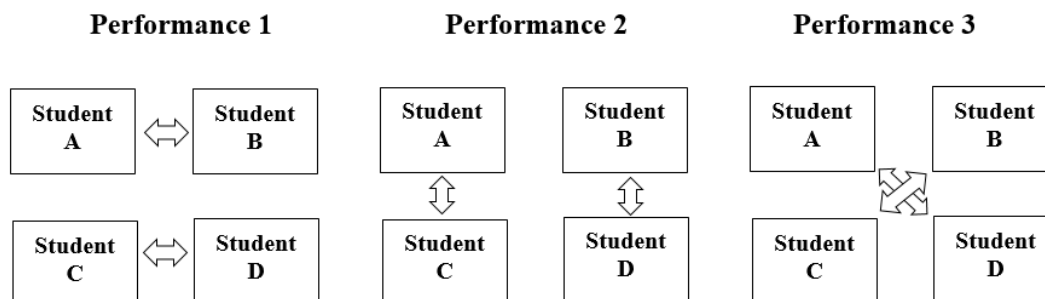
All learners joined the same meeting room for an orientation and equipment check at the beginning of each lesson. Four Google Meet videoconferencing rooms were set up in advance on the Google Calendar. As it is not possible to schedule multiple Google meetings with the same time, meeting times were set one minute apart. Rooms were numbered 1 to 4. Room 1 was the main room, and rooms 2-4 were breakout rooms. The links were then sent to learners via LINE which informed them of which room to join as well as providing them with instructions and divided information-gap materials for the tasks in the lesson and links for necessary room changes. They had time to read and plan as per the instructions. The teachers operated four-screen meetings, using 'tab resize' to monitor pair work, and 'record meetings' to capture performances for future reference.

Phase 1 (Interactive Task Sequence 1): Learners separated into the four breakout rooms with two students in each room for the initial interactive task sequence (Table 5.3). During these interactive tasks, learners alternated speaker and listener roles then changed break-out rooms twice to repeat the process with different partners (Figure 5.2). For the simpler versions of the task (Table 5.2), each version consisted of identical procedures but involved different content. For

complex versions, the exact same version was performed three times with different partners each time.

Phase 2 (Input-Based Task Sequence): Learners moved back to the main room and completed the input-based task sequence as a single group (see Table 5.3). These task sequences involved both listening and reading versions the Giving Directions task. Videos and *LiveWorksheets* were accessed via links in the PDF worksheets.

Phase 3 (Interactive Task Sequence 2): Learners returned to the breakout rooms and completed a second sequence of three interactive tasks with a different partner each time. The procedures were the same as for the initial sequence. The tasks required the same procedures but operated on different content.

5.4.4. Task Assessment

Following each module, learners completed an exit task (Long, 2015). They were evaluated based on task-specific criteria identified during the TBNA (see Table 5.4 for an example).

Table 5.4

Criterion-referenced Test for Giving Directions Module

1	Greets customer with a standard greeting	P – F
2	Acknowledges customer's problem	P – F
3	Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation	P – F
4	Explains route using visible landmarks	P – F
5	Clarifies distances in minutes, metres, stops, streets, etc.	P – F
6	Offers additional support	P – F
7	Confirms the customer has understood key information	P – F
8	Closes the conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer	P – F

The criteria were scored Pass/Fail and were relatively objective. They did not include judgements on fluency, accuracy, complexity, lexis, appropriateness, etc. which involve subjective rating on the part of assessors and constitute what

Long refers to as a 'linguistic caboose' (Long, 2015: 331-334). In the program, learners were assessed based on task-specific criteria for each task type derived from the TBNA. Changes in language use in accomplishing these criteria developed incidentally though performing interactive tasks alternated with input-based tasks of the same type (see Table 5.3).

5.5. Strengths and Weaknesses of the Project

The project demonstrates how interactive tasks can be implemented online, given normal mobile internet networks or hotspot connections and freely available tools and platforms. A problem was class size. Google Meet allows multiple parallel sessions to be conducted, but it is difficult for a single teacher to manage more than eight students (four pairs) in a split-screen format. This requires small classes and increases workload. Instead of teaching a new cohort of 80 learners in four sections of 20, as in lecture-based online instruction, the cohort had to be divided into ten groups of eight for their online TBLT classes, increasing teaching load for this part of the curriculum by 250%. This may not be feasible in many foreign language programs. A second problem was connectivity. Weak Wi-Fi connections, mobile phone batteries, and PC shutdowns delayed classes and required learners to wait until their partners could log back into sessions. Finally, like any curriculum renewal project, administrative support is essential (Lambert, 2022). Course designers will need teaching relief and support to research, create and digitalize quality TBLT materials that address learners needs. Teachers in the program will also often need training and formal workload adjustments to implement the units effectively. We thus offer three points of advice for those seeking to implement online interactive tasks in their programs:

- Conduct small pilot projects first to ensure that all materials and systems work and are as clear and simple as possible.

- Persuade the institution of the importance of online TBLT for the language program and the feasibility of your project, and secure administrative support *in advance*.
- Develop simple teacher training sessions that cover basic TBLT principles and illustrate them with clear step-by-step materials and technological procedures.

5.6. Discussion Questions

1. In what ways might implementing classes online TBLT benefit effective foreign language instruction? In what ways might it work against it?
2. Are some task types better suited in online TBLT instruction than others?
3. What would be the essential considerations in incorporating online TBLT in your educational context? What challenges might teachers and students face? How might you address these challenges?

5.7. Recommended Readings

Ellis, R. (2020). Teacher-preparation for Task-based Language Teaching. In Lambert, C. & Oliver, R. (eds). *Using Tasks in Second Language Teaching: Practices in Diverse Contexts*. Multilingual Matters.

This chapter provides a practical overview of issues that must be addressed in preparing teachers for task-based language teaching. It outlines key principle and provides a model of an in-service teacher preparation program.

González-Lloret M. (2020) .Collaborative tasks for online language teaching . *Foreign Language Annals*, 53, 260–269.

This article discusses how collaborative technology-mediated tasks can be implemented in online language classes. It provides samples of interactive tasks and recommendations to the teachers who want to incorporate tasks in online environments.

Chapter 6: Study 3

"Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students".

An attribution statement regarding the authorship of this co-authored chapter is provided in Appendix A. The published-version is provided in Appendix

6.1 Introduction

In task-based language teaching (TBLT), 'tasks' are pedagogic tools used to promote incidental second-language learning during meaning-focused communication where learners acquire language *through* task performance rather than *for* task performance (Ellis et al., 2020). To date, TBLT researchers have primarily been concerned with the relationship between task design features and task performance. The aim has been to establish general principles that address learners' psycholinguistic needs (Skehan, 2018). However, recent trends have begun to recognize the integral role of the learner in TBLT (Lambert et al., 2023) with a growing focus on investigating *task engagement* to account for learners' deliberate and active involvement in task performances (e.g., Aubrey, 2022a; Aubrey & Philpott, 2023; Aubrey et al., 2022; Dao, 2019; Dao & Sato, 2021; Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert et al. 2023; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Lambert et al., in press; Nakamura et al., 2021; Stroud, 2017; Qui & Lo, 2017; Qui, & Bui, 2022).

Engendering high levels of social, cognitive, and behavioral engagement is seen as a priority for language teachers (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020). TBLT research investigating this issue has primarily been concerned with how task design features (e.g., task topic, type and content) can be manipulated to enhance learners' personal investment in task performance (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Nakamura et al., 2021; Phung, 2017). However, it is necessary to build on this research foundation to also understand how teachers might

implement tasks within a TBLT course to promote engagement. Such course-based considerations necessarily include repeating and sequencing tasks, which bring their own effects on learner engagement (e.g., Kim, 2013; Qiu & Lo, 2017). Furthermore, existing task engagement research has typically focused on face-to-face (FTF) settings, with little attention paid to learners' involvement in tasks within technology-mediated environments. Given the surge in online learning (Al Shlowi et al., 2021) and the unique features of online tools to support task-based learning (Chong & Reinders, 2020), more evidence-based recommendations for implementing online task-based courses successfully are needed (Smith & Ziegler, 2023).

One intervention which may enhance task engagement over time is the use of goal-tracking. This consists of asking learners to evaluate their task performances based on specific criteria of success determined by a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) or established standards of importance (Lambert, 2023a). In contrast to other forms of reflective practice, which typically rely on learners' own intuition of what they think is needed to improve in future performance (Dao et al., 2020; Khezrlou, 2021), goal-tracking focuses learners' attention on explicit benchmarks of success so they can track their improvement over repeated performances. The current study examines how goal-tracking based on criteria established by a TBNA impacted English language learners' engagement during a fully online TBLT course at a university in Thailand. To determine the impact of goal tracking on task engagement, verbal indicators of engagement in language use (ELU) (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Aubrey, 2023) during task performance were collected before and after a TBLT module for a group that participated in goal-tracking and a group that reflected on how to improve their own performances.

6.2   Literature Review

6.2.1 Task Engagement

Engagement in learning is associated with action, effort, and active involvement (Christenson et al., 2012; Fredricks et al., 2019), and it has long been considered a construct that predicts desirable academic outcomes (Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Fredricks et al., 2004). In a TBLT classroom setting, specifically, "engagement is a useful lens for L2 researchers seeking to understand how and why individuals focus on, interact within, and learn from tasks" (Hiver & Wu, 2023, p. 74).

Early research conceptualized task engagement in terms of behavioral engagement, or active participation, measured by the number of words and/or turns produced during a task (Dörnyei, 2002; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Kormos & Dörnyei, 2004). The rationale for operationalizing task engagement in this way was based on the idea that the more semantic content learners produce and the more they interact with one another, the more effort they are investing. However, more recent research has begun to recognize that task engagement is also related to the quality of learners' language production, which reflects social and cognitive aspects of language use (Svalberg, 2009; 2018). To account for this complexity, Philp and Duchesne (2016) conceptualized task engagement as a multidimensional construct, which includes behavioral, cognitive, social, and emotional dimensions. While the emotional aspects of engagement relate to the emotions that arise during task performance (e.g., enjoyment, anxiety) and tend to be measured with self-reports (e.g., Baralt et al., 2016; Dao & Sato, 2021; Nakamura et al., 2021), behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement have been operationalized with discourse analytic measures which, together, have been referred to as Engagement in Language Use (ELU) (Lambert et al. 2017).

Lambert and Aubrey (2023) provide a recent overview of the ELU framework. They describe *behavioral engagement* as learners' active involvement and persistence in completing tasks, as reflected by the time learners invest in task performance or the amount of language that they produce (Lambert et al., 2017; Nakamura et al., 2021). Accounting for the quality of learners' behavior, *cognitive engagement* refers to the mental effort that learners invest in task performance, evidenced by language-related episodes (LREs) (attention directed toward language issues) (Swain & Lapkin, 1998) or by negotiation of content (attention directed toward clarifying or elaborating content) (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019). Finally, *social engagement* refers to the use of language that serves affiliative functions by encouraging and supporting an interlocutor or by showing empathy or personal interest in what the person is saying (backchannels or non-verbal behaviors) (Gregersen, 2023; Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Phung, 2017). It is important to note that behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement are interdependent, rather than independent constructs (Christenson et al., 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). For example, a learner who displays high social engagement (e.g., acknowledging an interlocutor) is likely to also exhibit high behavioural engagement (e.g., being talkative) and cognitive engagement (e.g., providing and responding to feedback). Thus, task engagement studies often use ELU measures to understand the relationships between dimensions under different task design or task implementation conditions (e.g., Dao, 2021; Nakamura et al., 2021; Phung, 2017; Qiu & Lo, 2017; Qiu & Cheng, 2022).

Task engagement research has mostly focused on how changes in task design features (e.g., task topic, task type, task content) impact learner engagement during task performances (e.g., Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Nakamura et al., 2021; Qiu & Lo, 2017). A common finding is that giving learners choice over topic (Nakamura et al., 2021) or having them generate their own content to be used in a task (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang,

2019) increases the amount of language produced, time invested in the task, content negotiated, use of socially sensitive language, and learner enthusiasm (for similar findings on the effect of learner preferences, see Phung, 2017; Qiu & Lo, 2017). However, engagement also seems to be mediated by the type of task that learners perform. Dao (2021), for instance, found that a decision-making task encouraged learners to engage more socially with each other compared to opinion-sharing tasks. Dao explained that the task goal requirement in decision-making tasks encouraged learners to offer more mutual support than an equivalent task that does not require learners to converge on a decision. Likewise, Qiu and Cheng (2022) found that learners spent a longer time, exhibited more turn-taking (behavioural engagement) and more frequently negotiated language issues (cognitive engagement) in collaborative storytelling tasks than in collaborative opinion-exchange tasks. Similar to Dao (2021), Qiu and Cheng (2022) explained that the convergent nature of the storytelling task (i.e., to agree on elements of a story) led to higher levels of learner involvement.

The current study adopts the ELU framework to focus on an under-researched task type in task engagement research, an information-transfer task (Nation, 1998). Furthermore, in contrast to much engagement research that has examined variations in task design, we investigate the impact of a task implementation condition, *goal-tracking*, that involves a post-task reflective practice in which learners evaluate their performances in reference to successful performance criteria.

6.2.2. Reflective Learning Practice

Reflective learning practices require learners to consciously think and analyse their past learning experience for the purpose of achieving a future outcome (Kolb, 2014, 1984; Schon, 1983). Reflective learning can also be viewed as a cycle, in which learners (1) complete an activity, (2) observe and reflect on

the activity, (3) form abstract concepts or strategies for improvement, and (4) apply those strategies to new experiences (Kolb, 1984). Reflective learning practices are considered valuable as they promote learners' self-regulation strategies through monitoring and evaluation of their own learning (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007).

Applied to TBLT, reflective learning practices can involve post-task activities that encourage learners to reflect retrospectively and introspectively on their task performance (Ellis et al., 2020). For example, Khezrlou (2021) carried out a post-task reflection after the first of three narrative tasks where learners were asked to complete a questionnaire that asked them about their attitudes towards the task, how they felt about their performance and their opinions on how they can improve. It was found that learners' tended to reflect on language issues in their initial performance, leading to improved accuracy in subsequent tasks. Similarly, Dao et al. (2020) implemented a reflection intervention after a picture-sequencing and problem-solution task performance to promote attention to form. The intervention also involved a questionnaire, but guided learners by including specific questions on the extent they attended to language issues, causing them to focus on language form in a future task. A characteristic of these reflection interventions is that, rather than providing objective criteria, learners' rely on their own intuition of what they think is needed to improve their performances.

Other forms of reflective practice provide learners with more specific guidance, or goals. According to goal-setting theorists, effective reflection should include "aims of an action to attain a specific standard of proficiency" (Locke & Latham, 2002, p. 705). In other words, learners should have a specific goal in mind related to an ideal level of task competency that they are committed to achieving (Lee & Bong, 2019; Locke, 2000; Locke & Latham, 2006). In providing such goals, teachers might create explicit performance criteria themselves or create rubrics in collaboration with students (e.g., Kartchava & Nassaji, 2019). However, in the context of TBLT, Long (2015) recommends

providing students with task goals that are generated as part of a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) (e.g., performing a greeting, asking for information, confirming directions etc.). Formulating criterion-referenced benchmarks for successful task performance in this way may satisfy students' explicit learning goals to a greater extent than when expectations are based on teachers' or learners' own intuition (e.g., Bocanegra-Valle, 2016; Serafini et al., 2015). When these criteria are made available to learners, they might serve to clarify expectations and focus their efforts by breaking performances down into manageable parts.

In sum, there is evidence that reflective practice in TBLT can have positive effects on learners' future performances, particularly in terms of learners' attention to form. However, there are also arguments that learners need to be provided with objective and concrete goals in terms of criteria of success in order to bring their own performance in line with expected standards.

6.2.3 Goal-tracking

A reflective learning intervention that has been argued to promote task engagement is *Goal-tracking*, or asking learners to evaluate and track their performances on a learning task based on a goal, or a criterion of success, until the goal is attained (Lambert, 2023a). In contrast to other post-task reflection activities (e.g., Dao et al., 2020; Kartchava & Nassaji, 2019; Khezrlou, 2021), goal-tracking involves repeated interventions, each of which occurs between performances of the same task type. In this way, learners can incrementally 'track' improvements in their performance over time. Thus, the temporal aspect of Goal-tracking means that learner engagement may build over a series of tasks as the end goal is approached (Aubrey, 2022b; Ibrahim & Al-Hoorie, 2018; Dörnyei et al., 2015).

Goal achievement theory suggests that the quality of engagement in an activity, such as goal tracking, partly depends on one's goal orientation (e.g., Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Much of the empirical work on goal-

tracking suggests that learners adopt *performance-oriented goals*, in which the focus is on demonstrating ability in comparison to others (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014). Performance-oriented goal-tracking often include game-based elements in which learners accumulate points based on an achievement criterion, and points are used to compete with others (Dörner et al. 2016). For example, Reese and Wells (2007) report on how a card game and a scoring sheet can be used to promote engagement in English language debate tasks. Learners obtain points for using phrases for expressing opinions while completing pedagogic tasks and trying to raise their scores over time. More recently, Stroud (2017) researched the impact of such a card game used in conjunction with a series of opinion-sharing tasks. Learners were awarded points for performing functions during the task, which they accumulated across similar tasks during a course. Although there were some improvements in engagement, the 'goal-tracking' system failed to improve learners' social and cognitive engagement (e.g., making clarifications, requesting, opinion giving, disagreeing/agreeing, paraphrasing, providing help). It might be argued that the performance goal-orientation of learners (i.e., competitively collecting points) may have influenced engagement to a greater extent than the desire to improve their competence in performing the task (Diefenbach & Müssig, 2019; Domínguez et al., 2013).

In contrast to performance goals, *mastery* goal-orientation refers to one's aim to improve competence in comparison to intra-personally defined levels of competence (Belenky & Nokes-Malach, 2013). Applied to Goal-tracking in a TBLT environment, mastery goal-orientation involves reflecting on one's own task performances in relation to criteria for success as opposed to comparing one's performances with others. When learners track their progress towards mastery, they are likely to be intrinsically motivated in the task, resulting in meaningful task experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Mastery-goal adoption has clear advantages over performance-goal adoption, including higher overall achievement (Bong, 2009), more willingness to seek out assistance (Ryan &

Pintrich, 1997), and more effort invested (Miller et al., 1996). As achievement in TBLT is assessed based on criterion-referenced performance tests (Long, 2015), more research is needed to disambiguate goal-tracking based on criteria of successful task performance from gamified point accumulation.

6.3   The Present Study

The present study extends research on reflective practice by investigating EFL learners' ELU in Goal-tracking and Non-goal-tracking conditions. While the goal-tracking intervention encourages learners to adopt mastery goals by providing them with criteria of successful performance derived from a TBNA, the Non-goal-tracking requires learners to simply reflect on their performance without referencing such criteria (Khezrlou, 2021). These reflective practices were employed as post-task activities during a fully online TBLT module at a university in Bangkok, Thailand. The module was designed based on Robinson's (2010) SSARC model, a commonly used TBLT framework that sequences tasks from less to more complex in line with learners' developing abilities (Lambert, 2020; Lambert & Robinson, 2014; Robinson, 2010). However, the pedagogy within each lesson of the module is based on a PTP (Pre-Task, Task, Post-Task) Framework (Lambert, 2020). The following research questions guided the study:

(1) Does the TBLT module used in the study result in increased engagement in pedagogic task performance?

(2) Does criterion-based goal-tracking after each task performance during the TBLT module result in higher task engagement than self-reflection without criterion-based goal-tracking?

6.4 Method

6.4.1 Participants

Participants in the study were 78 first-year English for International Communication (EIC) majors at a university in Thailand. They ranged in age from 18 to 20 (M = 18.26; SD = 0.59). Based on the background information provided by the university admissions office, their English proficiency level ranged from high-beginning to high intermediate (CEFR A2- B2) (Council of Europe, 2001). These participants volunteered to take part in a one-week online TBLT module that used interactive pedagogic tasks to improve spoken English communication skills in line with their future needs in customer service positions in Thailand such as hotels, banks, spas, and recreation centers. The module provided the context for this study in which learners participated in either Goal-tracking (GT) or Non-goal-tracking (NGT) self-reflections after interactive tasks (n = 40, n = 38, respectively). Informed consent was obtained from all participants before the start of the module.

6.4.2 Design

This study employed a between-groups, quasi-experimental design. Participants were randomly assigned to either the GT group (34 females; 6 males) or the NGT group (33 females; 5 males). The independent variable in the study is therefore the post-task reflection with two levels (GT and NGT). To facilitate the delivery of the online TBLT module, participants were further divided into 10 classes (five classes per group) taught as separate classes by five Thai English teachers. To control for variation in teacher characteristics, each teacher taught one group in each condition. During the TBLT module, learners performed six interactive tasks each day for four days. After each task performance, learners evaluated themselves in one of two ways: Learners in the GT group self-evaluated

based on eight criteria of successful task performance (i.e., Goal-tracking) as determined by a task-based needs analysis (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press) while learners in NGT group completed the same tasks but were given a questionnaire which asked them to reflect on their performance and how to improve it (i.e., Non-goal-tracking) similar to Khezrlou (2021). Differences in improvement in ELU (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023) in the task performances between the two groups were measured using a task administered as a pre-test and post-test to all 78 learners before and after the TBLT module. A summary of the design is shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1

Design of the Study

Day		GT Group (N = 40)					NGT Group (N = 38)				
		Class Sizes									
		(8)	**(8)**	**(8)**	**(8)**	**(8)**	**(8)**	**(8)**	**(8)**	**(8)**	**(6)**
1	→	Interactive Task (Pre-Test Performance)									
2	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
3	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
4	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
5	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
6	→	Interactive Task (Post-Test Performance)									

The dependent variables in the study were six measures of ELU on the pre-test and post-test: measures of behavioral engagement were the number of words and turns produced by learners on task, measures of cognitive engagement were negotiation of meaning sequences and elaborations, and measures of social engagement were affiliative and non-affiliative backchannels (for examples of these indicators, see Analysis, Table 6.5). Pre-test ELU scores for the respective groups did not differ significantly (Pillai's Trace = .054, $F(4,74) = 1.41$, $p = .245$,

partial $\eta2 = .05$), indicating that the two groups were initially comparable in terms of their ELU on the pedagogic tasks which formed the focus on the module before the treatment.

6.4.3 Materials

The materials for the study consisted of the TBLT module, self-evaluation forms for each group, and the 'exit task' for the module (Long, 2015) which served as a pre-test and post-test.

6.4.3.1 TBLT Module

The TBLT module was implemented fully online using *Google Meet* conferencing software and LINE messaging software. The module consisted of four 90-minute lessons (Lessons 1 to 4), each of which centered around an interactive, information-transfer task that required learners to use English to give directions to specific places on maps. This 'Giving Directions' task was performed in pairs, in which one learner took the role of an employee and gave directions in English to the second learner, who took the role of the customer and asked for directions. This task was identified as critical for the future needs of EIC majors entering the customer service industry in Thailand based on a TBNA (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). The TBLT module was based on Robinson's (2010) framework that sequenced tasks from less to more complex in line with learners' developing capacities to complete them. The implementation and rationale for the framework is described below.

In the TBLT module, tasks gradually increased in complexity across the four lessons (Long, 2015; Robinson, 2011) based on three sequencing criteria: (1) authenticity, or from simple to authentic maps, (2) scale, or from smaller to larger areas with progressively more elements, and (3) transport, or from one to multiple modes of transportation and transits. As can be seen in Table 6.2, there were four versions of the task across the TBLT module. Increasing the task

complexity in this way is believed to initially encourage learners to focus on meaning, while subsequent more complex versions allowed learners to direct their attention to the linguistic form within an already familiar context (Robinson, 2011).

Table 6.2

Complexity Sequence of the TBLT Module

Sequencing Criteria	Lesson 1 (Day 2)	Lesson 2 (Day 3)	Lesson 3 (Day 4)	Lesson 4 (Day 5)
	Simplest Task ⟵————————⟶			Most Complex Task
Authenticity	Simplified maps	Simplified maps	Authentic maps	Authentic maps
Scale	Small Area, Few Elements	Small Area, Few Elements	Large Area, More Elements	Large Area, More Elements
Transport	One mode of transport/transit	Two modes of transport/transit	Two modes of transport/transit	Three modes of transport /transit

Procedural repetition was performed between lessons (same task type but different levels of map complexity), but exact repetition was performed within each lesson (same task type and map content) (Kim, 2013). Each lesson was divided into three stages based on the PTP framework (Lambert, 2022). During the first stage, learners were provided with five minutes of planning before performing the interactive task with a partner for the first time. During the five-minute planning, students read the worksheet and studied the maps independently. The students completed the tasks in Google Meeting with the camera turned off for personal reasons. A pilot study was conducted prior to the main study. The pilot groups of learners showed that planning time and time to perform task were sufficient for task completion. The task was then repeated twice with different partners as shown in Figure 6.1. The learners had four minutes to perform each round. With each new partner, learners took turns as listener and speaker. Repeating the exact same task in this way has been shown

to lead to more fluent performances, with three performances, specifically, leading to optimal fluency effects (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert, 2023b).

Figure 6.1

Task Repetition Pattern
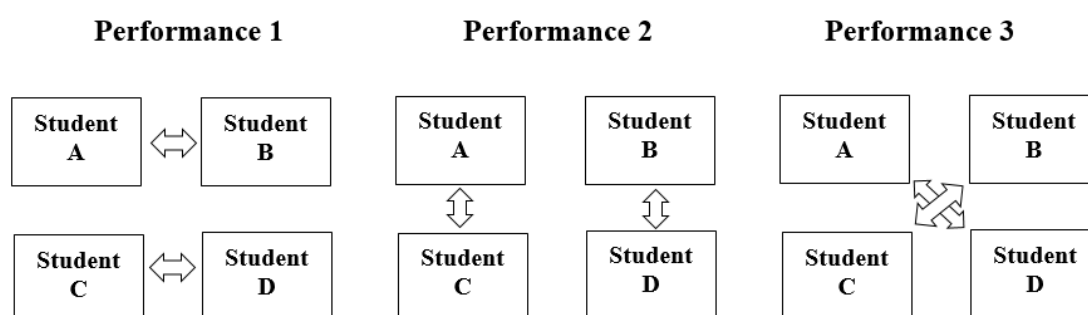
Performance 1	Performance 2	Performance 3

```
Performance 1              Performance 2              Performance 3

┌─────────┐   ┌─────────┐  ┌─────────┐   ┌─────────┐  ┌─────────┐   ┌─────────┐
│ Student │⇔│ Student │  │ Student │   │ Student │  │ Student │   │ Student │
│    A    │   │    B    │  │    A    │   │    B    │  │    A    │   │    B    │
└─────────┘   └─────────┘  └─────────┘   └─────────┘  └─────────┘   └─────────┘
                                ⇕             ⇕
┌─────────┐   ┌─────────┐  ┌─────────┐   ┌─────────┐  ┌─────────┐   ┌─────────┐
│ Student │⇔│ Student │  │ Student │   │ Student │  │ Student │   │ Student │
│    C    │   │    D    │  │    C    │   │    D    │  │    C    │   │    D    │
└─────────┘   └─────────┘  └─────────┘   └─────────┘  └─────────┘   └─────────┘
```

After the first three performances, the second stage consisted of two supplementary listening and reading input-based tasks so that learners could compare their own performances to model input. The reading input were texts from a local transportation company website and listening input were YouTube videos of a fluent Thai speaker giving directions to a foreigner in English. The input-based tasks required learners to move objects and write numbers or names of locations on a map based on their comprehension of the input (for an example, see Appendix E) and the discourse samples were based on an analysis of target discourse (ATD, Long, 2021) conducted as part of a TBNA (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). Such input stages have been suggested by TBLT scholars (Lambert, 2020; Lambert, 2022) as way to provide learners with opportunities to notice new language forms relevant to future task performances.

In the third stage, learners performed the same interactive tasks as in the first stage. The only difference is that learners asked for and gave directions for a different location on the map. Tasks were also performed with the same

interlocutors and in the same repetition pattern as shown in Figure 6.1. During Stage 3, it was thought that learners might incorporate new language forms noticed in Stage 2 (Lambert, 2020). Furthermore, the time gap from Stage 1 to 3 repetitions would require learners to engage in more effortful memory retrieval during initial Stage 3 performances, which may facilitate learning (Rogers, 2022).

In total, the interactive task was performed six times per lesson in each role (i.e., employee and customer). All task interactions on *Google Meet* were recorded using a record function for subsequent analysis. A summary of the TBLT module is shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

The TBLT module

	Day 2 Lesson 1	Day 3 Lesson 2	Day 4 Lesson 3	Day 5 Lesson 4
Simpler Tasks --- > Complex Tasks				
Stage 1	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3
Stage 2	Input-Based Task Sequence	Input-Based Task Sequence	Input-Based Task Sequence	Input-Based Task Sequence
Stage 3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3

6.4.3.2 Self-Evaluation Forms

Following each interactive task performance in the TBLT module, learners in both groups completed a brief self-evaluation. The GT group completed a criterion-referenced self-evaluation as shown in Table 6.4. The GT self-evaluation form is made up of criteria for performance that represent the common sub-steps for successful task completion. As per Long's (2015) recommendation,

these criteria were determined by an ATD as part of the TBNA (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press).

Table 6.4

Criterion-referenced Self-evaluation Form for GT Group

Giving Directions	Score
When you were the employee	
1 Did you greet customer with a standard greeting?	0 – 1
2 Did you acknowledge customer's problem?	0 – 1
3 Did you clarify the customer's mode of transportation?	0 – 1
4 Did you explain route using visible landmarks?	0 – 1
5 Did you clarify distances in minutes, meters, stops, streets, etc.?	0 – 1
6 Did you offer additional support?	0 – 1
7 Did you confirm the customer has understood key information?	0 – 1
8 Did you close with a standard closing, thanking the customer?	0 – 1
Score as Employee	**___/8**
When you were the customer	
1 Did you respond to the employee's greeting?	0 – 1
2 Did you explain where you are wand where you wanted to go?	0 – 1
3 Did you explain how you intend to go there?	0 – 1
4 Did you repeat the directions, confirming any landmarks?	0 – 1
5 Did you ask for clarification or confirm details regarding distances?	0 – 1
6 Did you identify the destination successfully?	0 – 1
7 Did you clarify words or terms you didn't understand?	0 – 1
8 Did you close by thanking the employee for the directions?	0 – 1
Score as Customer	**___/8**

In contrast, the NGT group were provided with a 3-item questionnaire which asked to rate their enjoyment (*Did you enjoy doing the task?*) and anxiety (*Were you anxious during the task?*) on 10-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 10 = strongly agree) and answer the following question in writing in their L1 (Thai), "*If you could do the task again, what would you do to improve your performance?*". Thus, the questionnaire simply required learners to reflect

on their task performance but did not provide them with concrete goals to work towards.

Across the module, each learner completed a total of 24 self-evaluation forms, corresponding to the 24 interactive task performances in either the GT or NGT condition. These forms were digitalized using *Google Sheets* and access links were shared with participants through LINE. Google Sheets allowed learners in the GT group to track their scores by revisiting the document online. It also allowed the teacher to verify that all learners had completed all self-evaluations.

6.4.3.3 Pre- and Post-tests

The pre-test and post-test for the module represented a fully complex version of the interactive task or 'exit tasks' which served to assess learners' abilities to perform the tasks successfully at criterion levels (Long, 2015). The two tasks were parallel versions, with different locations on maps, but the same level of complexity. In other words, both involved the use of two authentic maps of large areas with many elements and three modes of transport or transit (see Appendix F). The pre-task was performed on Day 1 (a day before the first TBLT lesson) and the post-task was performed on Day 6 (a day after the last TBLT lesson) in the same manner as the TBLT module (i.e., using Google Meets, LINE). Each test involved two performances so that learners could alternate roles as employee and customer. Both tests were completed with the same interlocutors.

6.4.4 Analysis

Pruned transcriptions were made of the 78 pre-test and 78 post-test performances, so filled pauses, false starts, hesitations, and reformulations were excluded (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). All 156 task performances were coded for ELU. Behavioral engagement was operationalized as the number of words and turns taken to complete the task. Cognitive engagement was operationalized as

(1) negotiation of meanings sequences, which included instances of asking additional details, clarifying meanings, and confirmation checking, and (2) elaborations, which included expanded semantic content on the information-transfer task, such as adding details, suggestions, reasons, and opinions (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023). Social engagement included affiliative backchannels or moves on the part of the listener going beyond acknowledgement of comprehension to show support, encouragement, empathy, or surprise. Finally, simple backchannels included acknowledgements of comprehension only. Examples of ELU measures are provided in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5

Examples of ELU Measures

Negotiation of meanings	Listener: I want to see you, but I don't know how to get there.
	Speaker: Do you want to see me? Where are you now? (*asking additional details*)
	Listener: I'm at Siam station.
	Speaker: Is it MRT or BTS? (*confirmation checking*)
	Listener: I think it's a train station.
	Speaker: Do you mean an underground train? (*clarifying meaning*)
Elaborations	Speaker: Take the train to Mangkorn station and change to the blue line.
	Listener: Oh, I see.
	Speaker: I think it's faster to take the blue line (*suggestion*).

	Speaker: When you arrive at the Ratchathewi, you can get on the bus.
	Listener: Yes.
	Speaker: And the bus number you can get on are 16 and 23 (*adding details*).
Simple backchannels	Speaker: Go straight and turn left.
	Listener: Yes (*acknowledgment*).
	Speaker: You will then see the orange building.
	Listener: Ok, orange building (*repetition*).
Affiliative backchannels	Speaker: I think it's really far.
	Listener: Oh, really? (*surprise*)

> Speaker: You cannot walk!
>
> Listener: Ha Ha, I was thinking. (*laughing*)

The first author and an American EFL teacher at the university where the study was conducted independently coded ten learners' transcripts from both groups (25% of the database). Cohen's kappa coefficients indicated an acceptable degree of inter-rater reliability (0.7-1.0 on all measures) (Cohen, 1988). The first author then coded the remaining performances.

After initial data screening to confirm normality and homogeneity of variance, it was found that most scores were positively skewed and often kurtotic. In most cases, this was corrected through square root transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p.87).   However, this was not possible with affiliative backchannels and elaborations as these score distributions contained predominately zero values. This was because the task was a simple transactional task associated with a workplace needs analysis and the focus was on effective and efficient information transfer. Voluntary elaboration of the conversation and displays of affiliation were out of place as the conversations were not personal. Therefore, ELU on this transactionally focused occupational task was reflected in number of words, turns, simple backchannels indicating comprehension and negotiation to make the meaning clear rather than elaboration or affiliation based on personal interest (Skehan, 2023). This can be contrasted with tasks used in previous ELU research that has tended to employ tasks which engage learners at the personal level through learner-generated content (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Lambert et al., in press).

Finally, a GLM repeated measures test was run in SPSS version 27 on the four remaining dependent variables (words, turns, negotiation of meaning sequences, backchannels) with Test (pre/post) and Group (GT, NGT) as a grouping variable. A qualitative analysis of representative excepts from pre-test

and post-test task performances was conducted to further illuminate the impact of Goal-tracking and self-reflection, respectively, on learners' discourse.

6.5   Results

6.5.1 Quantitative Results

Table 6.6 summarizes the mean scores for both groups before and after the treatments.

Table 6.6

Descriptive Statistics for Groups on Pre- and Posttests (Untransformed)

Test	Group	N	Words		Turns		NoM		BCs	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Pre	GT	40	72.22	56.38	4.27	4.94	0.90	1.48	0.13	0.34
	NGT	38	61.89	54.24	3.34	4.17	0.87	1.61	0.00	0.00
Post	GT	40	141.90	56.93	7.97	5.29	2.05	2.01	0.83	1.50
	NGT	38	110.71	43.14	4.58	2.61	0.97	0.94	0.16	0.44

Notes. NoM = negotiation of meanings, BCs = backchannels, GT = goal-tracking, NG = non-goal-tracking

Using Pillai's Trace, significant and large multivariate main effects were found for Test (pre, post) $[F(6,71) = 24.421, p < .001, ^p\eta^2 = .674]$ and significant and medium multivariate main effects were found for Group (GT, NGT) $[F(6, 71) = 2.4, p = .036, ^p\eta^2 = .169]$. When the analysis was split for groups, significant multivariate main effects for Test were found for both GT $[F(6, 34) = 16.402, p < .001, ^p\eta^2 = .743]$ and NGT $[F(4, 34) = 14.282, p < .001, ^p\eta^2 = .627]$. These effects suggest that completion of the TBLT module had a significant effect on ELU regardless of group, but that criterion-referenced goal tracking resulted in a larger effect on ELU than simple self-reflection and performance, resulting in significant differences in ELU between groups on the posttest. Finally, the multivariate analysis revealed no significant main effect for

interaction between Test and Group [$F(6, 71) = 2.197$, $p = .053$, $^P\eta^2 = .157$], indicating that effects of TBLT were comparable across groups.

Post-hoc univariate tests split for groups using Pillai's Trace further illuminated the robustness of the main effects reported in the previous paragraph with respect to each measure of ELU. In terms of gains between the pre-test and post-test, both groups increased, but the magnitude of increase was greater for the GT group than the NGT group for all measures. This included number of words produced (GT: $F = 87.416$, $p < .001$, $^P\eta^2 = .691$; NGT: $F = 53.442$, $p < .001$, $^P\eta^2 = .591$), number of turns produced (GT: $F = 54,112$, $p < .001$, $^P\eta^2 = .581$; NGT: $F = 11.429$, $p = .002$, $^P\eta^2 = .236$), number of negotiation of meaning sequences (GT: $F = 33,477$, $p < .001$, $^P\eta^2 = .462$; NGT: $F = 2.667$, $p = .111$, $^P\eta^2 = .067$), and backchannels produced (GT: $F = 11.204$, $p = .002$, $^P\eta^2 = .223$; NGT: $F = 5.459$, $p < .025$, $^P\eta^2 = .129$).

In sum, both groups showed significant gains on each measure between the pre-test and the post-test except the NGT group which showed no significant increase in NoM. Thus, the primary difference was that the GT group engaged in more NoM on the post-test than the pre-test, and the NGT group did not. Furthermore, magnitude of the gains in ELU between pre-test and post-test were consistently larger for the GT group than for the NGT group. Figure 2-5 illustrate these differences in pre-test and post-test performance in each group.

Figure 6.2

Gains in Words Produced for Groups between Pre-Test and Post-Test
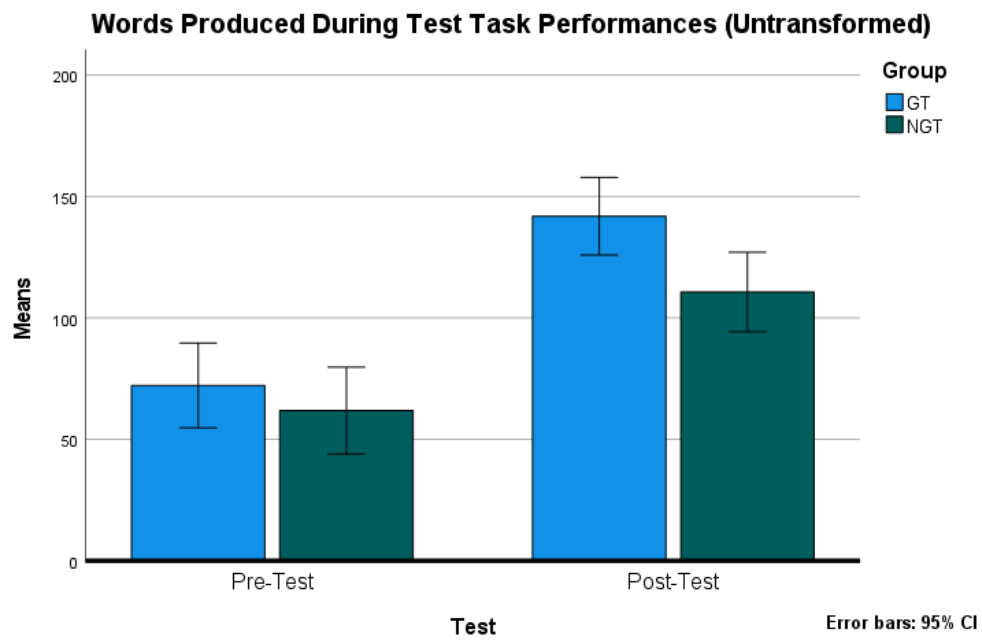
Figure 6.3

Gains in Turns Produced for Groups between Pre-Test and Post-Test
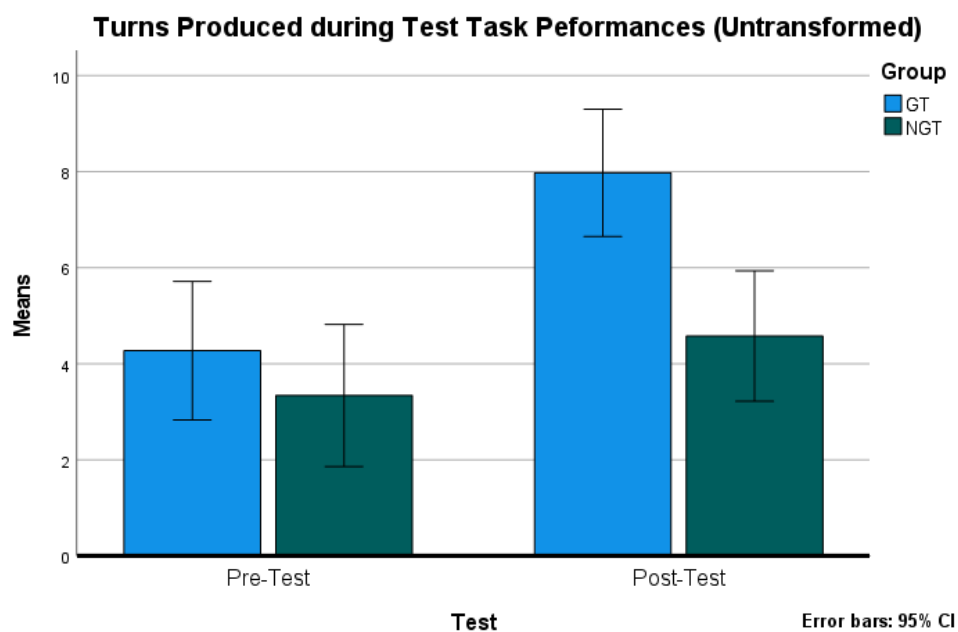
Figure 6.4

Gains in Negotiation of Meaning for Groups between Pre-Test and Post-Test
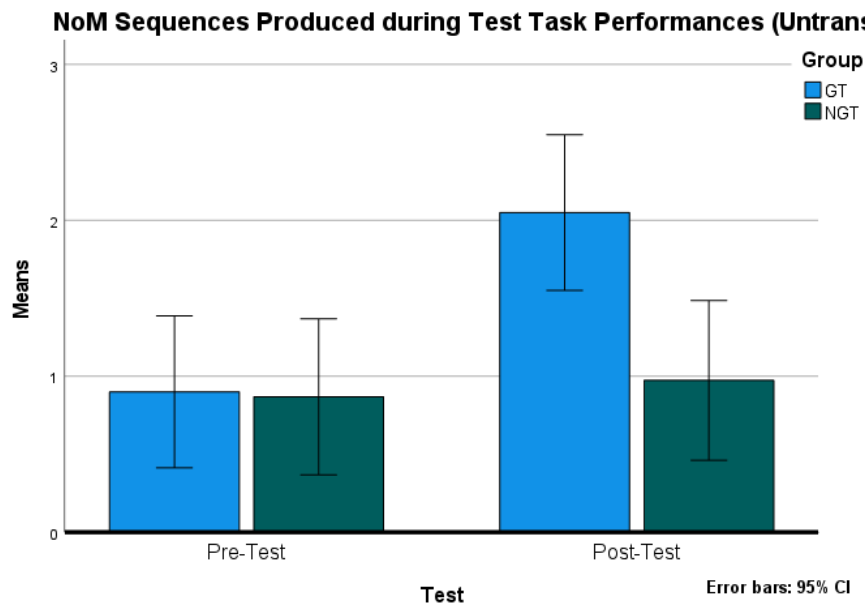
Figure 6.5

Gains in Backchannels for Groups between Pre-Test and Post-Test
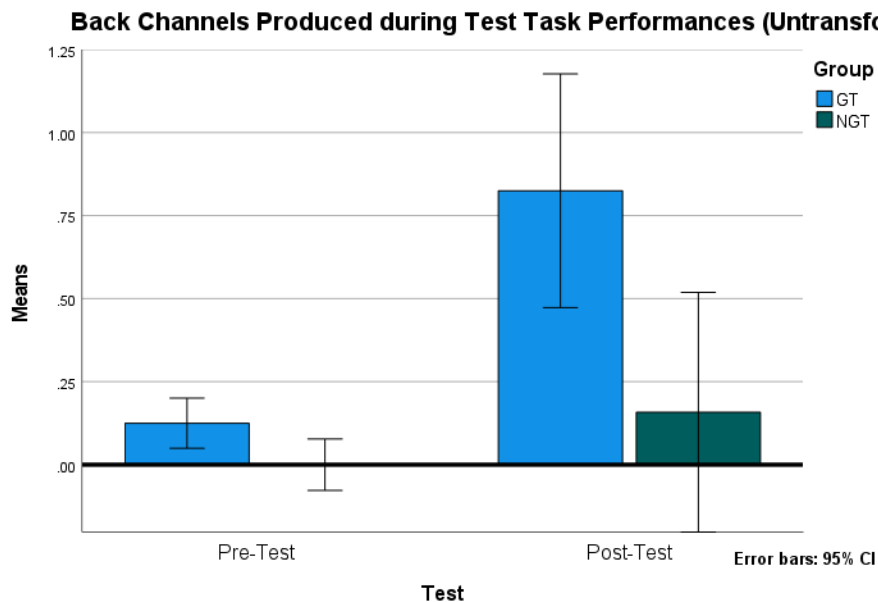
Thus, learners who received the criterion-based goal-tracking intervention across the TBLT module became more engaged in the pedagogic task that was

the focus on the module than learners who simply self-reflected on their own task performances and thought about how to improve them for the same amount of time.

6.5.2 Qualitative Results

Tables 6.7 and 6.8 qualitatively illustrate characteristic differences observed in pre-test and post-test performances in the GT group and NGT group, respectively.

In Table 6.7, the excerpts show how a pair from the GT group produced substantially more words and turns on the post-test than on the pre-test. For example, compared to the pre-test, the learner in the role of the employee elaborates on her introduction, introducing herself by name and signals the time of day in her introduction in the post-test. The same learner also asks more questions in the post-test to elicit details, clarification and confirmation (*Ok, is that MRT? Do you want me to repeat again? Where are you now?*) which provokes more elaborated responses from her interlocutor.

Table 6.7

Discourse Sample from a Goal-tracking Dyad

Pre-test	Post-test
Employee: Hello, it's Bangkok bank center. Can I help you?	Employee: Good morning, sir. It's Bangkok bank, Arita speaking. How may I help you?
Caller: I have a business in your bank, so I need to know how I get to the Bangkok Bank?	Caller: I'd like to go to the Bangkok bank but I don't have any idea how to get there. Could you tell me how to go to the Bangkok bank?
Employee: Ok, where are you now? (**NoM**)	
Caller: Now, I'm at Fai Chai station, BL3.	Employee: Yes, I can. Where are you now? (**NoM**)
Employee: You take the MRT to Wat Mangkorn station. It's BL29. From BL3 to BL29, to Wat Mangkorn station.	Caller: Now, I am at Fai Chai station.
	Employee: Ok, is that MRT? (**NoM**)
	Caller: Yes.
	Employee: You start from Fai Chai station. You take the MRT to Tha Phra station, it's the interchange. After that you take the MRT from Tha Phra to Wat Mangkorn station. It's BL29.
	Caller: Ok.

Employee: You will pass about four stations. Do you want me to repeat again? (**NoM**)

Notes. NoM = negotiation of meaning

In comparison, Table 6.8 presents an excerpt of the pre-tests and post-tests on a pair of learners from the NGT group. They also demonstrated more ELU on the post-test than on the pre-test. However, this was more limited. For example, the learner in the role of the employee asked about the caller's location on the pre-test and only added an additional question regarding mode of transportation on the post-test. In contrast, the learner in the role of the customer asked for directions to the bank and asked about the distance from the train station to the destination on both the pre-test and the post-test. The quality of the NGT group thus differed from the GT group.

Table 6.8

Discourse Sample from a Non-goal-tracking Dyad

Pre-test	Post-test
Caller: Could you tell me how to get to your bank, please?	Caller: Could you please tell me how to get to the bank please?
Employee: Certainly, where are you now? (**NoM**)	Employee: Yes, but could I ask you what transportation you will use? (**NoM**)
Caller: I'm currently at Fai Chai Station.	Caller: I will use the underground railway, MRT.
Employee: Ok, you should take MRT Blue line from Fai Chai Station and get off at Wat Mankron Station. It's only six station from Fai Chai.	Employee: Ok, MRT. Where are you now? (**NoM**)
	Caller: Currently, I'm at Fai Chai station.
	Employee: Ok, you take MRT Blue line and get off at Wat Mangkorn station. It's 6th station from Fai Chai station. When you arrive at Wat Mangkorn station, you use exit number 2 and you turn to the second entrance and walk to your right. Keep going straight and turn left onto Mangkorn road. Keep going straight, you will see an intersection.

Notes. NoM = negotiation of meaning

6.6 Discussion

The first research question asked if participation in the TBLT module would result in increased engagement in pedagogic task performance. Results revealed that, regardless of whether learners completed Goal-tracking or Non-goal-tracking reflections, completion of the TBLT module had a significant effect on ELU ($p = .036$). In fact, both groups significantly improved on three out of four ELU measures, including words (GT: $p < .001$; NGT: $p = .002$), turns (GT: $p < .001$; $p = .002$; NGT: $p = .002$), and backchannels produced (GT: $p = .002$; NGT: $p < .025$). As the TBLT module was based on a framework that sequenced versions of an information-transfer task in terms of increasing complexity (Robinson, 2010; Lambert & Robinson, 2014), these findings echo previous research that increasing task complexity can improve learners' engagement in oral task performance (Baralt et al., 2016; Qiu, 2022). However, it should be noted that only the GT group produced significantly more negotiation of meaning sequences after the TBLT module, suggesting that completion of the module itself has a selective impact on cognitive engagement. This is discussed in relation to the second research question.

The second research question asked whether criterion-based goal-tracking results in higher task engagement than simple self-reflection. Although there were significant gains overall in terms of ELU within both the criterion-referenced GT group ($p < .001$) and the NGT group ($p < .001$), each of the four ELU indicators for the GT group increased more than the NGT group in magnitude and had greater effect sizes (see Figures 6.2–6.5). Furthermore, while there were no significant increases from pre-test to post-test for negotiation of meaning for the NGT group ($p = .111$), the GT group produced significantly more negotiation of meaning sequences ($p < .001$). The advantages of the GT condition can be explained by goal-setting theory, which emphasizes that learners need specific aims of action, or carefully established criteria, to guide their future behaviour

(Lee & Bong, 2019; Locke, 2000; Locke & Latham, 2002). In particular, the significant improvement in cognitive engagement for the GT group might be attributed to reflection criteria that explicitly encouraged learners to negotiate for meaning (see Table 6.4, e.g., *clarify the customer's mode of transportation; clarify distances; confirm the customer has understood*). A comparison can be made with Dao et al.'s (2020) post-task reflection that also directed learners' reflection in a way that led to increased cognitive engagement in subsequent task performances (i.e., more LREs). In contrast, learners in the NGT group had no such guidance to direct their attention. As Elliot et al. (2011) argues, self-based reflections require more cognitive capacity than reflections based on established standards as learners must evaluate both their performance outcome and expected outcome simultaneously. It could be argued then that the lower cognitive engagement in the NGT condition also resulted from insufficient learner effort to identify performance weaknesses and conceptualize specific goals that were not yet achieved in performance (e.g., clarifying, confirming). Instead, learners may have reflected on less challenging issues, such as producing more language (behavioural engagement) without paying much attention to content provided by their interlocutor (cognitive engagement). This underscores the value of setting comprehensive and objective goals for learners during post-task reflections.

In addition, this study illustrates how Goal-tracking based on performance criteria can encourage mastery goal-orientation. During criterion-referenced goal-tracking, mastery goals are formed when learners focus on improving their own competencies in line with criterion-referenced benchmarks of success (Belenky & Nokes-Malach, 2013). This contrasts with Stroud's (2017) study that implemented a 'Goal-tracking' intervention in which learners kept track of accumulated points that they were awarded for participation in the task. Whereas such an implementation likely incentivized learners to gain points with the least amount of effort, the present study implemented Goal-tracking in a way that focused learners on improving aspects of their performance. This difference may

explain why Stroud's intervention failed to significantly improve learners' social and cognitive engagement on most measures (i.e., making clarifications, requesting, opinion giving, disagreeing/agreeing, paraphrasing, providing help). The present study therefore suggests that Goal-tracking based on explicit criteria of success should be distinguished from Goal-tracking based on gamified point accumulation (e.g., Reese & Wells, 2007; Stroud, 2017). While the former promotes mastery goal-orientation, the latter could be argued to promote performance goal-orientation only (i.e., comparing one's points with others). Implementing Goal-tracking with performance criteria may thus lead to touted benefits of mastery goal-orientation, such as high levels of effort invested (Diefenbach & Müssig, 2019; Domínguez et al., 2013) and high overall learning achievement (Bong, 2009). Furthermore, as criteria provide clear end-goals for achievement, learners might progressively increase their effort over time as they approach their idealized task performance (Aubrey, 2022b; Ibrahim & Al-Hoorie, 2018). Future research should collect engagement data during Goal-tracking interventions to verify such claims.

This study also revealed that ELU can vary depending on task type as indicated by the extremely low level of *affiliative* backchannels and elaboration of content in both GT and NGT groups (see Analysis section). Previous research has shown that affiliative backchannels, marked by empathy, enthusiastic tone or personal elaboration, and elaboration of content, marked by suggestions or voluntarily adding details, are important indicators of task engagement during decision-making or opinion-based tasks that involve the sharing of personal ideas and experiences (e.g., Aubrey & Philpott, 2023; Lambert et al. 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Nakamura et al., 2021; Phung, 2017; Qiu & Lo, 2017). Established ways for improving engagement on these tasks include conditions that facilitate learners' exposure to non-verbal communication cues during performance (e.g., Aubrey & Philpott, 2023) and design features that offer learners more choice over topics (e.g., Nakamura et al., 2021) and content (e.g., Lambert et al. 2017).

However, the present study suggests that such recommendations may not be as important for information-transfer tasks. The locus of engagement in the information-transfer task, Giving Directions, is not elaboration of ideas and empathy and encouragement through affiliative backchannels, but rather negotiation of meaning (e.g., confirming and clarifying directions), which captures the cognitive aspect of collaborative understanding information, and *simple* backchannels (e.g., hmm, okay, right), which captures the social aspect of showing understanding or being grateful for the information received. Thus, in contrast to tasks that involve sharing opinions, personal investment may be lacking in information-transfer tasks (for a similar claim, see also Skehan, 2023). Our study therefore provides evidence supporting the position that appropriate measures of task engagement depend on task type (e.g., Dao, 2021; Qiu & Cheng; 2022). In future research, Goal-tracking might be implemented with a broader range of task types to investigate whether ELU might manifest itself differently, especially during transactional tasks determined based on learners' occupational needs.

6.7   Conclusion

This study demonstrated the positive effects of an online TBLT module and a criterion-referenced goal-tracking system implemented within the online TBLT module on task engagement. The results indicated that the online TBLT module, which was sequenced in terms of increasing task complexity, had an overall positive effect on ELU regardless of whether learners engaged Goal-tracking or not. However, Goal-tracking across a TBLT module based on criteria of successful performance as determined by a TBNA led to significantly higher cognitive engagement (negotiation of meaning) whereas simply allowing learners to reflect on their own performance without providing them any performance criteria did not significantly improve cognitive engagement. This study highlights

the value of providing learners with performance criteria as a tool for reflection to improve learner engagement. This Goal-tracking approach represents a relatively unobtrusive intervention for sequenced tasks in that it does not require added elements to change the task (e.g., a card game, Reese & Wells, 2007). Furthermore, rather than incentivizing learners to focus on non-task-related rewards through gamification (e.g., accumulating points, Stroud, 2017), benefits came from learners self-monitoring and improving their task-related skills in line with criteria for successful task performance. If teachers seek to engage learners in pedagogic tasks while also improving goal-orientation and task-related skills, we recommend developing clear performance criteria for use in post-task self-assessment activities.

This study has some limitations, which should be addressed in future research. First, regarding the research design, the overall gains in engagement resulting from participation in the TBLT module may be in question due to a lack of a comparison group. That is, it is unknown whether the positive effect on engagement was from the sequencing of tasks in the module or other factors (e.g., increased interlocutor familiarity). Further studies that include a comparison group should be conducted. Second, the research is limited to learners' performance of a single task type (Giving Directions). Although this task was appropriately chosen to match the participants' needs in this context, learners engage with different task types differently (Qiu & Cheng, 2022) and different task types entail different goal orientations (Dao, 2021). Therefore, future research needs to investigate how Goal-tracking influences learners' engagement in other types of tasks (e.g., decision-making, information-sharing, input-based 'listen-and-do' tasks). Third, the length of the TBLT module was only four days, which might explain why the effects were not stronger. Future studies should try implementing Goal-tracking during semester-length courses in which learners can experience a gradual development in line with successful criteria. Fourth, this study did not collect data to measure learners' emotional engagement. Emotional

engagement, which pertains to learners' subjective response to the task, is an important dimension of the engagement construct (Baralt et al., 2016; Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and may explain the mechanism through which Goal-tracking can energize learners to participate in tasks. Future research might employ interviews or post-task questionnaires to probe how learners' emotions change throughout the Goal-tracking intervention period. Finally, although this research provides an example of how a TBLT module can be designed and implemented in an online environment, it does not explore learners' attitudes or learning challenges faced. Thus, we echo recent calls for more research in this vein to support teachers who wish to successfully implement and engage learners in technology mediated TBLT courses (Smith & Ziegler, 2023).

Chapter 7: Study 4

The Impact of Fully Online TBLT on Learners' Task Outcomes: Unhitching the 'Linguistic Caboose' from Task-based Assessment

7.1 Introduction

The present study investigates the extent to which task-based language teaching (TBLT), based on a task-based needs analysis (TBNA), using a PTP (Pre-task, Task, Post-task) framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024), can result in gains in the ability to perform tasks and captures change in the language that learners use to complete them. When learning a language, L2 learners acquire relevant language by completing pedagogic tasks that align with their linguistic knowledge. This could occur by allowing them to generate structures based on their own linguistic resources to meet specific communicative needs, notice the gaps in their current knowledge, and fill these gaps. In other words, learners acquire language in line with their internal syllabuses. From a cognitive perspective, researchers from both information-processing and usage-based perspectives have argued that L2 learning is driven by frequent and meaningful exposure to new language both in processing input and producing output (N. Ellis, 2002; Krashen, 1982; MacWhinney, 2001; Swain, 1985).

In task-based instructional design, tasks serve as the main component for selecting and sequencing course content. Long (2015, 2022) recommended that a primary step when choosing tasks for L2 course design is to conduct a task-based needs analysis (TBNA). A TBNA not only aims to create task typology deemed critical to learners' occupational needs but it is also possible to identify language surrounding task completion through an analysis of target discourse (ATD) (Hillman & Long, 2020), and criteria of success to be used in Task-based Language Assessment (TBLA) (Norris & East, 2021).

Regarding the aspect of learners' needs, Lambert (2024) pointed out that in TBLT instruction, L2 learners were either specific-needs learners (i.e.,

definable needs for using target tasks necessary to live, work, or study) or general-needs learners (i.e., needs for being beneficial by their parents or educational context in their countries). The learners who participated in the study were those whose critical target tasks were identifiable through the TBNA (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). Specifically, 'Giving Directions' happened to be the most critical occupational task necessary for their future careers. Successful criteria were also identified and served as non-linguistic benchmarks for assessing learners' task outcomes (i.e. abilities to perform the task based on criterion-referenced assessment).

In L2 classrooms, researchers have suggested various task-based methods to implement task-based teaching. These methods consist of three phases - Pre-task, Task, and Post-task, which are commonly known as the PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024; Skehan, 1996, 2009; Ellis & Shintani, 2013; Willis & Willis, 2007). The PTP framework focuses on the task itself and doesn't have a specific linguistic goal for each lesson or task. In other words, a primary concern is on "what can be done in lessons prior to, during, and after tasks are performed" (Lambert, 2020, p.15) to investigate the ability to perform tasks and capture change in the language that learners use to complete them. The implemented pedagogy in this study is based on a PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024). This framework is in line with Robinson's SSARC (2010) model of task sequencing in that tasks were ordered from less to more complex in line with learners' developing capacities to complete them.

In the following section, the researcher discussed assessment, particularly for specific-needs learners.

7.2   Literature Review

7.2.1 Criterion-referenced Assessment

"A caboose is a crewed North American railroad car coupled at the end of a freight train. Cabooses provide shelter for crew… who were formerly required … in keeping a lookout for load shifting, damage to equipment and cargo, and overheating axles… Cabooses were used on every freight train in the United States and Canada until the 1980s, when safety laws requiring the presence of cabooses… were relaxed" *(Wikipedia, 31 January 2023).*

Task-based performance tests differ from conventional summative language testing in that (a) the primary concern is on target tasks that learners need to be able to do, (b) learners' performance replicates the real-world language used around specific contexts, and (c) learners' task performance are rated with the same manner as those used in non-assessment settings (McNamara, 1996). This is to say that the primary concern is language as a tool rather than in terms of grammatical and lexical knowledge. For example, in a task where learners are required to use English to provide directions, a test will not aim to detect commonly used expressions or determine whether expressions like "Go straight and take the second left" are grammatically accurate or not. Instead, learners are assessed if they could successfully complete each subtask step of giving directions. Learners either do these steps or they do not.

Long (2015) points out that task-based performance tests in TBLT are criterion-referenced. The Criterion-referenced Assessment is an alternative assessment that "determines whether each student can or cannot perform the target tasks at a satisfactory level, i.e., to criterion" (p. 331). It aims to assess one learner's abilities rather than compare those of other learners. Long mentioned that a "linguistic 'caboose'" (2015: 331-334) could be attached to a Criterion-referenced Assessment. The original idea behind the linguistic caboose is that the

ultimate goals of language learning are often focused on mastering grammar and syntax, sometimes neglecting other critical aspects such as using an L2 language to communicate effectively and complete basic tasks. In L2 classrooms, learners' abilities to use a target language were often assessed and prioritized by linguistic accuracy over communication. This is also true in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Thailand in that the national-level assessment entitled ONET exams (Ordinary National Education Tests) primarily involve a test of language knowledge (such as vocabulary and grammar) (Watson et al., 2021, p.629). This suggests that technically proficient learners in L2 classrooms may struggle to use the L2 in real-life situations (Brown, 2005). TBLT, along with other communicative approaches, is considered appropriate for avoiding the use of non-functional language in L2 assessment. In other words, language teachers would advocate not attaching the 'caboose' to the task-based train of Criterion-referenced Assessment.

However, the Criterion-referenced Assessment also has some disadvantages. Firstly, as same as a performance-oriented language test, creating a Criterion-referenced Assessment demands additional time and effort. In an occupational need-driven program, for example, learners should be tested on tasks that simulate real-life situations they will encounter in their future careers using the target language. In this regard, the successful criteria are identified by domain experts through TBNA (Long, 2015), which adds additional steps for test designers. The Criterion-referenced Assessment also requires additional time to administer, resulting in increased costs for the administration and training parties involved (such as teachers, rater, and staff). Regarding language learning through task performance, as Norris and East (2021) stated, if the learners' knowledge or language abilities related to specific grammar rules or essential vocabulary for completing tasks are in question, alternative assessment methods may be more suitable than Criterion-referenced Assessment. Alternatively, types of

assessment, such as multiple-choice tests of grammar and vocabulary knowledge and discrimination exercises of minimal pairs, might better address the listed concern. This is not to say which type of assessment is more effective or preferable. Instead, assessment design should depend on lesson goals and ultimate learning outcomes.

7.2.2 Change in Language Use

In TBLT, Criterion-referenced Assessment was used to assess learners' task performance regarding task objectives and quantitative measures (e.g., pass or fail, did or did not). Another supplementary aspect to indicate whether the learning takes place as a result of TBLT is to measure the change in language use during tasks. As learners' L2 progressively change, these changes in language use could be identified in various aspects such as vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics.

Vocabulary: Learners simply start with a narrow set of vocabulary and gradually expand it after they are exposed to receptive input-based tasks (e.g., listening to a fluent Thai speaker giving directions to foreigners in English, or reading authentic English instruction from websites). Initially, learners may rely on their own vocabulary resources to convey simple ideas, however, they pick up more variety of words and expressions, allowing them to achieve the task more efficiently.

Grammar: Grammatical errors or mistakes are generally found in L2 learners' production. However, with exposure to sufficient L2 input and practice, learners gradually develop more accurate grammatical patterns. Even though grammatical accuracy is not the primary concern in task-based instruction, improved sentence formation and syntactic complexity could be taken as ways to measure L2 development.

Pragmatics: Determining the appropriate use of language regarding social and cultural contexts in communicative tasks is a primary focus for L2 pragmatics. Learners may find difficulties in using appropriate target language such as politeness and speech acts. However, in the TBLT classroom, pragmatics could be observed during learners' interaction in role-play situations, for example, greeting customers politely in customer service role-playing.

Overall, change in L2 learners' language use during their language development is a dynamic process that includes improvements in vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatic skills. With continued exposure, practice, and interaction in the L2 tasks, learners gradually develop more accurate, appropriate language use, and achieve task goals. The current study focuses on the aspect of assessing learners' abilities to perform their future occupational task- Giving Directions, based on Criterion-referenced Assessment pre-and-post testing scores. Observing changes in language use of the learners before and after exposure to TBLT helps understand its effects on their task outcomes.

7.3   Research Questions

The study aims to address the two research questions.

1. Does online TBLT positively impact the learners' Criterion-referenced Assessment scores?

2. How does online TBLT impact language use among the mixed group of learners?

7.4   Method

A task-based needs analysis (TBNA) was conducted for EIC majors prior to the study (see details in Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). A survey of the job placement records of the university revealed that the EIC graduates were

typically placed in customer service jobs such as hotels, spas, and airports. The task with the highest criticality for customer service positions in Bangkok turned out to be 'Giving Directions'. Thai learners entering the travel industry needed to be able to give directions in English to foreign customers within Bangkok.

7.4.1 Participants

The 2021 cohort of 78 English for International Communication (EIC) majors at Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon (RMUTP) in Bangkok, Thailand. These participants volunteered to take part in a one-week online TBLT module that used interactive pedagogic tasks to improve spoken English communication skills in line with their future needs in customer service positions in Thailand such as hotels, banks, spas, and recreation centers.

Based on the background information provided for university admission, the group contained mixed-ability students. Their English proficiency ranged from CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) to B1 (Low-Intermediate) level (Council of Europe, 2001). The majority of students participated in the online classes through personal smartphones, with some exceptions of PC or computer notebook users. Informed consent was obtained from all participants before the start of the module.

7.4.2 Design

This study employed a pre-post-test design based on the Criterion-referenced Assessment. The study's independent variable is the fully online TBLT module, which based on the PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024). The task selection of the module is based on the task type crucial to students' future careers- Giving Directions. To facilitate the delivery of the online TBLT module, participants were further divided into 10 classes (nine classes of eight, and a class

of six) taught as separate classes by five Thai English teachers (morning and afternoon sections). To control for variation in teacher characteristics, each teacher taught one group. During the TBLT module, learners performed six interactive tasks each day for four days. The dependent variable in the study was the learners' scores based on Criterion-referenced Assessments measured before and after the TBLT module. Changes in their language use were further described to understand the effect of the TBLT module on their task outcomes. A summary of the design is shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1

Design of the Study

Day		Class Sizes									
		(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(6)
1	→	Interactive Task (Pre-Test Performance)									
2	→	Pre-task x3, Task, Post-task x3									
3	→	Pre-task x3, Task, Post-task x3									
4	→	Pre-task x3, Task, Post-task x3									
5	→	Pre-task x3, Task, Post-task x3									
6	→	Interactive Task (Post-Test Performance)									

7.4.3 Instruments

The instruments for the study consisted of the Criterion-referenced Assessment, the TBLT module, and the 'exit task' for the module (Long, 2015) which served as a pre-test and post-test.

7.4.3.1 Criterion-referenced Assessment

The Criterion-referenced Assessment developed from the TBNA was used to assess the learners' performance on pre- /post-tests in the role of an employee in Giving Direction task. The learners' performance was rated based on the pragmatic moves of the two scales: Pass (P), and Fail (F). The form consisted of eight criteria which made up to eight scores in total (see Table 7.2).

Table 7.2

Criterion-referenced Assessment Checklist

1	Greets customer with a standard greeting	P – F
2	Acknowledges customer's problem	P – F
3	Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation	P – F
4	Explains route using visible landmarks	P – F
5	Clarifies distances in minutes, metres, stops, streets, etc.	P – F
6	Offers additional support	P – F
7	Confirms the customer has understood key information	P – F
8	Closes the conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer	P – F

7.4.3.2 TBLT Module

The TBLT module was implemented fully online using *Google Meet* conferencing software and LINE messaging software. The module comprised of four 90-minute lessons (Lessons 1 to 4), each of which centered around an interactive, information transfer task requiring learners to give directions to specific places on maps using English. This 'Giving Directions' task was performed in pairs, in which one learner took the role of an employee and gave directions in English to the second learner, who took the role of the customer and asked for directions. This task was identified as critical for the future needs of EIC majors entering the customer service industry in Thailand based on a TBNA (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). The TBLT module was based on Robinson's (2010) framework that sequenced tasks from less to more complex in

line with learners' developing capacities to complete them. The implementation and rationale for the framework is described below.

In the TBLT module, tasks gradually increased in complexity across the four lessons (Long, 2015; Robinson, 2011) based on three sequencing criteria: (1) authenticity, or from simple to authentic maps, (2) scale, or from smaller to larger areas with progressively more elements, and (3) transport, or from one to multiple modes of transportation and transits. As can be seen in Table 7.3, there were four versions of the task across the TBLT module. Increasing the task complexity in this way is believed to initially encourage learners to focus on meaning, while subsequent more complex versions allowed learners to direct their attention to the linguistic form within an already familiar context (Robinson, 2011).

Table 7.3

Complexity Sequence of the TBLT Module

Sequencing Criteria	Lesson 1 (Day 2)	Lesson 2 (Day 3)	Lesson 3 (Day 4)	Lesson 4 (Day 5)
	Simplest Task ←		→	**Most Complex Task**
Authenticity	Simplified maps	Simplified maps	Authentic maps	Authentic maps
Scale	Small Area, Few Elements	Small Area, Few Elements	Large Area, More Elements	Large Area, More Elements
Transport	One mode of transport/transit	Two modes of transport/transit	Two modes of transport/transit	Three modes of transport /transit

Each of the four lessons was divided into three phases according to the PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024). During the Pre-task phase, learners were provided with five minutes of planning before performing the interactive task with a partner for the first time. The task was then repeated twice with different partners as shown in Figure 7.1. Repeating the same tasks in this way has been

shown to lead to more fluent performances, with three performances, specifically, leading to optimal fluency effects (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert, 2023b).

Figure 7.1

Task Repetition Pattern
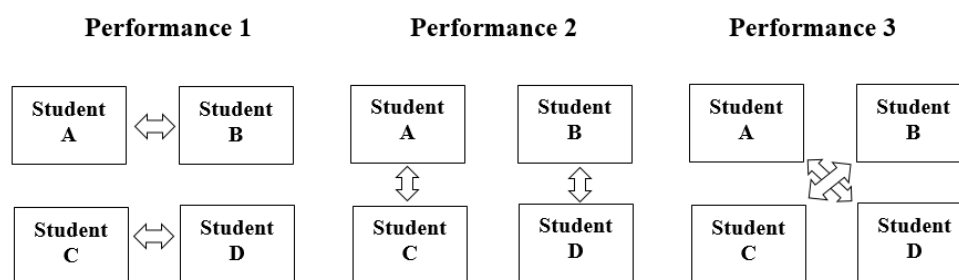
After the first three performances in the Pre-task phase, the Task phase consisted of two supplementary listening and reading input-based tasks which were implemented as a way for learners to compare their own performances to model input. The reading input involved texts on a local transportation company website and the listening input involved YouTube videos of a fluent Thai speaker giving directions to a foreigner in English. The input-based tasks required learners to move objects and write numbers or names of locations on a map based on their comprehension of the input (for an example, see Appendix E), and the discourse samples were based on an analysis of target discourse (ATD, Long, 2022) conducted as part of a task-based needs analysis (Lambert & Soongpankhao, in press). Such an input-based stage has been suggested by TBLT scholars (Lambert, 2020, 2022) as way to provide learners with opportunities to notice new language forms relevant to future task performances.

In the Post-task phase, learners performed the same interactive tasks as in the Pre-task phase. The only difference is that learners asked for and gave directions for a different location on the map. Tasks were also performed with the

same interlocutors and in the same repetition pattern as shown in Figure 7.1. During the Post-task phase, it was thought that learners might incorporate new language forms noticed in the Task phase (see Lambert, 2020, for a discussion of this framework for implementing tasks). Furthermore, the time gap between the Pre-task phase and the Post-task phase repetitions might require learners to engage in more effortful memory retrieval during initial performances in the Post-task phase, which may facilitate learning (Rogers, 2022).

In total, the interactive task was performed six times per lesson in each role (i.e., employee and customer). A summary of the TBLT module is shown in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4

The TBLT module

	Pre-task	Task	Post-task	
Day 2 (Lesson 1)	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Input-Based Task Sequence	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Simpler Tasks
Day 3 (Lesson 2)	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Input-Based Task Sequence	Interactive Task Sequence x3	
Day 4 (Lesson 3)	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Input-Based Task Sequence	Interactive Task Sequence x3	
Day 5 (Lesson 4)	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Input-Based Task Sequence	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Complex Tasks

7.4.3.3 Exit Task

The exit task was an online dialogic role-play of the Giving Directions task type. The roleplay was about a newly arrived foreigner (customer) who wanted to go to a bank in a metropolitan area in Bangkok. The customer made a phone call and asked for directions from the employee. Even though foreigners could search for directions from the internet or use online maps, following directions in Bangkok could be tremendously challenging. The employee must give directions to the customer over the phone in English based on the roleplaying situation indicated in the worksheet. The accessible web links to online maps were also provided. Genuine location of the bank and the possible travel routes were applied

(See Appendix F). Following González-Lloret's (2020) recommendation, we designed the test to simulate a situation most likely to occur in the real world as much as possible. Bachman and Palmer (1996) also asserted that the 'authenticity' of task assessment reflects the type of language learners will need to use outside the classroom. The task instruction was in the learners' first language (Thai).

The exit task was piloted with four pairs of students. Based on the observation and focus group interview with the students, adjustments were made regarding the worksheet and planning prompts. The initial version of the worksheet was digitalized into *Word Document* format, which caused lower visual quality, especially when opened on the students' mobile screens. We then designed to administer the worksheet in *PDF* format, allowing high-quality visuals and easily accessible web links. Moreover, no planning prompts guided the learners to plan their directions in the first version. The piloted students took planning time exceeded the time limit (five minutes). As a result, they failed to complete the test within the time frame (five minutes). The students said that adding guidance may help them plan their conversation more effectively. Planning prompts were then added. A set of prompts concerning questions, necessary in task completions and pragmatics rather than a focus on linguistic elements, is as follows,

- Where is the caller's location?
- Which train station should be taken?
- Any interchange stations? How many stops?
- Where exactly are you on the map?
- The destination is …… station, what exit is recommended?
- How to get to your bank? What streets should be taken?
- How long does it take?

The exit task for the module served as the pre-test and the post-test in the current study. The learners took the tests in pairs (Student A and B). Each test consisted of two task performances: the students switching between the employee and caller roles and vice versa. The students took the pre- /post-tests with the same partner, following the same procedure.

7.4.4 Analysis

The database for the study consisted of 156 task performances (78 pre-testing, 78 post-testing). Transcriptions of learners' pre-/post-testing were prepared by the author. Pruned discourses were used in the analysis.

The learners' performances were analysed regarding the learners' task outcomes based on the Criterion-referenced Assessment scores. The non-linguistic checklist of 'Giving Directions" task was used to evaluate each learner's performance in the employee role (totalling eight scores). In addition, the author and an American EFL teacher at the university where the study was conducted independently rated the learners' performances on pre-/ post-tests based on the criterion-referenced assessment checklist (as shown in Table 7.2). On the following days, the scores of two raters were compared until reaching 100% agreement.

SPSS paired samples t-test was used to compare the average Criterion-referenced Assessment scores between pre-/post-tests. Cohen's d values were used to determine the effect sizes of gains between the tests. Further, the learner's average scores based on each criterion between pre-/post-tests were compared to see the effects of online TBLT on each criterion of successful task performance. After initial data screening to confirm normality and homogeneity of variance, it was found that most scores were positively skewed and often kurtotic. In most cases, this was corrected through square-root transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p.87). Regarding the qualitative analysis, discourse samples of four

CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) and four CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate) learners, based on each criterion and each test, were determined. The qualitative results were described based on three criteria; vocabulary (more variety of words and expressions), grammar (improved sentence formation and syntactic complexity), and pragmatics (politeness and speech acts).

7.5   Results

7.5.1 Criterion-referenced Assessment: Quantitative

7.5.1.1 Group Level Gains

The learners' Criterion-referenced Assessment scores were eight in total. Using paired sample T-test, the result shows that there was a significant difference in the learners' average Criterion-referenced Assessment pre-test score (M=3.87, SD=1.57) and the average post-test score (M=4.31, SD=1.71); t(77) = 3.54, p = .001), meaning that after participating the TBLT module, the average Criterion-referenced Assessment scores of the learners on post-test significantly increased (p = .001). Cohen's d values revealed a small effect size (Cohen's d = .4). According to Plonsky and Oswald's (2014) recommendation for L2 research regarding the interpretation of effect sizes, Cohen's d values of 0.4, 0,70, and 1.00 are considered small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively.

7.5.1.2 Gains on Each Criterion

The learner's average scores based on each criterion between pre-/post-tests were compared. There were eight criteria (see. Table 7.2). Each criterion was labelled as C1, 2, ..to 8 respectively. Using paired sample T-test, the learners' post-test scores significantly increased on four criteria, which were C1 (Greets customer with a standard greeting), C3 (Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation), C5 (Clarifies distances in minutes, metres, stops, streets, etc.), C8 (Closes the conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer).

Specifically, there were significant differences in the learners' C1 pre-test scores (M=.38, SD=.49) and the C1 post-test scores (M=.49, SD=.50); t(77) = 2.97, p = .004), C3 pre-test scores (M=.08, SD=.27) and the C3 post-test scores (M=.24, SD=.43); t(77) = 3.15, p = .002), C5 pre-test scores (M=.62, SD=.49) and the C5 post-test scores (M=.74, SD=.45); t(77) = 2.19, p = .032), and C8 pre-test scores (M=.62, SD=.49) and the C8 post-test scores (M=.78, SD=.42); t(77) = 3.15, p = .002). Cohen's d values revealed a very small effect size on the four criteria (C1, C3, C5, C8) (Cohen's d = .34, .35, .25, .36, respectively). Additionally, the learners' scores on criterion 2 (Acknowledges customer's problem) increased from pre-test (M=.72, SD=.45) to post-test (M=.74, SD=.44); t(77) = .63, p = .531). The increased scores were statistically insignificant (p = .531).

Even though, on both tests, all learners could successfully earn points in criterion 4 (Explains route using visible landmarks), none of the students could earn points on criterion 6 (Offers additional support). This is because the criterion was not included in the treatment materials. In the input-based pedagogic tasks, there was no language provided for offering additional support or any conditions for doing so. As a result, none of the students could achieve the C6 score. Regarding the C4 and C6 scores, the T-test for these two criteria cannot be computed because the standard error of the difference is 0. On the contrary, the learners' post-test scores significantly decreased on criterion 7 or "Confirms the customer has understood key information". There was a significant difference in the learners' C7 pre-test scores (M=.46, SD=.50) and the average C7 post-test scores (M=.33, SD=.47); t(77) = 2.79, p = .007), meaning that after participating the TBLT module, the average post-test scores based on criterion 7 of the learners significantly decreased at p-value .007.

Figure 7.2

Compared Each Criterion Mean Score Between Tests (N=78)
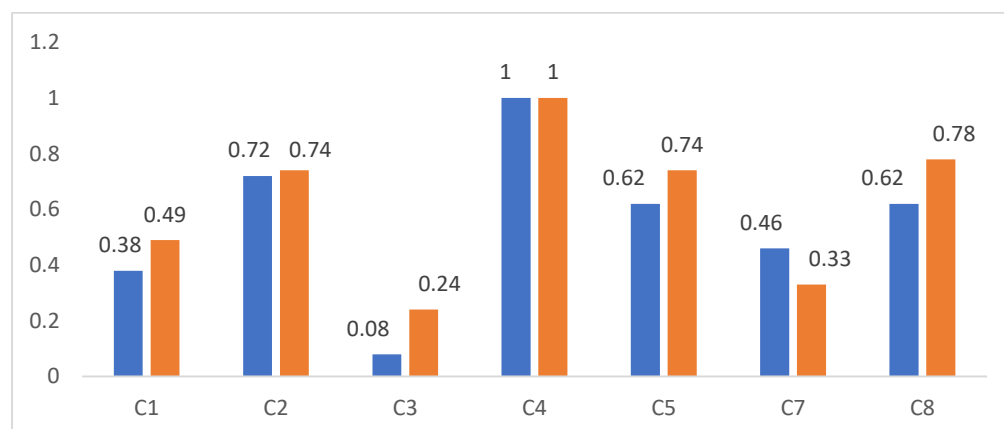
Table 7.5

Pre-and-Post Tests Scores Based on Each Criterion

Criteria	Tests	X	S.D.	t	Sig.	Cohen's d	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower	Upper
C1	Pre-test	.38	.49	2.97	.004	.34	.57	.11
	Post-test	.49	.50					
C2	Pre-test	.72	.45	.63	.531	.07	.23	.16
	Post-test	.74	.44					
C3	Pre-test	.08	.27	3.15	.002	.35	.59	.13
	Post-test	.24	.43					
C4	Pre-test	1.00[a]	.00	-	-	-	-	-
	Post-test	1.00[a]	.00					
C5	Pre-test	.62	.49	2.19	.032	.25	.48	.02
	Post-test	.74	.45					
C6	Pre-test	0.00[a]	.00	-	-	-	-	-
	Post-test	0.00[a]	.00					
C7	Pre-test	.46	.50	2.79	.007	-.32	.09	.54
	Post-test	.33	.47					
C8	Pre-test	.62	.49	3.15	.002	.36	.59	.13
	Post-test	.78	.42					

a. The correlation and t cannot be computed because the standard error of the difference is 0.

7.5.2 Measuring Change in Language Use During Task Performance: Qualitative

To measure change in learners' language use during task performances, the qualitative criterion-based scores and discourse samples of the learners are observed to illustrate the impact of online TBLT. The data below reveals changes

in linguistic discourse the learners used in performing tasks before and after the treatment, online TBLT. Based on the background information provided for university admission, discourse samples of four CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) and four CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate) learners of the same class were determined. Firstly, the CEFR A2 learners were discussed, followed by the CEFR B1 learners.

Table 7.6

CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) Students' Pre-and-post-tests Scores

	Criteria	CEFR A2							
		L1		L2		L3		L4	
		Pr	Po	Pr	Po	Pr	Po	Pr	Po
C1	Greets customer with a standard greeting	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C2	Acknowledges customer's problem	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
C3	Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C4	Explains route using visible landmarks	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
C5	Clarifies distances in minutes, metres, stops, streets, etc.	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
C6	Offers additional support	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C7	Confirms the customer has understood key information	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C8	Closes the conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
	Total	1	3	1	2	1	2	3	3

Note: Pr = Pre-test, Po = Post-test, L = Lower-Achiever

Table 7.6 presents a comparison of the pre-and-post-testing scores of the four learners at the CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) level based on the Criterion-referenced Assessment. The abbreviations representing the learners in this group are L1 to L4. As mentioned in the previous section, criterion 6 (offers additional support) was not included in the treatment, so there was none of the learners could perform this criterion. Criterion 6 was then eliminated from the detailed analysis. The researcher first observed the average mean scores on the pre-and-post-tests of the high-beginning-level students. The mean score on pre-test was 1.5 out of

7, while the post-test mean score was 2.5. The pre-testing results indicate that the learners consistently accomplished criterion 4 (explains route using visible landmarks) only. After the treatment, the learners' discourse samples show some improvement in terms of clarifying distances (C5) and closing the conversations (C8). However, the high-beginning level learners failed to perform (C1) greetings, (C2) acknowledge caller's problem, (C3) clarify mode of transportation, and (C7) confirm the caller's understanding.

In order to measure the change in the language use of the learners during tasks, the transcripts of the learners' performances on pre-and-post-tests are noteworthy. Excerpts 7.1 to 7.4 represent the transcripts of each CEFR A2 learner's per on pre-and-post-tests on the role of employee.

Excerpt 7.1

Discourse Sample of CEFR A2 Learner (L1)

Pre-Test	Post-Test
Customer: Hi	Customer: Hello.
Employee: Hi	Employee: Hi, hi.
C: Could you please tell me where's the Bangkok Bank?	C: Could you please tell me where the Bangkok Bank is?
E: You can go Prang Nam street and you keep walking go straight to Wat Mangkorn temple. Thank you.	E: Where are you now?
	C: I'm at Thanachat Bank.
C: Thank you so much.	E: Thanachat Bank. Wait a minute. You go straight 300 meters to Wat Mangkorn temple, and Bangkok Bank on the right.
	C: Thank you so much.
	E: Thank you.

Excerpt 7.1 shows the learner's language change in that the learner could develop a more concise description of route in the post-test. For example, by indicating the location of the bank, the L1 student said "You go straight 300 meters to Wat Mangkorn, and Bangkok Bank on the right." Additionally, more variety of expressions were found in the post-test such as "Where are you now?" and "Wait a minute". The change in language use of the learner represents a more

efficient and perhaps more effective use of language. The student also picked up some degree of pragmatics as he replied "Thank you" to the customer when closing the conversation on the post-test.

A similar pattern of change in discourse sample relevant to the L1 learner is found in the learner's performance in Excerpt 7.2. The L3 student's change in language use is shown in terms of grammar. Specifically, improved sentence formation is found in the post-test. For example, the juxtaposition of information using a fixed slot and frame structure initially (Bangkok Bank is near the ..., You should first take…, and Bangkok Bank is on…). The learner also improved in terms of a move to the syntactization of relationships in connected discourse. The learner's discourse was found more diverse use of syntactic forms to convey ideas. The learner also responded with the phrase "You're welcome" showing a more appropriate use of language in closing conversation with the customer.

Excerpt 7.2

Discourse Sample of CEFR A2 Learner (L3)

Pre-Test	Post-Test
Customer: Excuse me, I want to go at the bank, but I don't know the way to go. Can you tell me how to go there?	Customer: Excuse me, I would like to go to your bank but I'm not sure how to get there. Can you tell me how to get to your bank?
Employee: Change train at Tha Phra station, arrive at the Wat Mangkorn station, exit 1. Go on the Prang Nam road, and turn right TISCO bank at Yaowarat road. It's on right.	Employee: Bangkok Bank is near the MRT Wat Mangkorn station. You should first take a train from Fai Chai station, interchange at Tha Phra station, get off at Wat Mangkorn station first exit. Go on the Prang Nam road, cross Yaowarat road. Bangkok bank is on your left.
C: Ok, thank you.	C: Ok, thank you.
	E: You're welcome.

In Excerpt 7.3, the CEFR A2 learner (L2) shows improvement in language use during the post-test. On the pre-test, the L2 learner needed more support from the interlocutor than he did on the post-test. The change in language use moved from assisted to independent production. The learner received support from a

friend during tasks on the pretest, received input-based pedagogic tasks and practiced, and subsequently built up the required skills in completing the post-test. However, the learner failed to show improvement in pragmatics for a customer service position.

Excerpt 7.3

Discourse Sample of CEFR A2 Learner (L2)

Pre-Test	Post-Test
Customer: Hello.	Customer: Good morning.
Employee: Hello.	Employee: Hello.
C: Is this Bangkok Bank?	C: I want to know how to get to Bangkok Bank. I will take the MRT. I am at the Fai Chai station, so please tell me how to get to the bank.
E: …..	
C: Could you please tell me how to get there?	E: You have to take the train to Tha Phra station, four stations and get off at Wat Mangkorn station. Exit gate 1. Go straight to Yaowarat road and turn left to see Bangkok Bank.
E: Where are you now?	
C: I'm at the Fai Chai station, blue line.	
E: You have to take the…	C: Ok, thank you for your help.
C: The MRT blue line?	E: Ok.
E: The blue line station to Charan 13 station and to go to Thaphra station and go to Sanamchai station and Sam Yod station and you will find the Wat Mangkorn station and walk to meet me.	
C: Where can I find you after I get to Wat Mangkorn station? Where can I find the bank?	
E: Wat Mangkorn station and….	
Customer: Where should I exit after I get off from Wat Mangkorn station?	
E: ……..	

In Excerpt 7.4, the discourse sample of the learner from the CEFR A2 group reveals no change in language use during tasks. This is because, comparable to all types of learning, L2 learning is variable. Not all learners demonstrate a change in language use as a result of practice. The L4 student also shows no improvement in terms of Criterion-referenced Assessment scores on the post-test (see Table 7.6) The next section discusses the CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate) learners regarding their change in language use.

Excerpt 7.4

Discourse Sample of CEFR A2 Learner (L4)

Pre-Test	Post-Test
Customer: Excuse me?	Customer: Excuse me?
Employee: Hi.	Employee: Yes.
C: Can you help me?	C: I'd like to go to your bank, but I'm not sure how to get there. Can you tell me how to get to Bangkok bank?
E: Yes, sure.	
C: Now, I'm at Bang Son station. I want to go to your bank, can you give me directions?	E: Ok, you can take the MRT Fai Chai station and after that take the MRT blue line, got down the Wat Mangkorn, take the exit from gate 2 and you will see the Bangkok bank on your right.
E: Ok, you can take the MRT Fai Chai station and after that take the MRT blue line, got down to the Wat Mangkorn, take the exit from gate 2 and go down, you will find the Bangkok bank on the right.	
	C: Ok, thank you.
C: Ok, thank you.	E: You're welcome.
E: You're welcome.	

The CEFR B1 student samples are considered more proficient language learners than the CEFR A2 samples. This is indicated by the average mean scores based on the Criterion-referenced Assessment. Table 7.7 represents the pre-and-post-test scores of each learner of the CEFR B1 level. The abbreviations representing the learners in this group are H1 to H4.

Table 7.7

CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate) Students' Pre-and-post-tests Scores

Criteria		CEFR B1							
		H1		H2		H3		H4	
		Pr	Po	Pr	Po	Pr	Po	Pr	Po
C1	Greets customer with a standard greeting	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
C2	Acknowledges customer's problem	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1
C3	Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
C4	Explains route using visible landmarks	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
C5	Clarifies distances in minutes, metres, stops, streets, etc.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
C6	Offers additional support	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
C7	Confirms the customer has understood key information	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
C8	Closes the conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
	Total	4	7	5	7	4	6	4	6

Note: Pr = Pre-test, Po = Post-test, H = High-Achiever

The average pre-test scores of the CEFR B1 learners was 4.25. The learners consistently explained route (C4) and clarified distances (C5). On the post-test, their average scores increased to 6.5 out of 7. They did all criteria consistently except confirming understanding of the customer (C7). The post-test criterion-referenced scores of the learners reveal that the treatment was effective in that they could successfully achieve almost all criteria required for the task. Salient improvement in their language use is found in greetings (C1), clarifying the mode of transportation (C3), and confirming understanding (C7). The results also highlighted the problem area that two of the learner samples (H3, H4) might not pick up one criterion which was confirming the understanding of the customer (C7).

The learners' transcripts on pre-and-post-testing were further observed. The trend emerged in the sense that learners' use of language did not change in terms of grammatical structures or lexical items on the post-tests, rather the changes occurred in relationship to language functions, which were greetings

(C1), clarifying the mode of transportation (C3), and confirming understanding (C7). Excerpt 5 represents the transcript of the H1 learner's pre-and-post-tests.

Excerpt 7.5

Discourse Sample of CEFR B1 Learner (H1)

Pre-Test	Post-Test
Customer: Hello	Customer: Good morning.
Employee: Hello	Employee: Good morning, sir. It's Bankok bank, Arita speaking. How may I help you?
C: I have a business in your bank, so I need to know how I get to the Bangkok Bank?	C: I'd like to go to the Bangkok bank but I don't have idea how to get there. Could you tell me how to go to the Bangkok bank?
E: Ok, where are you now?	E: Yes, I can. Where are you now?
C: Now, I'm at Fai Chai station, BL3.	C: Now, I am at Fai Chai station.
E: Fai Chai station? You take the MRT to Wat Mangkorn station. It's BL29. From BL3 to BL29, you will pass about 5 stations to Wat Mangkorn station.	E: Ok, it's MRT?
	C: Yes.
C: Ok.	E: You start from Fai Chai station. You take the MRT to Tha Phra station, it's the interchange. After that you take the MRT from Tha Phra to Wat Mangkorn station. It's BL29.
E: And when you arrive at Wat Mangkorn station, you get out at first exit, and then go straight to Plang Nam road. You pass Nam Sae Thai clinic, it's on Plang Nam road. When you pass Nam Sae Thai clinic, you turn right. You will see the way to go to the bank. After that you turn left. You will see UOB bank first, after that you will see the Bangkok bank. It's between SCB bank and UOB bank.	C: Ok.
	E: You will pass about four stations. Do you want me to repeat again?
	C: It's ok, I can catch that.
C: Thank you so much	E: When you arrive at Wat Mangkorn station. You get off at first exit. After you get off from first exit, you walk along Plang Nam road. You will pass Nam Sae Thai clinic.
E: Ok, thank you.	C: Ok, that's it?
	E: After that, you turn right. You walk along and the turn left and go straight.
	C: Should I cross the Yao Warat road?
	E: Yes, walk along. Go straight and you will see the Bangkok bank.
	C: Ok. I see. Thank you so much.
	E: You're welcome. Bye.

Excerpt 7.5 reveals no changes occurred in terms of grammatical structure or lexical changes, rather the improvement was in language functions, for

example, greetings, clarify mode of transportation, and confirm understanding. This is consistent with the criterion-referenced scores (see Table 7.7). The discourse samples of learners H2 and H3 indicated a similar direction as of the H1 learner. However, the discourse sample of the H4 learner shows some improvement in that, on the post-test, the learner produced a more concise description of route, more efficient, and perhaps more effective use of language. Excerpt 7.6 reveals changes in language use based on the H4 learner's task performance.

Excerpt 7.6

Discourse Sample of CEFR B1 Learner (H4)

Pre-Test	Post-Test
Customer: Hello	Customer: Hello
Employee: Hello, this is Bangkok bank, may I help you?	Employee: Hello, this is Bangkok Bank, Wipawan speaking, how may I help you?
C: Ok. Could you please tell me where the bank is?	C: Could you please tell me where the Bangkok bank is?
E: Wait a minute.	E: Yes, sure. Can you tell me what mode of transportation you will use?
C: …..	
E: Can you tell me your location, please?	C: I am taking the MRT.
C: Now I am at Suthisan.	E: Ok, may I ask you where are you now?
E: Suthisan? Alright! First of all, you have to take the MRT blue line. It will take some minutes to go to Wat Mangkorn. You will go pass many stations, but the station that you have to arrive is Wat Mangkorn. And then, you should exit at the gate 1, and get the bus. The Bangkok bank is next of Broadway hotel.	C: Now, I am at Bang Sue station.
	E: Ok, first, you have to take MRT blue line and then it will take some times to go to Wat Mangkorn. The station that you have to get off is Wat Mankorn station. And then, when you get off the MRT Station, you should exit at the first gate. And then, you have to walk straight to the Prang Nam road. You will see the Nam Sea Tai Clinic at your left side. And then, you have to cross Yaowarat road. You will see the UOB Bank, the Bangkok Bank is next to the UOB Bank.
C: Oh, ok. Thank you so much.	
E: You're welcome.	C: Ok, thank you so much.
	E: You're welcome.

7.6 Conclusion

This study investigates the linguistic change that occurred through the performance of an online interactive TBLT module deemed critical to learners' occupational needs based on a task-based needs analysis (TBNA). The mixed-proficiency group of learners (n=78) completed a six-day TBLT module on the task type, 'Giving Directions'. The pedagogic intervention is based on the PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2022). A Criterion-reference Assessment of learners' ability to perform the task was given before and after the module was implemented. The treatment consisted of interactive role-play tasks interspersed with input-based (listening and reading) versions of the task that exposed learners to model performances created based on an analysis of target discourse (ATD). Group level gains on the Criterion-Reference Assessment indicated that learners increased significantly in their ability to complete the task based on non-linguistic performance criteria (p<.001) with a small effect size (d=.4). Regarding gains based on each criterion between pre-and-post tests, the learners' post-test scores significantly increased on four criteria, which were C1 (Greets customer with a standard greeting), C3 (Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation), C5 (Clarifies distances in minutes, metres, stops, streets, etc.), C8 (Closes the conversation with a standard closing, thanking the customer). The increased was found in criterion 2 (Acknowledges customer's problem), but not statistically significant. However, the learners' post-test scores significantly decreased on criterion 7 (Confirms the customer has understood key information) and there was no improvement found regarding criterion 4 (Explains route using visible landmarks) as all students achieved this criterion on both tests. It is concluded that by participating in the online TBLT module, the learners could successfully perform mandatory steps of Giving Directions task at a satisfactory level.

With regards to language change at the CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) and CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate) levels, L2 learning through task performance may

be more effective for learners at the intermediate level than for learners at the beginning level. Language change of the learners may occur in ways that are not apparent in the task performance criteria. For example, although CEFR A2 learners showed little gain on the Criterion-referenced Assessment scores, they showed considerable change in language use through task performance (as in Excerpts 7.1 to 7.4). This is to say that criterion-referenced testing without a linguistic caboose can capture change in learners' abilities to complete the task type according to non-linguistic criteria.

7.7 Discussion

To answer research question 1 (Does online TBLT positively impact the learners' Criterion-referenced Assessment scores?), the Criterion-referenced Assessment was used to evaluate the learners' pre-and-post-testing performances based on their use of language discourse during interactive task performance. The results reveals group level gains, indicated that learners increased significantly in their ability to complete the task based on non-linguistic performance criteria (p<.001) with a small effect size (d=.4). In short, fully-online interactive TBLT can be successful in positively impacting the learners' task outcomes with satisfactory results.

Regarding research question 2 (How does online TBLT impact language use among the mixed group of learners?), the discourse samples of the mixing group of learners at CEFR A2 (High-Beginning level students) VS CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate level students) were determined. In the mixing group of learners, it is possible to see examples of their productions. In one of the beginning-level students, the student was scaffolding and being supported on the pre-test, while on the post-test the same student was producing language independently and perhaps more effectively (see Excerpt 7.3). Some students picked up more variety of expressions and functions. This could be effect of the

PTP framework in that the learners were allowed to (1) activate their current interlanguage resources in line with the task, (2) notice a difference between the language they used and model task-based language use, and (3) incorporate any forms that that they saw fit into performance.

Further, one major challenge lies in EFL classroom is that we have the issue of proficiency levels of students requiring different amounts of practice. Specifically, in the intermediate group, the 90 minutes of practice was sufficient as the learners moved from the average criterion-referenced score of 4.25 on the pre-test to 6.5, out of 7, on the post-test. This means that the amount of treatment was enough for Low-Intermediate learners. On the other hand, the beginning-level students moved from only 1.5 on the pre-test to 2.5 on the post-test. This can be implied that High-Beginning students need more progress for the Criterion-referenced Assessment. It is concluded that proficiency level is a major factor in criterion-referenced testing in this study.

As far as change in language use is concerned, incidental second language acquisition takes place *through* task performance rather than *for* task performance. The study supports the idea that language development occurs at the individual level. Even though the CEFR A2 students did not make progress on Criterion-referenced Assessment, they still learned because three out of the four students showed improvement in language change (i.e., students L1, L2, L3). One student showed improvement and became more concise in explaining route (see Excerpt 7.1). One student showed improvement and became more grammaticalized (see Excerpt 7.2) and the other one showed improvement and moved from being supported to independent discourse (see Excerpt 7.3). The three students' use of language during task performances represent types of learning. The fourth student (L4) showed no improvement. There was a different type of improvement for different students. All students demonstrate L2 learning even if it is not reflected in the Criterion-referenced Assessment scores.

The limitation of this study lies in that the learners' Criterion-referenced Assessments were obtained from only one type of task - the information transfer task of Giving Directions. Therefore, the impact of online TBLT on the learners' outcomes might have turned differently when it comes to other task types (e.g., narrative task, instruction task). Moreover, the module was taught by five teachers. This may create some degree of variations based on teaching styles, such as types of teacher feedback, the strictness of controlling time on task performance, and relationships between the teachers and the learners. Further study could be conducted on the impact of teacher variations based on online TBLT on the L2 learning outcomes. Additionally, the issue regarding how to resolve the problem of the amount of practice that seems to be sufficient for learners from different levels of proficiency needs future research.

In sum, the study reveals that by reaching the criterion-referenced objectives of successful task performance, without attaching the '*Linguistic Caboose*', the learners have learnt the new language and acquired pragmatic skills rather than teaching them *for* the task; the learners have acquired them *through* learning to perform the task regarding objective criteria. Also, criterion-referenced testing without a linguistic caboose can capture changes in learners' abilities to complete the task type according to non-linguistic criteria. It is hoped that online TBLT could, to some extent, connect the type of language used in real-world tasks and bring them into the classroom practice in which the learners could habituate and succeed in performing these tasks outside of the classroom.

Chapter 8. General Discussion

This chapter interprets the results and discussions of Chapters 4-7. Its purpose is to unite all the research into a cohesive body of work. Each research chapter is a separate element with its own cited intention. In some cases, the connection between each work is evident, but not always. For instance, the engagement research presented in Chapter 6 may seem independent. However, section 8.1 below connects all the research together. Then, each research area is summarized and tied into the thesis. The four research areas aim to answer the four thesis questions introduced in Chapter 1. These questions are specifically addressed in each research review. The chapter then points out some limitations regarding each study. Lastly, the conclusion brings the overall thesis theme of a fully online TBLT approach back together.

8.1 Synergistic Relationship Analysis Between Individual Research Topics

This thesis is comprised of four thesis questions and four research topics. As seen below in this chapter, each study presented in Chapters 4-7 will address each of the four thesis questions, respectively. Because of this separation, where each research paper addresses each thesis question, it is necessary to understand how this is cohesive into one unit of total research. Part of this understanding should be relatively clear, as there is a stepwise fashion in both the questions and the research. For example, the first research area (Chapter 4) is conducted to determine future occupational English tasks necessary for Thai university students, while the next research topic, using task design (Chapter 5), discusses how to address these needs in a full-online TBLT environment. These two research units tie together quite naturally in a simple sequence. First, as Long (2022) recommends, the tasks were identified by a TBNA as an essential step in L2 course design. Then, the tasks were designed and sequenced for a fully online TBLT course (Chapters 4-5).

After the implementation of the tasks, Chapters 6 and 7 present how can learners' engagement in online TBLT be facilitated and determine if it works in producing interactive L2 performance ability, as assessed by criterion-referenced testing. Chapter 6 is the research regarding ELU (Engagement in Language Use). However, the importance here is that this research is explicit regarding ELU within the online TBLT environment. This is critical to the entirety of the research framework because, without the successful findings in this research, the actual real-life functionality of an online TBLT curriculum is brought into question. It is fine that Chapters 4 and 5 show the feasibility, but this does not necessarily translate into the effective real-life execution of the online TBLT curriculum. One of the most significant hurdles observed by instructors in online courses is, in fact, learner engagement. It is necessary to show some methodology by which engagement can be affected. If there is a mechanism by which online TBLT task engagement can be improved, this serves to solidify the rest of the feasibility findings in Chapter 5. What Chapter 6 shows is that a Goal-tracking intervention does, in fact, increase learner engagement. Chapter 6 is logically connected to the research in Chapter 7. This is because the effectiveness of the online TBLT approach in increasing ELU needs to be established. This will not only enhance learner engagement but also determine if their L2 performance ability is improved. Chapter 7 contains eight criteria, elicited from the TBNA in Chapter 4, on which to score the success of an online TBLT task. It is the final measure of whether the fully online TBLT course could be a successful approach. As a result, the hurdle of learner engagement must be resolved before a final assessment is taken.

Chapter 7 would then go on to address the final question regarding a fully online TBLT course. The very wording of that study may not appear on face value to directly answer the fully online course question, as it's about "unhitching the linguistic caboose". However, part of the point of "unhitching the caboose"

is to shift to a task-based learning system, which is where the notion of assessing the learners task outcome based on non-linguistic criteria comes into play as well. L2 learning relates to language improvements gained as a result of executing real-life tasks based on the PTP framework. Critically important to tying Chapter 7 into the Chapter 4 and 5 research is that this Chapter 7 research attempts to quantify, through pre-test and post-test Criterion-referenced Assessment scores, whether this task-based approach works. As a result, Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 are all related to the entire construct of the online TBLT design, from task selection (Chapter 4) to online feasibility (Chapter 5), to the learners' task engagement (Chapter 6), and to an evaluation of the learners' improvement (Chapter 7).

In summary, it should now be evident how all of the research papers, and how each of the thesis questions, cohesively blend together. They are essentially the sequential process from start to finish of establishing a fully online TBLT module for customer relation skills, from TBNA (Chapter 4) to evaluation (Chapter 7).

8.2 Future Occupational English Tasks for Thai Students

The first research question is: "*What English tasks do Thai students need to be able to complete in their lives and careers after graduation from university?*". Chapter 4 addresses this question by first acknowledging that the historical approach of focusing on grammatical accuracy has likely resulted in communicative English limitations for Thai learners (Kong-In & Damnet, 2018; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Saengboon, 2004; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015; Ulla, 2021). The lack of connection between education and real-life situations was further observed by Phaisarnsitthikarn (2020). Starting from this baseline understanding, the research was able to identify a set of specific tasks through a TBNA (Long, 2022) which successfully answers this thesis question. This sub-chapter examined and discussed the results of this research.

8.2.1 Research Results and Discussion

Malicka et al., (2019) called for a more variety of methodology and data sources in conducting a TBNA. They suggested that the TBNA study should also include an aspect of task-based assessment (pp. 17). The TBNA in this thesis was conducted using multiple rounds of data collection, qualitatively and quantitatively. The data was obtained from multiple sources. To be specific, Chapter 4 (Study 1) contains a six-cycle Delphi method in order to establish a task list. Cycle 1 involved document analysis to establish a baseline for the societal needs of the English language in Thai society such as local publications, news, and, the university's job placement record. This cycle shows that it was able to identify the jobs that are most critical to the graduates of English for International Communication (EIC) majors of the university where the study was conducted. These research results will also assist in creating a task typology, as TBLT modules, with some focus on relevance, as it strives to match tasks with real-life applicability. Therefore, task selection centres around these employment areas. The cycle is in line with an initial step used in Lambert's (2010) study in that Lambert started by looking at existing documents to identify the workplace domains in which the participants (i.e., Japanese graduates) had been placed.

Cycle 2 of the study involved interviewing participants. The interviews are referred to as semi-structured, due to the fact that they were fairly open-ended and wide-ranging. According to Long (2015), the needs analysis should start from the most open methods (e.g., semi-structured interviews, participant observation) to closed methods (e.g., questionnaires, analysis of discourse). The point was to establish a broad array of the tasks typical to each employment area. This was the Analysis of Target Tasks (ATT) segment of the research and examined tasks across all workplace domains. The responses resulted in a task list which were then organized into a set of eight task types, with the relevant target tasks listed under their respective type. These tasks were found to fall into

both the oral and written categories, similar to the Malicka et al. (2019) study. This list can be found on Table 4.2 of Chapter 4. It includes eight task types with a total of 29 target tasks under the types. It should be noted, given the hierarchical nature of this, that it is beneficial that each task type has more than one target task under it. It will allow for tasks to be presented within task type modules. At any rate, the result of Cycle 2 was the successful production of an initial task list.

The next step in this research was to conduct a Means Analysis (Cycle 3). The premise of this is to establish situational limitations for the task selection as well as implementation. Beside the factors regarding the students and the program, this cycle did reveal some items requiring further attention. As TBLT may be a new approach for most teachers, they tended to lack the knowledge of the principles and procedures within a TBLT environment. Surprisingly, McDonough and Chaikitmongkol (2007) found the same issue concerning teachers' perception toward TBLT approach in Thai EFL context. It was clear that some level of training for teachers would be required in order to successfully implement a full-fledged TBLT course. This issue is further complicated by the fact that such training would mean additional teacher workload. As such, the research results advised that teacher workload be adjusted to account for necessary training session(s) for the instructors. As shown here, the means analysis addressed limitations presented from several angles.

With the means analysis now in place to establish task limits and guidelines essential for future TBLT program development, Cycle 4 follow-up interviews with participants were conducted in order to fill in the details of the various task types. The essential purpose of this step in the process is that it's imperative to determine whether or not a specific task is even plausible. Can it fit within the limitations derived from the results in the Cycle 3 Means Analysis? The only way this can be successfully determined is with a fulsome understanding of the *sub-task steps* required to successfully execute the task. The research presents

the "Giving Directions" task as an example (as noted later, in Table 4.5 of Chapter 4, this was determined to be the most critically important task, which is why it was selected as the primary example here). The results of the interviews and analysis yielded eight sub-task steps within this task. These are laid out in Table 4.3 of Chapter 4. It is important to note column two in that table. The description of each step may appear at first to be a simple descriptor. However, note that these descriptions are quantifiable events within a discourse and are critical components of the discourse, as identified by the domain experts (the managers of the major employment areas). The elements of Table 4.3 are based on the TBNA and inform the ATD in subsequent Cycle. Furthermore, the results provide the basis for the qualitative assessment. As shown in Table 4.4, each of these descriptors can be transformed into a specified criterion. The basis of success in this example is, perhaps overly simplified, on a mere pass-fail judgment. However, the criteria are quite specific and binary (either successfully completed or not), which allows one to make an objective analysis of the performance. It avoids the subjectivity of judgement of linguistic aspects. As seen in follow-on research (Chapter 7) and as mentioned within this research in Chapter 4, this is what Long (2015) refers to as the "linguistic caboose". While this is of greater focus in Chapter 7, it is relevant to the research in Chapter 4 as well. There is a need to "unhitch" the "linguistic caboose," and this objective assessment in Table 4.4, using specific criteria of success rather than linguistic elements, achieves such a goal. With the completion of Cycle 4, this research has successfully established the sub-task steps and the assessment criteria for a specific task type, "Giving Directions".

Task selection must be based on its importance as well, not merely whether a task conforms to the restrictions of the Means Analysis. This thesis often points to research denoting the importance of the relevance of tasks. Also, in the task sequencing discussion (Chapter 2), some of the literature pointed to task

importance as a factor, rather than solely looking at the cognitive demand of a task. Therefore, both task selection and task module sequencing could be impacted significantly based on the criticality of a task (as discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.5, in reference to Long's 1985 and 2015 research in which task complexity determines target task sequencing, but criticality is used in determining module sequencing). Task type criticality is what the next step, Cycle 5, in the research, sets out to discover. Cycle 5 is denoted as a confirmation study. The items in the survey involved a list of task types and the criticality of general performance criteria, gathered from the results of Cycle 4 (follow-up interview). The confirmation is also to check that the task selection is appropriate based on a larger group of EIC graduate informants. However, this step in the research went beyond that. It also requested feedback and modifications from the survey participants. Most importantly, though, as it pertains to the findings of this research, the survey requested the participants to rank the criticality of the various task types. The results are presented in Table 4.5 of Chapter 4 (Criticality of Tasks for In-Service Graduates). These findings show that the previously discussed "Giving Directions" task type was found by participants to be the most critical, with 68% finding it to be extremely or very important. To be certain, other task types were discovered to be *nearly* as critical in the opinion of the survey participants. For example, replying to emails came in only slightly behind, with 66% finding it to be extremely or very important. Providing reception services, handling complaints, answering queries and messaging clients all also had ratings of 60% or higher when summing the extremely and very important criticality ratings. One could posit that this should open up a range of potential task modules which could be developed for a TBLT curriculum. For the purposes herein, however, as there will be follow-on research related to task implementation, assessing learner's task engagement and task outcomes, it is important that a sample task type be identified. This task criticality investigation points to the "Giving Directions" task type as the ideal sample task for the follow-

on research. Task type criticality was, however, only one-half of the results from the participant survey. In order to develop a criteria-based assessment it is important to know what those who are working in the field (the in-service graduates) find to be the most critical factor in successfully completing the task. The participants were provided with nine different areas of potential assessment and were asked to rank their criticality, with the results presented in Table 4.6 of Chapter 4. The findings of this research were quite illuminating as they revealed that the participants overwhelmingly viewed the importance of being able to successfully communicate (pragmatics) much higher than that of linguistics. Effectiveness, clarity and politeness all garnered ratings over 70% when summing up the extremely and very important ratings. However, the three grammar and vocabulary categories all rated under 60%, and were, impressively, all under 15% in the extremely important rating. There is a clear preference among participants for communicativeness over linguistic excellence. It should also be noted that this is consistent with previous findings. Effectiveness and pragmatism were also found to be favoured over linguistics in TBNA studies out of Hong Kong (So-Mui and Mead, 2019) and Japan (Lambert, 2010). These Cycle 5 research results are important as they will guide the task focus and the assessment criteria.

The final step (Cycle 6) is the Analysis of Target Discourse (ATD). This is an attempt to exemplify the real-world discourse of the task. The purpose of this step in the research is to develop prototypical language models for receptive pedagogic versions of the task types selected for the program. The goal of an ATD is to produce discourse samples which contain the unfamiliar, domain-appropriate language needed for tasks, which use natural strategies for elaborating input to make it comprehensible (e.g., repetition, paraphrasing) rather than grammatical and lexical simplification which does not provide learners with domain-appropriate language (Long, 2022). Indeed, this research successfully established a discourse structure and is shown in Figure 4.1 of Chapter 4.

However, Figure 4.1 is presented in generalities and may not provide sufficient detail to guide a proper understanding of the actual discourse (and, therefore, may not provide the specifics necessary for establishing assessment criteria). Therefore, this research examines the next level down, the actual language used by the participants involved in executing this task. Various samples of possible discourse are presented in Table 4.7. Note that this sample discourse can fit into the various sub-task steps. Although the sample discourse varies, there is a measure of commonality there. The idea of varied discourse examples exhibiting common elements was also observed in Maie and Salen (2022) as well as Hillman and Long (2020). This is helpful, as it allows for a standard discourse progression throughout the conversation. This provides standard expectations of steps and items to be addressed within the discourse. However, it would also be helpful to establish an example of an actual conversation, rather than various samples of discourse options. Table 4.8 presents this model conversation which serves as receptive pedagogic versions of the task type- Giving Directions. It is structured with attention paid to the established sub-task steps as well as the criterion-related performance assessment. This completes the six-cycle TBNA, ending with a task laid out end-to-end with a sample discourse which addresses the assessment aspect of the task.

8.2.2 Research Summary

The research in Chapter 4 successfully answers the first thesis question by providing an actual list of task types that are critical for L2 learners in Thailand in the service industry. The research in Chapter 4 goes beyond the simple question of establishing a task typology. As a result of triangulation, the six-cycle analysis ensures that it is a reasonable task list. For one, an iterative approach is taken by repeatedly returning to survey participants for various types of feedback, from the initial task list, to task criticality, to the criticality of potential assessment

factors. A means analysis was also conducted to ensure that such tasks fit within the scope of the classroom course environment. One task was even used as an example in order to flesh out the entire discourse, identifying sub-task steps and providing a model discourse output. This ensures that the task is both feasible within the means analysis and contains the proper features to meet the assessment criteria. In the end, a suitable list of eight task types is provided in response to thesis question one.

8.3 Meeting Thai Students' Needs Through Fully Online TBLT

This sub-chapter aims to answer the second thesis question: "*How can these needs be met through fully online instruction?*" Note that "these" needs references thesis question one; it refers to the Thai students' learning needs in English to aid in their success in their lives and careers. The answer to this question is found primarily within the research of Chapter 5. Chapter 5's research paper is entitled: "Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand." This is a natural follow-on from Chapter 4, as discussed in 8.1 above. Chapter 4 establishes a task list, and even determines the "Giving Directions" task to be that with the highest criticality, which allows the further research of Chapters 5-7 to focus on "Giving Directions" as an ideal sample task. As such, from the task list established in Chapter 4, the Chapter 5 research progresses to the next step of designing and sequencing interactive tasks in online TBLT environment (see Task materials and set-up manual in Appendixes G and H). It can be determined if the students' needs are being met through a pass-fail assessment within Chapter 5, which will be further examined in Chapter 7.

8.3.1 Research Results and Discussion

An essential issue to understand regarding Chapter 5 is that it illustrates how online interactive tasks were designed, implemented, and assessed. The results of Chapter 4 serve as a basis for selecting and sequencing the TBLT module as shown in Chapter 5. It also presents the Criterion-referenced Assessment for the TBLT module. Furthermore, while Chapter 5 presents the criteria of success as a necessary step towards scoring those criteria, Chapter 6 adopts these criteria and turns them for the purpose of examining these criteria-based self-assessments (Goal-tracking) versus the non-criteria-based self-assessments (Non-goal-tracking). Chapter 6 further examines this as a measure of learner engagement (as that is the main research area of Chapter 6). Chapter 7 utilizes the Criterion-referenced Assessment, as in Chapter 5, to analyze the effect of the online TBLT module on task performance of learners. However, this does not negate the necessity of the research presented in Chapter 5. While Chapter 4, given its TBNA on assessment criteria, is done with an online task in mind (since that is the eventual goal of the thesis as a whole), there is no actual attempt to go through the specific details of how to conduct this task in a fully online environment. Chapter 4 was intended to be more general and more focused on the tasks themselves. The requirements and actual execution of the task were beyond the scope of Chapter 4. The points of Chapter 5 are the implementation as well as task sequencing in a fully online TBLT environment. As discussed in section 8.1, the chapters in the book work together symbiotically.

The results shown in Chapter 5 are really the processes by which the tasks were executed and sequenced. First off, there were multiple tasks executed and they were sequenced, as expected from the task sequencing discussions in Chapter 2. The task selection of the thesis (see Chapter 5) is based on Long's (1985; 2015) approach to Task-based Syllabus design. According to Long (1985, 2015), the tasks were selected by means of TBNA (Long, 2022). The TBNA

(Chapter 4) has determined that "Giving Directions" is the most crucial task type. The task list for the syllabus content was also identified. Chapter 4 exemplified how Long's approach to selecting tasks and identifying criteria of success for the module was put into practice (See also Lambert, 2010). Next, the approach to task sequencing of the thesis is based on Robinson's (2010) SSARC model. "Giving Directions" is one task module and the pedagogic tasks within the module (Chapter 5) are sequenced according to aspect of complexity. Specifically, four levels were created which moved from simple to complex by moving from (1) simple to authentic maps, (2) smaller to larger areas with progressively more elements, and (3) one to multiple modes of transportation and transits.

Regarding the pedagogy of the module, the PTP framework (Lambert, 2020) was adopted. The three phases of the tasks were presented and the sequence structure in which they were implemented and carried out, from Phase 1: the Interactive Task Sequence to Phase 2: the Input-Based Task Sequence, to Phase 3: the Interactive Task Sequence. In each lesson of the module, learners first performed versions of the interactive tasks based on their current L2 resources to allow them to activate these resources in line with task demands and become aware of gaps in their ability to perform them (Phase 1). They then completed input-based versions of the pedagogic tasks to allow them to compare these performances with their own performances (Phase 2). Following the input-based versions of the tasks, they performed more interactive versions (Phase 3). This approach to syllabus design was intended to provide learners with the opportunity to notice problematic areas of their task performance and rectify these problems incidentally as they performed the tasks at each level. The online task materials are presented in Appendix H.

Finally, as shown in Table 5.2 of Chapter 5, the Criterion-Based Assessment is conducted. This was identified by the TBNA in Chapter 4. Overall, Chapter 5 presents an end-to-end structure that has not only been sketched out,

but the entire task sequence was also executed to completion successfully within a fully online environment. This is a successful display, by example, how the student needs (task-based learning) can be met through fully-online instruction, answering the second thesis question.

8.4 Facilitating Learner Engagement in Online TBLT

Chapter 6 follows the research in Chapter 4 in that Chapter 6 utilizes the criteria of success shown in Chapter 4 to answer the third thesis question, "*How can learners' engagement in online TBLT be facilitated?*" Chapter 6 employs the criteria of successful performance identified by the TBNA (Chapter 4) and uses them as a self-criterion-referenced checklist for learners. This serves two purposes. First off, it is critical for the success of this thesis, proposing an online TBLT curriculum, that its benefits can be shown. Successful performance is analyzed even further in Chapter 7, using administrator assessments and a variety of other criteria, but is first examined in Chapter 6 from an engagement perspective. The method of evaluation in Chapter 6 is also beneficial because it serves a secondary purpose which is also relevant to online course work. That is, by having the students perform a self-assessment the idea is that it would increase learner engagement. This is done on a dual track, with some students performing a more subjective, open-ended self-assessment (Non-goal tracking), while others followed the criterion-referenced self-evaluation (Goal-tracking). Of course, the self-assessment itself is not the metric for success. Rather, pre-tests and post-tests were given to measure the learners' Engagement in Language Use (i.e., words used, turns, negotiation of meaning sequences, and backchannels). Those ELU scores are used to grade the impact of the Goal-tracking intervention. The results, as discussed below, are fairly fascinating, and reveal the effects of "reflective" learning as well. The results are interesting because both groups (Goal-tracking and Non-goal-tracking) showed improvement, but the Goal-

tracking group was more significant. Important to the final results and to answer the thesis question, there is more improvement measured within the Goal-tracking group.

8.4.1 Research Results and Discussion

The findings for this research are quite interesting in that both groups, the Goal-tracking (GT, those using the criterion-referenced self-evaluation) and Non-goal-tracking (NGT, those using the simple reflective self-assessment), showed improvement from pre-test to post-test and in all four ELU measurements. Although the goal of this study is to show the effect of Goal-tracking on ELU enhancement, the reflective learning aspect appears to have a positive ELU function on both groups. Table 6.6 of Chapter 6 shows the results of the pre-tests versus the post-tests (note that the scoring is a summation of the words/occurrences/frequencies, so the higher the number the better the score). Both groups saw scores increase in all four criteria. Though not the focus of this Chapter 6 research, this can be taken to reveal the efficacy of TBLT design and execution in and of itself. It informs the entirety of this thesis, supporting the online TBLT idea, though it may be beyond the scope of the Chapter 6 research. Relevant to the Chapter 6 research is that the GT group measured greater improvements.

The improvements seen from the pre-test to post-test are significantly greater in the GT group as compared to the NGT group. The statistics, using Pillai's Trace, are detailed within the chapter, but are summarized herein. Both groups' improvement is, in fact, statistically significant, and the *difference* in the groups' relative improvement is also statistically significant, which is the more noteworthy finding relative to the thesis. As such, it can be concluded that the Goal-tracking did, indeed, improve the ELU. The improvement was especially pronounced in the amount of Words and Turns produced. Figures 6.2-6.5 in

Chapter 6 layout each category, providing a visual depiction of the improvements shown. One might notice (Figure 6.4) that the Negotiation of Meaning Sequences (NoM) shows rather minimal improvement within the Non-goal tracking group from pre- to post-test. Indeed, this is the only element in which the improvement does not meet the threshold of statistical significance. Therefore, in terms of any element in which the groups did not both show improvements, it would be within the NoM measure wherein the GT group did show improvement while the NGT group did not (beyond the measure of statistical significance). The GT group showed statistically significant improvement in all four elements, and statistically significant improvement compared to the NGT group.

One additional finding in the research relates to the actual structure of the TBLT module. As it followed Robinson (2010) and Robinson and Lambert (2014), the module sequenced the tasks in order of least to most complex. This Robinson (2010) and Robinson and Lambert (2014) research found that task sequencing can impact engagement. This draws further understanding as to why even the NGT group showed improvement in three of four categories. Both groups executed the tasks in the same sequence. These results serve to verify the assertion that task sequence selection will impact ELU. It may be complicated to separate individual effects without additional research on sequencing. That is, the simple practice of executing multiple TBLT pedagogic tasks could improve ELU even if the sequencing isn't optimized. Thus, the findings aren't definitive, but may support the previous research that proper task sequencing enhances ELU.

Of course, as already established, sequencing isn't the lone factor. The entire purpose of Chapter 6 is to determine whether or not Goal-tracking also improves engagement. The criterion-referenced self-evaluation yielded significantly better ELU improvement (GT group) versus those using simple reflective learning (NGT group). To be clear, criterion-referenced self-evaluation also utilizes reflective learning, but it provides much greater specificity to the

reflection by following the Goal-setting theory. The GT group was, in fact, directed within the assessment to clarify or confirm elements of the discourse. This goal tracking is still performed by self-assessment and, therefore, would still be considered reflection as the learners would need to examine whether they performed these clarifications and confirmations initially. Providing such Goal-tracking instructions that focus attention on ELU assessment criteria would explicitly direct those learners in the GT group to focus on elements which could yield ELU improvements. The NGT group was given no such specific goal-setting direction. As a result, they still showed improvements (except in Negotiation of Meaning), but were unlikely to have the proper focus on which areas they needed to improve, resulting in their lesser improvement scores. Goal-tracking provided more focused reflective learning, resulting in more impressive improvements.

A final additional finding of the Chapter 6 research was how task selection can impact ELU measurement elements. For example, in this study backchanneling did not show frequent occurrence and, though its improvement was statistically significant pre to post-test in both groups, it was not a particularly large improvement compared to the words and turns elements of the ELU measurement. It is theorized that the task executed in this research may not lend itself well to backchanneling. The function of backchanneling is often utilized to provide a sense of support. Backchanneling would likely be more common in a discourse which is more personally and emotionally involved (empathy, enthusiasm, or relaying of personal experience) (e.g., Aubrey & Philpott, 2023; Lambert et al. 2017; Lambert & Aubrey, 2023; Nakamura et al., 2021). This task, regarding direction giving, is an information transfer task. Certainly, there is some opportunity for backchanneling when giving subtle confirmation, for example, if the recipient of the directions repeats those directions as verification, the provider of the directions (the learner) may then provide a backchannel type

of response. Therefore, some backchanneling does occur, and there was measured improvement in this ELU element. However, it was, nonetheless, a rather modest part of the ELU measures. Negotiation of Meaning Sequences (NoM) may be more pertinent to this task. Of course, the NGT group did not show significant improvement in that area, but as discussed above, they were lacking in explicit instructions in this regard. More importantly, the GT group *did* show significant improvement in the NoM ELU element. Ultimately, the point is, task selection can influence which elements of ELU are areas of focus.

Chapter 6 has also attempted to differentiate the Goal-tracking system (the mastery goal-orientation) from gamification/ performance goal-orientation (e.g., accumulating points, Stroud, 2017). Applied to Goal-tracking in a TBLT environment, mastery goal-orientation involves reflecting on one's own task performances in relation to criteria for success as opposed to comparing one's performances with others. When learners track their progress towards mastery, they are likely to be intrinsically motivated in the task, resulting in meaningful task experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Mastery-goal adoption has demonstrated clear advantages over performance-goal adoption, including higher overall achievement (Bong, 2009), more willingness to seek out assistance (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997), and more effort invested (Miller et al., 1996). It is argued that rather than incentivizing learners to focus on non-task-related rewards through gamification, benefits came from learners self-monitoring and improving their task-related skills in line with criteria for successful task performance. If teachers seek to engage learners in pedagogic tasks while also improving goal-orientation and task-related skills, developing clear performance criteria which can be shared with learners as a form of self-assessment can be considered a useful tool.

8.4.2 Research Summary

Keeping in mind the thesis question being raised, "*How can learners'*
engagement in online TBLT be facilitated?" it is answered with reasonable
clarity in the Chapter 6 research. The results of the Goal-tracking group versus
the Non-goal tracking group show a difference. There is a statistically
significant improvement in ELU measurements when Goal-tracking is engaged.
It is further understood that the task sequencing may play some role in ELU
improvement as well, as seen from the results within the NGT group.
Importantly, in answer to the thesis question, task sequencing and Goal-tracking
are two methods by which to facilitate engagement. It's worth noting that task
selection could limit certain advances in ELU. In this research, for example, the
backchanneling improvements are limited due to the task selection. Regardless,
the overall statistics still revealed significant improvements in ELU through the
Goal-tracking intervention method. In sum, theoretically, the objective criteria
laid out in this study were compared with other reflective practices in which
learners are not provided with criteria. According to goal setting theory, it is
argued that learners require clear and specific goals to direct their actions in
performing tasks. To achieve this, a task-based needs analysis (Long, 2022), as
shown in Chapter 4, can be conducted by examining the criteria of success for
the chosen task.

8.5 Fully-online TBLT Producing Interactive L2 Ability

Each successive study contained in Chapters 4-7 is intended to reference
each of the key thesis questions. The fourth question: "*Does the fully online TBLT*
work in producing interactive L2 performance ability?" is, therefore, addressed
mostly within the research from Chapter 7. That will be the focus of this sub-
section, reviewing how Chapter 7 answers this thesis question. However, in the
case of this fourth thesis question, it has also been partially addressed in previous

sections. Section 8.4, for example, reviewed Chapter 6 which ran a pedagogic TBLT module and measured the learners' ELU. Its significantly positive results reveal that, at least from that one module example, the online TBLT module did, in fact, successfully yield interactive learner engagement improvements. The intent of the Chapter 6 research was explicitly to examine the impacts of Goal-tracking on learner engagement. However, as even the Non-goal-tracking group yielded post-test improvements, there is already some existing evidence that a fully online TBLT is, in fact, effective in improving L2 performance. "Performance" and "engagement" are not the same, however, the research in Chapter 3 does reveal a connection between the two. Therefore, the improved learner engagement from Chapter 6 should result in improved task performance outcomes. So, this thesis question has already been partially addressed. However, the notion of "unhitching the linguistic caboose," as in Chapter 7, furthers this discussion. In fact, it is a driving factor in the shift towards a task-based learning environment, and the results in Chapter 7 answer the thesis question affirmatively.

8.5.1 Results and Discussion

The premise of the research in Chapter 7 is that Criterion-referenced Assessment can capture not only the learners' task outcomes but also the improvements in linguistic fundamentals that a traditional, non-task-based learning approach focuses on. That is the "unhitching" of the "linguistic caboose", that forming a syllabus strictly around linguistic items is not necessary and, in fact, may not be as effective as the TBLT approach. Experiential learning is viewed as a more effective way to improve communicative skills and is largely achieved through a task-based approach (Lambert, 2024). The task utilized in this study is identified as a critical occupational task for the learners' future careers, as outlined in detail in Chapter 7. The task module is sequenced

according to Robinson's SSARC (2010) model in that tasks were ordered from less to more complex in line with learners' developing capacities to complete them. The implemented pedagogy in this study is based on a PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024). The evaluation of task achievement of the thesis is based on Long (2015) in that the focus is on *task ability* rather than language ability. In doing so, a Criterion-referenced Assessment, identified by the TBNA (Chapter 4), was used, and the results showed a statistically significant improvement from pre-test to post-test assessment. However, not all criteria showed improvement. Out of eight criteria, improvements were seen on five (Greets customer with a standard greeting; Acknowledges customer's problem; Clarifies the customer's mode of transportation; Clarifies distances; and Closes the conversation with a standard closing). However, the learners' post-test scores significantly decreased on the criterion regarding "Confirms the customer has understood key information" and there was no improvement found regarding the criterion concerning "Explains route using visible landmarks" as all students fully achieved this criterion on both tests. While this may seem like mixed results, a deeper dive into the results shows them to be considerably more successful. One additional criterion (Acknowledges customer's problem) did show improvement. It simply wasn't enough to be considered statistically significant. Only one criterion showed an actual decrease in the performance metrics (Confirms the customer understood key information). Figure 7.2 in Chapter 7 shows all the results, by criteria, pre and post-test. Overall, the results were significantly positive. It should be noted that, however, none of the students could earn points on criterion 6 (Offers additional support). This is because the criterion was not included in the treatment materials. In the input-based pedagogic tasks, there was no language provided for offering additional support or any conditions for doing so. As a result, none of the students could achieve the C6 score.

The research further examines, qualitatively, the actual language use via sample discourse excerpts. The importance of this is to support the notion of how the language change of the learners could be monitored via the Criterion-referenced Assessment. To determine the effectiveness of the online TBLT, the argument that L2 learning occurs must be supported (otherwise, one might argue that "unhitching" the "linguistic caboose" results in a loss of learning). The study shows differences in language use between two learner groups: high-beginner (CEFR A2) and low-intermediate (CEFR B1). Four learners were chosen as samples from each of the two groups. Based on the Criterion-referenced Assessment, both groups showed measurable improvements from the pre-test to the post-test. However, it was also important to examine the actual improvements within the change in their discourse during task performance. The three areas were observed, which include (1) vocabulary (more variety of words and expressions); (2) grammar (improved sentence formation and syntactic complexity); (3) pragmatics (politeness and speech acts). Research suggests that when it comes to language change at the CEFR A2 (High-Beginning) and CEFR B1 (Low-Intermediate) levels, L2 learning *through* task performance may be more effective for intermediate learners than for beginners. It's important to note that changes in learners' language abilities may not always be apparent through task performance criteria. For instance, while CEFR A2 learners may not show significant improvement in Criterion-referenced Assessment scores, they may still demonstrate considerable language change through task performance (as seen in Excerpts 7.1 to 7.4). This means that criterion-referenced testing, without a linguistic component, can still capture changes in learners' abilities to complete tasks based on non-linguistic criteria.

In the context of EFL classrooms, one of the challenges faced is the varying proficiency levels of students that require different amounts of practice. The study found that 90 minutes of practice was sufficient for the intermediate group, as

their average criterion-referenced score improved from 4.25 to 6.5 out of 7 on the post-test. This indicates that the amount of treatment was adequate for low-intermediate learners. However, for the high-beginning students, their score only improved from 1.5 to 2.5 on the post-test, indicating a need for more progress in the Criterion-referenced Assessment. Therefore, the study concludes that the proficiency level is a significant factor in criterion-referenced testing.

The study suggests that language development is an individual process, where incidental acquisition of a second language takes place through task performance instead of for task performance. Although the CEFR A2 students did not show progress on the Criterion-referenced Assessment, they still learned. This is because three out of the four students demonstrated improvement in language use. For example, one student became more concise in explaining the route, another became more grammaticalized, and the third showed improvement in moving from being supported to independent discourse. These improvements represent different types of learning. However, the fourth student did not show any improvement. Therefore, different students showed different types of improvement, but all of them demonstrated L2 learning, even if it was not reflected in the Criterion-referenced Assessment scores.

8.5.2 Research Summary

All but one of the eight learners whose discourse was examined showed improvement in language usage. This is an important finding in providing proof of L2 learning through performing tasks. It's a critical finding because it underpins the functionality of task-based learning. Furthermore, this module was executed online, based on the PTP framework, which goes to the basis of the thesis. The fourth thesis question to be answered is, "*Does the fully-online TBLT work in producing interactive L2 performance ability?*" This Chapter 7 research, aided by the findings in Chapter 6 as well, answers this question in the

affirmative. It utilizes a fully online complete TBLT module, and the analysis of the discourse samples shows that nearly all participants improved their performance ability. The improvements varied in terms of how exactly the improvement manifests, but seven of eight improved in some way. It is also worth closer examination of the one learner that showed no improvement. Note that the discourse from that learner is almost word-for-word identical pre-test and post-test, which may indicate that the learner was reading off notes. That itself may have prevented any improvement as that wouldn't be an effective pre and post-test assessment. So, the lone learner showing no improvement may represent an invalid result. These results suggest that the fully online TBLT approach is successful in improving L2 performance ability. Also, the Criterion-referenced Assessment could be a useful lens in capturing learners' language change during task performance.

8.6 Research Limitations

The limitations of these four studies will be examined together in this sub-chapter, as the research is tied together (see 8.1). For the first segment of research (Chapter 4) there shouldn't be much that's problematic, as it's a simple assessment of the necessary tasks. However, as it requires self-selecting responses in some stages of the research, it could be plausible that the sampling of input is not entirely representative of the required tasks within the service industry. Much effort was made, utilizing multiple avenues and several steps, in order to ensure an appropriate task type list. However, it is conceivable that the self-selecting process of depending on surveys being returned voluntarily could impact the task list and/or the criticality analysis. Any demographically or industry-related dependency on the return rate of surveys could negatively impact the results.

Chapter 5 already outlines the strengths and weaknesses of the project within its document. Some of the limitations could be related to the actual TBLT environment, not just the research aspect herein, further adding to the issue. For example, management of an online environment was found to be difficult with anything exceeding eight learners per group. This would require smaller classes, meaning more class periods and greater instructor workload. Simple logistics could also pose a problem, such as potential connectivity issues. This could be more problematic in some countries or regions of countries, like more remote areas, where internet connectivity and Wi-Fi is less reliable. Again, this may be more of a limitation with the functionality (concerns and challenges with online TBLT environments) than actual issues with the research itself. Nonetheless, as the research executed a TBLT pedagogic module (Chapters 6 and 7), these were potential challenges even within the scope of the research presented.

The research on ELU improvement also revealed some limitations, some not necessarily being expected prior to conducting the study. For example, it wasn't fully recognized beforehand that backchanneling would be limited given the task type. That doesn't mean the research falls short, as this was an appropriate task for the mission at hand, as examined in the TBNA in the earlier research (Chapter 4). "Giving Directions" is highly appropriate within the scope of this research as it was found to be the most critical task type. Nonetheless, the lack of more significant results in certain ELU measurements may be a function of the task type. Therefore, it may be necessary for future research to be conducted on alternative task types. It is also surmised that the modest improvement in some ELU measures is due to the brief duration over which this research was conducted. Further research, perhaps conducted over the course of an entire semester, would be beneficial. Finally, this ELU research did not examine the emotional engagement of the learners, which is an important facet in

the overall engagement equation. It may be recommended that future research include this as an aspect of the engagement question.

Limitations from Chapter 7 are similarly related to those in the ELU research from Chapter 6. Specifically, as with the engagement question, learners' improvements may be affected by task type. As "Giving Directions" is solely an information transfer task it is plausible that not all learners are equally suited for each task type. Further research should be conducted across various task types. More points of concern centred around research design and task operations. For example, the pre- and post-test forms (Appendix F) used in this thesis are identical. It is possible that a practice effect might come into play as one variable on the learners' task outcomes. Moreover, the student's performances might have been influenced by their peers after they switched roles during tests. Additionally, in future studies, a delayed post-test might be included in order to measure retention of any gains in a learner's ability.

Another possible limitation, an area which may introduce inconsistency, is that the TBLT module was conducted by five different teachers. Although scripts, instructions, etc. were provided, there is still general communication with the learner participants. Different teachers could conceivably provide different levels of feedback or instructional styles if the learner were to ask questions. As such, a teacher's approach and style could influence the learner's performance. Finally, this research also found that learners of varying proficiency levels may require varying study times. This could not only impact the research presented here, but it can also play a role in the real-life TBLT environment. A classroom consisting of a range of proficiency levels may present a challenge for the instructor or course designer allotting the most ideal amount of study and preparation time for a given task.

8.7 Conclusions

Each of the four research elements in this thesis study yielded positive results, and they are all to be viewed in succession as one large project. Study 1 (Chapter 4) successfully conducted a TBNA through assessments of former Thailand university students. This established a task list including establishing the criticality of the tasks, allowing the rest of the thesis research to focus on the "Giving Directions" task. Study 2 (Chapter 5) took the task and successfully established the parameters to put it within an online TBLT framework. Examining the task end-to-end also generated a model discourse, allowing for the establishment of a criterion-based checklist, to be used in the next phase, Study 3. Study 3 (Chapter 6) used a criterion-referenced goal-tracking intervention to investigate the results of Goal-tracking on learner engagement, as measured by the ELU framework. The results of this study were successful in revealing improvements across all ELU measurements through the Goal-tracking system. Finally, Study 4 (Chapter 7) ran the entire online TBLT module, based on the PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024), with pre-test and post-test Criterion-referenced Assessments to measure the learners' performance. Significant improvement was generally seen. Not all eight criteria showed improvements, but two couldn't be measured. Five of the remaining six showed improvements, though one fell outside the range of statistical significance. In order to verify language improvements, Study 4 further examined the actual discourse of eight different learners from two levels of proficiency. Those analyses found that seven of eight learners showed improved language production in the post-test. In summary, all four research areas were constructed in sequence to develop and execute a TBLT module. Each study provided a satisfactory answer for all four of the thesis questions laid out in Chapter 1.

Chapter 9. Conclusion

This chapter is intended to summarize the research and findings contained herein. Due to the structure of this thesis, with Chapters 4-7 containing their own individual study, the clearest way to summarize is chapter by chapter. However, ultimately, the key thesis questions must also be answered, as was laid out in the general discussion in Chapter 8. As such, this will also be summarized in this chapter.

9.1 Purpose of the Study

The overarching purpose of this study, as identified directly in the title is to develop a fully online TBLT module for customer relation skills in a university in Thailand. However, within the scope of this, it must be determined whether or not that is even a plausible goal. As such, contained within the scope of this research was an examination of the feasibility of implementing the online TBLT. This can be found within the four key questions asked in Chapter 1: Introduction. The final question, in fact, explicitly addresses whether or not an effective fully online TBLT can be achieved, by determining the L2 performance ability of the learners. The three questions prior to that act in a stepwise function to bring us to the final answer. The first question simply assesses the situation by identifying target tasks, sub-tasks, target discourses, and defining the criteria of success surrounding performing those tasks as a basis for designing and sequencing the online TBLT module and Criterion-referenced Assessment. The second question showcases how an online TBLT module incorporating interactive oral communication tasks balanced with input-based versions of the same tasks was implemented at a university in Thailand on the Google Meet platform. One task type, Giving Directions, is used to illustrate the approach. This task was identified as critical for English for International Communication (EIC) majors going into the travel and tourism industry in Thailand. Finally, the third question addresses

how learner engagement within the online TBLT environment can be achieved by the Goal-tracking system.

Prior to getting into the four studies in Chapters 4-7, or the general discussion in Chapter 8, a foundation for the thesis must be built. This can be found in the two intervening chapters between the Introduction (Chapter 1) and the first study (Chapter 4). Chapters 1 and 2 are utilized for background discussion to build a foundation for the remainder of the thesis. Chapter 2 explores the course design of a TBLT approach, while Chapter 3 addresses learner engagement in TBLT. As these are foundational chapters on which to build, they contain a considerable amount of literature review therein. In this conclusion section, however, they will only be briefly discussed. The focus of this effort is the studies within Chapters 4-7 that allow us to answer the four primary thesis questions and, ultimately establish that a fully online TBLT approach would be an effective system, at least within the framework of the set of parameters examined herein (the setting and subject matter).

9.2 Brief Foundational Review

9.2.1 TBLT Course Design

The course design chapter (Chapter 2) begins its discussion with task complexity. This is highly relevant to the end results of this topic. Course design, as is examined in this chapter, ends up being very much correlated to task complexity. Tasks within the course are prioritized via task complexity, starting with the simpler tasks and progressing through to the most complex. The entire goal of this end-to-end project is to develop the course in an objective, quantifiable manner. As a result, each step must do the same. This means that the task complexity must also be objectively criteria-based. Candlin (1987) came up with one of the first comprehensive criteria sets. His task complexity is based

on: cognitive load, communicative stress, code complexity and interpretive density, content continuity, process continuity, and particularity and generalizability. Though Candlin's approach was one of the first, many others have expanded on this work, such as Brindley (1987) and Nunan (1989). What was found in reviewing this work is that, while there were evolutions in the task complexity definitions, there was also considerable parallel and consistency between their work. There were some basic concepts regarding task complexity that all researchers found to be critical. The final result was that cognitive demand is the most critical element in determining task complexity.

Once task complexity is definable and measurable, the topic moves to task sequencing. It was essentially accepted from the outset that the pedagogical organization in a TBLT environment would be to progress from the simple to the complex when designing a course syllabus. Therefore, the previously established task complexity is the essential component in task sequencing. However, the task complexity analysis previously discussed is not best used as is in this construct. The subjective, learner-based factors should be removed from the equation as best as possible. Skehan (1996, 1998, 2009) did extensive work in this area to attempt to streamline and improve the task complexity. However, Skehan never truly applied these concepts to task sequencing. Long (1985, 2015) also added his input to this examination by adding task importance to the criteria for task sequencing. All of these concepts are finally rolled up into an objective analytical technique, Robinson's (2007, 2010) SSARC model, which provides a methodology for determining task sequencing. The frameworks for L2 instruction were discussed. These include PPP and PTP frameworks (Lambert, 2020, 2024).

9.2.2 Learner Engagement

The literature review herein finds many observations which identify learner engagement as being critical to L2 learning. It does seem to be common

sense, as an engaged learner is likely to pay attention, be involved, more interested and more motivated. Second, task selection can also significantly drive learner engagement. Therefore, it is required that learner engagement be defined in some manner. In Chapter 3 learner engagement is divided into four categories: behavioral, cognitive, social and emotional. Many of the factors involved in determining learner engagement interplay with one another. As such, it is determined that learner engagement must be viewed in a multi-dimensional manner. This gets addressed with Lambert and Aubrey's (2023) ELU objective, analytical approach to learner engagement. In order to operationalize this methodology, the emotional category is set aside. So, the ELU approach utilizes the behavioral, cognitive and social aspects of engagement. The development and structure of this approach are described at length in Chapter 3 (Learner Engagement). The ELU framework is explicitly used in the thesis (Chapter 6: Study 3) to determine learner engagement within the online TBLT environment at a Thai university.

9.3 Identifying Target Tasks, Sub-Tasks, and Criteria of Success

The most basic and critical first step in developing an online TBLT course is determining which tasks to include. Brown (2009) and Long (2015) both suggest that language programs should be designed based on a needs analysis to improve transparency, relevance, accountability, and learner motivation. This may not be as simple and straightforward as it seems at first thought. For example, one might be dealing with students in various fields of study and, therefore, one element this section (Chapter 4: Study 1) examines is commonality across fields. It attempts to ensure that all tasks are relevant to all students, at least in so much as that is possible.

One of the primary problems this research in Chapter 4 sought to resolve is the disconnect between classroom learning and the real-life application of L2

skills. This is the basic premise of TBLT, to improve English learning via real-life tasks rather than linguistic teaching. However, because this is a relatively new and evolving concept, there is yet to be a readily available task list or even a system to determine the tasks. That is the purpose of Chapter 4. A TBNA was executed for this study to determine the ideal task types, sub-tasks, and criteria of success based on multiple data sources and methods of data collection. It should be noted that it was particularized to the study at hand. That is, the TBNA was geared towards Thai university students who have graduated from the English for International Communications (EIC) program. As this is intended to be an online TBLT course, the online aspect is likely also relevant but was addressed more so in Chapter 5 (Study 2). Chapter 4 is more dedicated to the basic first step of establishing the tasks on the TBNA.

The methodology used was an iterative approach, as feedback from participants (domain experts) was obtained multiple times. The first step was to identify which occupational fields would be involved simply. From that, participants were identified and interviewed. These interviews were intended to establish a first-round framework whereby a survey could be distributed to seek input on task types and success criteria. This TBNA also required an ATT and ATD, as well as an establishment of the sub-task steps. Thereafter, a means analysis was conducted to determine which tasks are even plausible within the constraints of the TBLT environment. This narrowed the list, after which the participants were met with (the iterative process) to gain more information on the task details as well as the success criteria. After analyzing this information, more modifications could be made to the potential task list and success criteria. However, confirmation with the larger group of graduates was desired, and, so, another survey was sent out to confirm the results. The final cycle step revealed that the target discourse graduates encounter follows a predictable discourse structure and draws on a variety of common expressions that are used in

completing each of the sub-task steps in this discourse structure. This information provides a basis for realistic language models that can be used in input-based pedagogic tasks (speaking and reading) in the classroom. Although further TBNA studies are needed to reveal more about heuristics for needs-based instruction, the current study aims to unify recent theoretical and methodological guidelines and add to the expanding research on TBNA and needs-based language education.

9.4 Designing Interactive Online TBLT Tasks

Chapter 5 (Study 2) is a natural follow-on to that of Chapter 4. Indeed, the task type list used in Chapter 4 is repeated in Chapter 5. The goal of Chapter 5 is to take the next step, from a simple list of potential tasks, to the actual designing of said tasks within an online environment. In other words, how could we go from needs analysis to task design? To achieve this, the research in this chapter seeks to investigate three factors surrounding a task: relevance, engagement and development. Relevance is how a potential task actually relates to real-life situations so that the learner can see the connection between the task and its utility within a potential workplace. Engagement essentially refers to ensuring that the learners are interactively involved with the task execution. Development references the actual language development and improvement that is hoped to be achieved through the task; this is primarily development in learners' task performance.

A TBNA was conducted, with the criteria above in mind, in order to establish task criticality based on responses from a group of participants. Based on these results, the "Giving Directions" task type was deemed to have the highest task criticality among all representative tasks provided in the list (Chapter 5, Table 5.1). The study then moves on to task sequencing, design, and operation. Based on the devised tasks, it was possible to establish a hierarchy of task complexity. Using the criteria of authenticity (maps), scale and transport (single

versus multiple mode), task complexity was established (Robinson, 2010). Based on previously discussed research on task sequencing, this provides for the task sequence, from less to more complex. The next step, task implementation and execution are detailed extensively in Chapter 5. The pedagogical implementation follows the PTP framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024). The results of this research were not such that one could gauge the actual efficacy of the online TBLT system via this target task. The efficacy issue is addressed in the Chapters 6 and 7 research. The purpose of Chapter 5 was simply to establish the feasibility of the online TBLT system. As such, the final issue in Chapter 5 is being able to successfully conduct an assessment. An objective, Criteria-Referenced Assessment is presented in Chapter 5.

Because the research in this chapter ends rather open-endedly, merely assessing the plausibility of the TBLT approach, it does present advice to others seeking to utilize this pedagogic methodology in online space. It first recommends the use of pilot projects to ensure that preparation is complete and the task is clear and understandable. Second, due to the rather new nature of this approach to pedagogy, it is important that one obtain support from the institute's administration in advance, before pursuing this approach. Develop clear and simple online TBLT teacher training sessions. In short, Chapter 5 essentially just breaks ground on the online TBLT task design, implementation and execution.

9.5 Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use (ELU)

In Chapter 6 the study aims to confirm or deny that Goal-tracking yields improvements. To be more precise, the study investigates the impact of using a criterion-referenced Goal-tracking system on task engagement, as measured by ELU indicators produced by the two groups of students: 1) Goal-tracking, which required learners to reflect on whether they had met pre-determined criteria for successful task performance, and 2) Non-goal-tracking, which required learners

to reflect on their performance without the provision of any performance criteria. The self-evaluation Goal-tracking checklists were identified by TBNA (Chapter 4: Study 1) based on communication interactions and content. To determine the impact of Goal-tracking on task engagement, task performances before and after the module were analyzed for indicators of ELU, which were words and turns produced (behavioral engagement), backchannels (social engagement), and negotiation of meanings (cognitive engagement).

The results of the engagement research are shown in Chapter 6, Figures 6.2 through 6.6. There are two essential takeaways from the results in these figures. The first is that in all five criteria, both groups showed improvement. Although it is not the primary goal of Chapter 6, the improvement even in the Non-goal-tracking group does indicate that the TBLT module is effective. The more critical takeaway, as it is the purpose of the Chapter 6 research is that, in all five ELU measurements, the Goal-tracking group saw even greater improvement. Again, that was in *every* measured ELU indicator. As for the function at work that yields this improvement, it is theorized that reflective learning focuses the learner's attention on specific elements and allows them to identify where improvements are necessary. The Non-goal-tracking group still saw improvements, possibly because they were also engaged in reflective learning, but less focused. Nonetheless, with this Non-goal-tracking group seeing lesser improvement, the goal of this research was achieved. It successfully proved that a Goal-tracking intervention does improve learner engagement (and likely final language production). Based on the research, it is better to encourage learners to improve their task-related skills instead of focusing on non-task-related rewards through gamification, such as accumulating points (as stated by Stroud in 2017). The benefits of this approach include learners self-monitoring and improving their skills according to the criteria for successful task performance. To engage learners in pedagogic tasks and enhance their goal-orientation and task-related

skills, teachers can develop clear performance criteria that can be shared with learners as a form of self-assessment, which can be a useful tool.

9.6 Criteria-referenced Assessment and Change in Language Use

Chapter 7 depends on the notion of learners' task outcomes and language change as a result of the online TBLT module. It is explored with the idea of "unhitching of the linguistic caboose." In traditional language teaching methods, linguistic aspects anchor the pedagogy. In TBLT, however, tasks anchor a communicative context where the focus is on meaning and relies on both linguistic and non-linguistic resources for language learning. The reasoning for this was assessed in Chapter 4, in which the need to build the bridge between what happens in the classroom and learners' lives outside of the classroom (Phaisarnsitthikarn, 2020), and necessary within the current teaching systems in Thailand. It is difficult to argue that learning linguistics is entirely unimportant; that is the linguistic "caboose" which anchors L2 learning. It is argued that through task execution a learner will gradually be exposed to and, therefore, pick up the linguistic elements. TBLT puts the focus on assessing their ability to perform tasks, not linguistic elements.

Chapter 7 (Study 4) is intended to assess the actual efficacy of the online TBLT module based on the PTP framework. Before and after the module, a test was conducted to evaluate the learners' ability to perform the task type critical to the learners- Giving Directions. Based on the PTP, the treatment included interactive role-play and input-based activities that exposed the learners to different model performances based on the ATD. The learners received no explicit instruction or focus on form. The group showed significant improvement in their ability to complete the task based on Criterion-referenced Assessments. A qualitative comparison of change in language use during pre-and post-tests

showed that learners were able to pick up linguistic and pragmatic skills through task performance.

In this research from Chapter 7, there are eight criteria established for a criteria-referenced approach to the assessment. These criteria were explicitly selected based on the ability to apply numeric values to them (pass = 1, fail = 0). One criterion (Criterion 6: offers additional support) was unable to be used to measure improvements because none of the learners performed this act. This is because the criterion was not included in the treatment materials. This leaves the research with the seven remaining criteria. On four of the seven criteria statistically significant improvement was realized in the post-test. One criterion was increased (Criterion 2: acknowledges customer's problem) but was not statistically significant. The five all see an increase, and for Criterion #3 (Clarifying mode of transport) the improvement is large; the improvement on #1 (Customer greeting), #5 (Clarifies distances) and #8 (Closes the conversation) is also not small. However, the learners' post-test scores significantly decreased on criterion 7 (Confirms the customer has understood key information) and there was no improvement found regarding criterion 4 (Explains route using visible landmarks) as all students achieved this criterion on both tests. A secondary qualitative assessment was conducted to verify the impact of the TBLT module. Seven out of eight learners showed improved language use in post-test discourse. The improvements varied in how they manifested in the various discourses, and there appeared to be some relation to the learner's ability. The higher-level learners improved more in how they formed their language and constructed their statements, while the lower-level learners tended to improve more in basic language abilities. Both the Criteria-Referenced Assessment and the analysis of learner discourse showed significant improvement from pre-test to post-test. This Chapter 7 research produced satisfactory results and is indicative that the fully online TBLT concept is an effective approach. It is concluded that without

attaching the '*linguistic caboose*'**,** the learners have learnt the new language and acquired pragmatic skills rather than teaching them *for* the task; the learners have acquired them *through* learning to perform the task regarding objective criteria. Also, the Criterion-referenced Assessment could be a useful lens in capturing learners' language change during task performance. By incorporating online TBLT, it is possible to connect real-world language usage with classroom practice, allowing learners to become familiar with and successfully perform tasks outside of the classroom.

9.7 Discussion / Conclusion

In Chapter 8 (General Discussion) the above research results were all tied back into the four main thesis questions. It may serve a good purpose here, in closing, to briefly answer each of those questions. Question 1 asked to simply obtain a task list. Using a TBNA and conducting an extensive, iterative interview and survey process, as outlined in Chapter 4 (Study 1), a list of both task types and samples (not an exhaustive list) of target tasks was provided, in line with the specifications of the research (university level TBLT within the English for International Communications program).

Question 2 asks how these tasks can be performed in an online environment. Chapter 5 (Study 2) addresses this. It is somewhat open-ended in that there is not unequivocal approval given to the ability for these TBLT tasks to be performed in an online environment (this important step is not ignored; it is reserved for the Chapter 6 research). However, it is very strongly implied that an online TBLT approach works by the basic fact that one such task was designed and executed as proof of concept. The results were presented in a clear manner, making it possible to implement a needs-driven TBLT approach with task sequencing models and frameworks (Lambert, 2020; Long, 2005, 2015, 2022;

Robinson, 2010) in an online environment. In short, it clearly appeared to demonstrate the functionality and plausibility of an online TBLT.

Question 3 addresses learner engagement and how it can be improved. Chapter 6 (Study 3) is perhaps the most revelatory. It not only clearly answers the thesis question, but goes far beyond it and assists in answering Question 4 as well. There is a clear result in the research from Chapter 6 which indicates that Goal-tracking is effective at enhancing learner engagement. So, the answer to the learner engagement question is quite clear; Goal-tracking is at least one pedagogical intervention by which learner engagement can be improved. However, the research in this chapter goes above and beyond because improvements are also seen within the Non-goal-tracking environment (importantly, the improvements are less; Goal-tracking is clearly helpful). What this indicates is that the online TBLT approach and reflective learning, regardless of Goal-tracking, yielded some engagement improvement.

Question 4 essentially asks if a system such as this, entirely online TBLT, can be an effective approach. The results from the research in Chapter 7 (Study 4) do not necessarily answer this unequivocally, as it examines just one task type. There is certainly room for further research. However, the results were successful (five out of seven measurable criteria showing improvement; seven of eight learners' discourses showing language improvement), and they are compounded by the Chapter 6 results, which showed that even sub-optimal techniques (Non-goal-tracking) still yielded improvements in engagement. Moreover, the approach to task sequencing of the thesis, which is based on Robinson's (2010) SSARC model, but the pedagogy is based on a PTP (Pre-Task, Task, Post-Task) framework (Lambert, 2020, 2024) showed a positive impact on learners' task performance indicated by criterion-referenced testing, in completing interactive information transfer task type.

Finally, the study provides EFL teachers and course designers in Thailand with descriptions of real-world tasks, the types of discourse they necessitate, and criteria of success as bases for designing online TBLT tasks. It also provides a model of how these tasks can be incorporated effectively into developing customer relations skills instruction in Thailand and provides evidence of how these tasks function in terms of learners' engagement and task performance. In sum, all four main thesis questions were satisfactorily answered, and ultimately, it was found that a fully online TBLT approach would be helpful in aspects of enhancing learners' engagement on tasks and produce satisfactory task outcomes based on the Criterion-referenced Assessment.

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Appendix A: Attribution Statement

Attribution Statement for Chapter 4: Study 1
Customer Service Needs of English Majors at a University in Thailand:
A Task-Based Needs Analysis[1]

Craig Lambert, Watcharaphong Soongpankhao

The following attribution table summarises the respective contributions of each author to the chapter.

		Lambert First Author	Soongpankhao Co-Author	Primary
1	Conception and Design	80	20	Lambert
2	Review of the Literature	70	30	Lambert
3	Acquisition of Data	0	100	Soongpankhao
4	Data Conditioning and Manipulation	30	70	Soongpankhao
5	Analysis and Statistical Method	60	40	Lambert
6	Interpretation and Discussion	80	20	Lambert
7	Write up of the final draft	80	20	Lambert
	Total Percentage of Contribution	57	43	100

[1] This is a co-authored chapter by the student and supervisor as part of the PhD hybrid model. It is being developed for a third-round revision by TASK Journal.

Attribution Statement for Chapter 5: Study 2

Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand

Watcharaphong Soongpankhao, Craig Lambert

This is a co-authored chapter by the student and supervisor as part of the PhD hybrid model. It is accepted for publication in the reference below.

Soongpankhao, W. & Lambert, C. (in press). Designing Interactive Tasks for Online TBLT at a University in Thailand. In Lambert, C. (ed.). *Designing and Using Tasks in Foreign Language Teaching: Principles and Practices.* Cambridge University Press.

The following attribution table summarises the respective contributions of each author to the chapter.

		Soongpankhao First Author	Lambert Co-author	Primary
1	Conception and Design	40	60	Lambert
2	Materials Development	90	10	Soongpankhao
3	Data Conditioning and Manipulation	90	10	Soongpankhao
4	Interpretation and Discussion	40	60	Lambert
5	Write up of the final draft	0	100	Lambert
	Total Percentage of Contribution	52	48	100

Attribution Statement for Chapter 6: Study 3

Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students

Watcharaphong Soongpankhao, Scott Aubrey, Craig Lambert[2]

Soongpankhao, W., Aubrey, S., & Lambert, C. (2023). Impact of goal-tracking on engagement in language use in an online TBLT module for Thai university students. *System*, *119*, 103184. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2023.103184

The following attribution table summarises the respective contributions of each author to the chapter.

		Soongpankhao First Author	Aubrey Co-Author 1	Lambert Co-Author 2	Primary
1	Conception and Design	30	10	60	Lambert
2	Review of the Literature	15	70	15	Aubrey
3	Acquisition of Data	100	0	0	Soongpankhao
4	Data Conditioning and Manipulation	100	0	0	Soongpankhao
5	Analysis and Statistical Method	10	15	75	Lambert
6	Interpretation and Discussion	15	80	5	Aubrey
7	Write up of the final draft	10	70	20	Aubrey
	Total Percentage of Contribution	40	35	25	100

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[2] This is a co-authored chapter by the student and supervisors as part of the PhD by hybrid model.

Attribution Statement for Chapter 5: Study 4

The Impact of Fully Online TBLT on Learners' Task Outcomes:

Unhitching the 'Linguistic Caboose' from Task-based Assessment

Craig Lambert, Watcharaphong Soongpankhao

The following attribution table summarises the respective contributions of each author to the chapter.

		Soongpankhao First Author	Lambert Co-Author	Primary
1	Conception and Design	20	80	Lambert
2	Review of the Literature	70	30	Soongpankhao
3	Acquisition of Data	100	0	Soongpankhao
4	Data Conditioning and Manipulation	30	70	Lambert
5	Analysis and Statistical Method	60	40	Soongpankhao
6	Interpretation and Discussion	45	55	Lambert
7	Write up of the final draft	55	45	Soongpankhao
	Total Percentage of Contribution	54	46	100

Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet

HREC Project Number:	HRE2019-0765
Project Title:	Developing Fully-online TBLT for Customer Relation Skills in a University in Thailand: From Needs Analysis to Evaluation
Chief Investigator:	Assoc. Prof. DR. Craig Lambert
Student researcher:	Mr. Watcharaphong Soongpankhao
Version Number:	3
Version Date:	4-11-2019

What is the Project About?

This study aims to investigate the English needs of English for International Communication (EIC) majors at the Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon (RMUTP) in Bangkok, Thailand as a basis for Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) course design. It will provide a practical basis for Thai English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers and addresses three current problems in EFL instruction in Thailand: (1) a lack of connection between what happens in the classroom and learners' lives outside of the classroom, (2) a lack of motivation on the part of the Thai students to engage with instructional activities in English classes, and (3) an overemphasis on linguistic accuracy. The study will provide EFL teachers and course designers in Thailand with descriptions of real-world tasks, the types of discourse that they necessitate and the criteria of success as bases for designing pedagogic online TBLT.

Who is doing the Research?

The project is being conducted by Mr. Watcharaphong Soongpankhao who is a Ph.D. student in the School of Education at Curtin University. This research project is funded by a grant from Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon (RMUTP). The results of this research project will be used by Mr. Watcharaphong Soonpankhao to obtain a Doctor of Philosophy at Curtin University. There will be no costs to you and you will not be paid for participating in this project.

Why am I being asked to take part and what will I have to do?

You have been asked to take part because you satisfy the criteria as a research participant. The participants in this research section will consist of (*vary among respective participant groups*). You will be interviewed with open questions for around 45- 60 minutes. The study will take place at a mutually convenient location.

We will make a digital audio recording so we can concentrate on what you have to say and not distract ourselves from taking notes. After the interview, we will make a full written copy of the recording. You may be asked to participate in a follow-up interview to elicit needed elaborations, justifications and clarifications.

Are there any benefits' to being in the research project?

There may be no direct benefit to you from participating in this research. However, we hope the results of this research will allow us to provide a model of how these tasks can be incorporated effectively into Thai EFL instruction in Thailand and provide evidence on how these tasks function in terms of learners' engagement and task outcomes.

Are there any risks, side-effects, discomforts or inconveniences from being in the research project?

There are no foreseeable risks from this research project.

Who will have access to my information?

- The information collected in this research will be re-identifiable (coded). This means that we will collect data that can identify you but will then remove identifying information on any data or sample and replace it with a code when we analyse the data. Any information we collect will be treated as confidential and used only in this project unless otherwise specified. The following people will have access to the information we collect in this research: the research team and, in the event of an audit or investigation, staff from the Curtin University Office of Research and Development

- We will ask for your name and email address when we collect the data, to allow us to contact you if a follow-up interview is needed (to elicit needed elaborations, justifications and clarifications).

- Electronic data will be password-protected and hard copy data (including audio tapes) will be in locked storage.

- The information we collect in this study will be kept under secure conditions at Curtin University for 7 years after the research is published and then it will be destroyed.

- The results of this research may be presented at conferences or published in professional journals. You will not be identified in any results that are published or presented.

<u>Will you tell me the results of the research?</u>

If you are interested in obtaining a summary of the results, please contact the researchers after 1st, December 2022.

<u>Do I have to take part in the research project?</u>

- Taking part in a research project is voluntary. It is your choice to take part or not. You do not have to agree if you do not want to. If you decide to take part and then change your mind, that is okay, you can withdraw from the project. If you choose not to take part or start and then stop the study, it will not affect your relationship with the University, staff or colleagues.
- With your permission, if you choose to leave the study we will use any information collected unless you tell us not to.

<u>What happens next and who can I contact about the research?</u>

- If you need any further information, you can contact the researcher (Mr Watcharaphong Soongpankhao) on Email: 19503213@student.curtin.edu.au OR the chief investigator (Dr Craig Lambert) by Email: craig.lambert@curtin.edu.au
- If you decide to take part in this research we will ask you to sign the consent form. By signing it is telling us that you understand what you have read and what has been discussed. Please take your time and ask any questions you have before you decide what to do. You will be given a copy of this information and the consent form to keep.

Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) has approved this study (HRE2019-0765). Should you wish to discuss the study with someone not directly involved, in particular, any matters concerning the conduct of the study or your rights as a participant, or you wish to make a confidential complaint, you may contact the Ethics Officer on (08) 9266 9223 or the Manager, Research Integrity on (08) 9266 7093 or email hrec@curtin.edu.au.

Appendix C: Consent Form

HREC Project Number:	HRE2019-0765
Project Title:	Developing Fully-online TBLT for Customer Relation Skills in a University in Thailand: From Needs Analysis to Evaluation
Chief Investigator:	Assoc. Prof. DR. Craig Lambert
Student researcher:	Mr. Watcharaphong Soongpankhao
Version Number:	3
Version Date:	4-11-2019

I hereby give my consent to Mr. Watcharaphong Soongpankhao a researcher/student in the Faculty of Humanities, School of Education at Curtin University to record and document my participation activities.

I therefore give permission for the use of this data, and other information which I have agreed may be obtained or requested, in the writing up of this study, subject to the following conditions:

- I have read the information statement version listed above and I understand its contents.
- I believe I understand the purpose, extent and possible risks of my involvement in this project.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.
- I understand that this project has been approved by Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee and will be carried out in line with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) – Updated 2018.
- I understand I will receive a copy of this Information Statement and Consent Form.
- I agree to be audio-recorded for the research.

My participation in this study is voluntary, and I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

SIGNATURES

Participant   …………………….………. Date ……………….………

Researcher   …………………….………. Date ………..………………

Appendix D: English Translation of Confirmatory Survey

Part :1 Personal Information

Email Address: _____ LINE ID: _____ Mobile Number: _____

Gender: Male – Female - Non-binary - Third gender - Prefer not to say

Year of graduation: _____   Name of your current company: _____

Your current job position:

- [ ] Customer affairs officer
- [ ] Receptionist
- [ ] Guest services staff
- [ ] Sales
- [ ] Marketing
- [ ] Telephone Operator
- [ ] Other, please specific

How long have you been working in this job?

___ Less than 6 months   ___6-12 months   ___1-3 years

___3 - 5 years   ___ More than 5 years

Have you had other jobs since graduation?

Job position 1 ___   Years of experience ___
If you have additional work experience, please list them in the blank. _____

Part 2: Tasks

Please indicate the importance of being able to complete each of the following tasks in English in your current or other jobs since graduation.

	Not at all important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Very important	Extremely important
Answering queries regarding rates and availability (rooms/memberships/services/leases)					
Answering queries regarding items forgotten or lost at facilities					
Messaging clients to welcome new customers					
Messaging clients to welcome returning customers					
Messaging clients to warn customers (for smoking/forbidden activities)					
Messaging clients confirmations (booking/order/service)					
Messaging clients to thank patrons (for positive reviews)					
Handling complaints regarding facilities or services					
Handling complaints regarding broken equipment (e.g., air-conditioners)					

Handling complaints regarding noise (e.g., other rooms, construction)				
Handling complaints regarding food or menu				
Giving directions to nearby locations				
Giving directions to distant locations (changes/modes of transport)				
Giving directions to the company over the telephone				
Explaining procedure for collecting I.D./passport from guest and visitors				
Explaining procedure for using facilities				
Explaining procedure for joining leisure activities				
Checking guests in and out				
Booking reservations (face-to-face/telephone)				
Logging requests to clean rooms				
Informing guests about luggage services				
Instructing guests on using amenities				
Figuring out directions using online maps				
Locating local schedules online (trains, buses, events)				
Locating local fares online (trains, buses, events)				
Responding to emails regarding reservations				
Responding to emails regarding online reviews				
Making sales over the counter (amenities, souvenirs)				
Making sales over the telephone (orders, packages, promotions)				

Are there other tasks that you complete in English in your job or private life? If so, please list them here. _____

Part 3 Success on Tasks

How important are the following criteria in evaluating your performance in completing the tasks in Part 2. Please add additional criteria, if necessary.

	Not at all important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Very important	Extremely important
Clarity					
Effectiveness					
Politeness					
Grammatical accuracy					
Speaking fluently (without pauses and hesitation)					
Sophisticated vocabulary					
Sophisticated grammar					

Responding naturally while listening				
Demonstrating cultural awareness				
Other, please specify				

Appendix E: Sample Input-Based Task

Sub-Task Steps	Sample Discourse	Visual Material
Greets customer	A: Good morning, Bangkok Hospital, how may I help you? B: Hello, yes, may I know how to get to your hospital, please?	**Listening** Lesson1_Step 5
Acknowledges problem	A: Certainly sir, where are you now? B: I'm near the train station, on First Street.	
Clarifies mode of transport	A: Alright, how will you get here? By car? B: Hm, I am walking now. Is it too far to walk?	
Explains route with landmarks	A: No not at all, you just turn right onto Central Avenue. You will then see the Victory Monument on your left.	 Lesson 3 (Step 4)
Clarifies distances	A: Go straight and keep walking for around two hundred meters. B: Two hundred meters? That's quite far.	
Offers additional support	A: Yes, well, we could send a car to pick you up. B: It's ok, I can walk. I'm somewhere on Central Street, there's a restaurant on my left-hand side. A: Alright then you will see an intersection, go past that, the hospital is on your left, opposite the temple.	
Confirms understanding	A: Do you want me to repeat it?	**Reading**
Closes the conversation	B: No, thank you so much. A: You're welcome. Good bye.	

Appendix F: Exit Task (Employee Role)

You are working for **LH Retail Bank**. You receive a phone call from a foreign customer asking for directions to the bank. Give directions to the bank using public transportation from the customer's location. Use the subway and the station area maps below.

MRT วัดมังกร
Wat Mangkon
BL29

WAT KHANIKAPHON SCHOOL — โรงเรียนวัดคณิกาผล
WAT KHANIKAPHON — วัดคณิกาผล
PHLAPPHLA CHAI METROPOLITAN POLICE STATION 1 — สถานีตำรวจนครบาลพลับพลาไชย 1
WAT KHANIKAPHON — วัดคณิกาผล
405 DENTAL CLINIC — คลินิก 405 ทันตแพทย์
WAT MANGKON KAMALAWAT (WAT LENG NOEI YI) — วัดมังกรกมลาวาส (วัดเล่งเน่ยยี่)
PHLAPPHLA CHAI VETERINARY HOSPITAL — โรงพยาบาลสัตว์วัดพลับพลาไชย
UENG NGI LENG CLINIC — แพทย์สถานเอ็งงี่เล้ง
BUN SOEM TOWER — อาคารบุญเสริม
SUEA PA SHOPPING CENTER — ศูนย์การค้าเสือป่า
SIRI RAMA CAR PARKING — ที่จอดรถสิริรามา
THANACHART BANK — ธนาคารธนชาต
PHLAPPHLA CHAI METROPOLITAN POLICE STATION VOLUNTARY POLICE OPERATION CENTER — ศูนย์ประสานงานอาสาสมัครตำรวจบ้าน สถานีตำรวจนครบาลพลับพลาไชย 1
KWANG TUNG SHRINE — ศาลเจ้ากวางตุ้ง
KWONG SIO FOUNDATION CHRONIC PATIENT NURSING HOME — สถานพยาบาลผู้ป่วยเรื้อรังกวองสิวกู่ยี่
MANGKON KAMALAWAT SCHOOL — โรงเรียนมังกรกมลาวาสวิทยาลัย

← สถานีถัดไป สถานีสามยอด
Next Station Sam Yot
BL30

รัศมี (Radius) 100 เมตร (Meters)

BL28
สถานีถัดไป สถานีหัวลำโพง →
Next Station Hua Lamphong

M MRT วัดมังกร Wat Mangkon BL29

CHUENG MENG SIN DENTAL CLINIC — จึงเม่งซินทันตแพทย์
UOB BANK — ธนาคารยูโอบี
KUMON — คุมอง KUMON
CHINA TOWER — ไชน่าทาวเวอร์
SAMAKKHI COMMUNITY — ชุมชนศาลสามัคคี KHUSON
CHECK INN CHINA TOWN — เช็คอินน์ไชน่าทาวน์
LENG BUAI IA SHRINE — ศาลเจ้าเล่งบ๊วยเอี๊ยะ
PHUTTHARET MARKET FLAT — แฟลตตลาดภูธเรศ
PLAENG NAM INTERSECTION — แยกแปลงนาม
576 DENTAL CLINIC — คลินิก 576 ทันตแพทย์
LAO PUENG THAO KONG SHRINE (LIANG PET SHRINE) — ศาลเจ้าเล่าเปิงเถ่ากง (ศาลเจ้าเลี้ยงเป็ด)
THAI IANG DENTAL CLINIC — ให้เอี้ยงทันตแพทย์คลินิก
PHRA PHOTHISAT KUAN-IM SHRINE — ศาลเจ้าพระโพธิสัตว์กวนอิม
WAT KUSON SAMAKHON — วัดกุศลสมาคร
WAT KANMATUYARAM — วัดกันมาตุยาราม
PHICHAI YAT BUILDING — อาคารพิชัยญาติ
WAT MONGKHON SAMAKHOM — วัดมงคลสมาคม
PARKING — ที่จอดรถ
NAM SAE THAI THAI TRADITIONAL MEDICAL CLINIC — คลินิกน้ำแซ่ไท่แพทย์แผนไทย
HOTEL ROYAL BANGKOK AT CHINA TOWN — โรงแรมรอยัลบางกอกแอทไชน่าทาวน์
KUSONGAMAKON WITTHAYALAI SCHOOL — โรงเรียนกุศลสมาครวิทยาลัย
WAT BAMPHEN CHIN PROT — วัดบำเพ็ญจีนพรต
LH RETAIL BANK — ธนาคารแลนด์แอนด์เฮ้าส์
BROADWAY HOTEL — โรงแรมบรอดเวย์
ICBC (THAI) BANK — ธนาคารไอซีบีซี (ไทย)
THANACHART BANK — ธนาคารธนชาต
TISCO BANK — ธนาคารทิสโก้
KIATNAKIN BANK — ธนาคารเกียรตินาคิน
KASIKORN BANK — ธนาคารกสิกรไทย
CHINA TOWN RAMA CINIMA — โรงภาพยนตร์ไชน่าทาวน์รามา
KRUNG THAI BANK — ธนาคารกรุงไทย
UOB BANK — ธนาคารยูโอบี
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS BANK — ธนาคารออมสิน
PHLAPPHLA CHAI METROPOLITAN POLICE STATION 2 TRAFFIC OPERATION CENTER
BANGKOK BANK — ธนาคารกรุงเทพ
SIN TAI TONG HOTEL — โรงแรมซินไต่ถง
HUA SENG HENG BUILDING — อาคารหัวเซ่งเฮง
SIAM COMMERCIAL BANK — ธนาคารไทยพาณิชย์
CHACMAE KUAN-IM SHRINE (CHUE PUI NA NIA) — ศาลเจ้าแม่กวนอิม (จื่อปุ่ยเนี้ย)
THANACHART BANK — ธนาคารธนชาต
OLD MARKET — ตลาดเก่า
WAT CHAIYAPHUMIKARAM — วัดชัยภูมิการาม
PHAT SAI RD. — ถนนพาดสาย

Ver 1 : Updated 15-March-2018

สัญลักษณ์ Legend

สถานพยาบาล Hospital & Clinic	หน่วยงานภาครัฐเอกชน Private&Public Organizations	ธนาคาร Bank
สถานีตำรวจ Police Station	ห้างสรรพสินค้า ตลาด Shopping areas&Fresh market	วัด ศริสถาน มัสยิด Religious place
สถานที่ราชการ หน่วยงานภาครัฐ Government Office	ที่อยู่อาศัย คอนโด โรงแรม Residential, Condominiums&Hotels	สถานศึกษา สถานรับเลี้ยงเด็ก Education & Child Care
พื้นที่สีเขียว Green Zone	ทางแยกสำคัญ Intersection	คมนาคม ขนส่ง Transportation

BANGKOK MRT APPLICATION
BEM_MRT
BEM.MRT
WWW.BEMPLC.CO.TH

M MRT รถไฟฟ้าสายสีน้ำเงิน MRT Blue Line

การรถไฟฟ้าขนส่งมวลชนแห่งประเทศไทย MASS RAPID TRANSIT AUTHORITY OF THAILAND

BEM BANGKOK EXPRESSWAY AND METRO

Appendix G: The Set-up Manual for Teachers

What follows are steps for teachers to set up a fully-online project for the TBLT module of giving directions. The classroom is operated via the Google Meet platform on the Chrome web browser, known as Chrome throughout the entire manual. It is recommended that a personal computer (PC) should be used for teachers instead of running the project through the mobile phone.

1. Adding extensions to Chrome

According to Chrome Developers (2023), Extensions refer to "software programs built on web technologies (such as HTML, CSS, and JavaScript) that enable users to customize the Chrome browsing experience" (para 1). The project requires the installation of two extensions to Chrome including (1) the Tab Resize and (2) the Volume Master.

1.1 *Tab Resize – split screen layouts*.

The need for adding the Tab Resize into Chrome is it allows multiple split screen layouts. The teachers could thus monitor multiple pairs of learners, each in a separate 'breakout room' as they completed interactive tasks on a single computer screen. The instruction of installing Tab Resize is as follows:

a. Open the Chrome web browser on your PC.

b. Go to https://chrome.google.com/webstore/category/extensions

c. Type "Tab Resize" on the search box as located on the left corner of the screen.
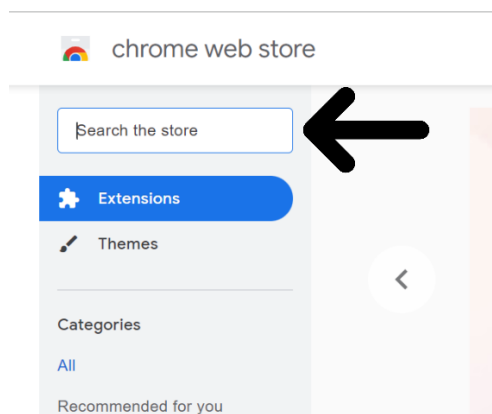
d. Click the icon "Tab Resize – split screen layouts.

e. On the top left corner of the screen, click "Add to Chrome".
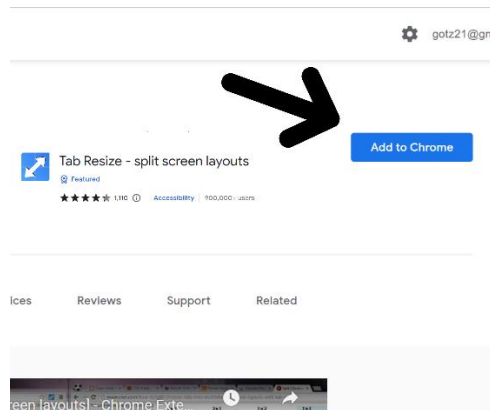
f. Then respond to the pop-up by clicking "Add extension".

g. To check if the extension has been added to your web browser, look for the extension icon - ✚ on the right margin of the address bar and click on it. You can pin the Tab Resize to the address bar for ease of later access.

1.2 Volume Master

The Volume Master function helps teachers control volumes in each breakout room when pairs are speaking simultaneously. The steps below explain how to add the Volume Master to Chrome.

a. Open the Chrome web browser on your PC.

b. Go to https://chrome.google.com/webstore/category/extensions

c. Type "Volume Master" on the search box as located on the left corner of the screen.

d. Click the icon "Volume Master", then click "Add to Chrome".

e. Click the extension icon - ✚ on the right margin of the address bar, then click "pin" icon to allow the extension to be shown on the address bar.
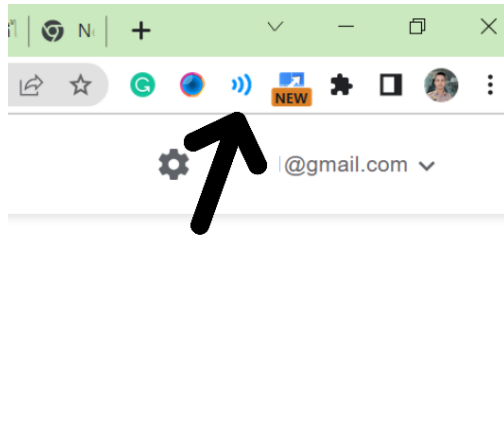
2. Installing LINE on PC and connect to the students

The TBLT module implementation primarily relies on the smartphone app LINE applicable to both smartphone and PC operations. The LINE functions allow teachers to contact students in groups as well as individually, send materials such as online forms, YouTube links, and worksheets necessary for tasks to students, and set up appointments. It is noted that Thai students (particularly those participating in this study) were substantially familiar with LINE and they did not require extra training regarding how to use its functions. The instruction for installing LINE on a personal computer is as follows:

a. Register an email address on the smartphone version of LINE.

b. Download LINE for PC from https://line.me/th/

c. Once the LINE for PC is downloaded, log in to the app using the email address and password set on the smartphone version of LINE.

d. To create the group chat, start by having the students become your LINE friends, then at the **Home** tab, hit **Add friends** (the silhouette icon) at the top right of the screen > **Create a group**.

e. Select the students' accounts to be included in the group, then tap **Next** > enter a group name, then tap **Create**.

Appendix H: Task Materials (Lesson 1 to 4)

Lesson 1

Phase 1: Interactive Task Sequence 1

1. Roleplay Task 1 (*See how well you can do the task.*)

Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the Liveworksheets for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.

Sample Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/4-xj1156497so

See pages 271 to 274 for the Task 1 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

Phase 2: Input-Based Task Sequence

2. Warm Up: Match the directions and the pictures.
Link to Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2154521 or scan the QR code below.

MATCH THE DIRECTIONS WITH THE PICTURES.

In front of	Go straight	Make a U-turn	Turn left
Turn right	Opposite	Go past	Cross
Between	Intersection	Roundabout	On the left
On the right	Take the second left		Next to

3. Listening 🎧

Listen to four sets of directions and find the following for locations on the map
Audio: https://youtu.be/ivVIcAp7iV8
Link to Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2156420 or scan the QR code below.

Audio script

A.   Go straight .Then take the first left onto Green Street .Walk past the library, and it's the building next to the library on the left.

B.   Go straight .Go past the traffic lights .You will see a shop on the right .Go past that, and it's on the right next to the shop.

C.   Go straight .Go past the traffic lights, and go straight on until you get to the roundabout. At the roundabout, turn left .Go past the theatre .It's the building next to the theatre, opposite the hospital.

D.   Go straight .Go past the traffic lights, and take the second right on to King's Road .Go

past the bookshop .It's the building next to the bookshop opposite the café.

---

4. Listening 🎧: Listen to short conversations, try to guess where the places are, then match the answers with the places on the map.
Audio: https://youtu.be/aLqVs4ARb50

Link to Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2156461 or scan the QR code below.

LISTENING

BANK STORE
Main Street
POST OFFICE DRUGSTORE MOVIE THEATER
First Street Second Street HOSPITAL
SCHOOL
Central Avenue
TRAIN STATION

LISTEN TO SHORT CONVERSATIONS, TRY TO GUESS WHERE THE PLACES ARE,
THEN MATCH THE ANSWERS WITH THE PLACES ON THE MAP.

POLICE STATION

RESTAURANT

Audio script

1. A: Hi Tim, how is it going?
   B: Good, how are you?
   A: I'm great, thanks. Hmm, do you know how to get to the Police station?
   B: Where are you now?
   A: I am on First Street near the train station.
   B: Easy, go straight on First Street. Take the second right, and drive along Main Street for two minutes. It's on your left, between the bank and the store.
   A: Thanks!
   B: No worries, drive safely.
2. A: Good morning, Siam Restaurant. How can I assist you?
   B: Good morning, how can I get to your restaurant, please?
   A: How will you get here, sir?
   B: I am walking right now. I'm on First Street.
   A: Ok, is the train station on your right-hand side?
   B: Yes.
   A: Okay then, from First Street turn right onto Central Avenue. Keep walking, and you will see a school on your left. Walk past the school, our restaurant is on your left next to the school.
   B: Thank you so much.
   A: My pleasure. See you soon.

---

5. Learn new ways to do the task (Listening). 🎧

Listen to a telephone conversation of a man calling the hospital. Based on the map below, the students draw on the map follow the conversation they hear and identify the location on the map. Video: https://youtu.be/hu-lgusZFHs
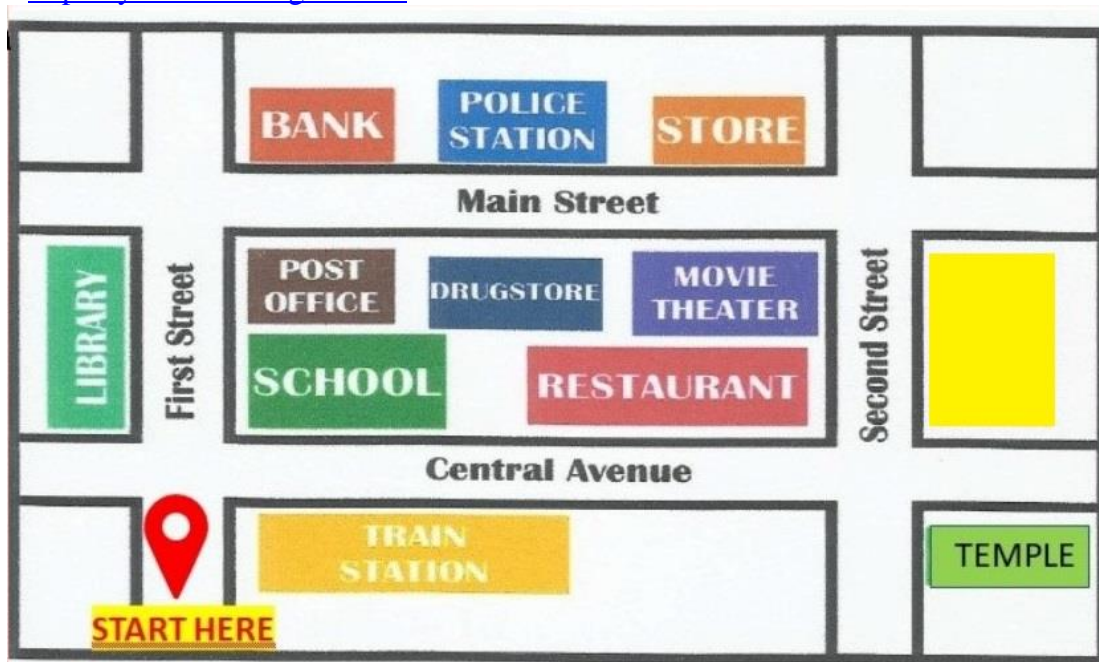
Audio script

A: Good morning, Bangkok Hospital, how may I help you?

B: Hello, yes, may I know how to get to your hospital, please?

A: Certainly sir, where are you now?

B: I'm near the train station, on First Street.

A: Alright, how will you get here? By car?

B: Hm, I am walking now. Is it too far to walk?

A: No not at all, you just turn right onto Central Avenue. Go straight and keep walking for around two hundred meters.

B: Two hundred meters? That's quite far.

A: Yes, well, where are you now?

B: I'm somewhere on Central Street, there's a restaurant on my left-hand side.

A: Alright then you will see an intersection, go past that. Cross Second Street, the hospital is on your left, opposite the temple.

B: Oh, I see, thank you so much.

A: You're welcome.

Phase 3: Interactive Task Sequence 2

6. Roleplay Task 2 (*Same Task Repetition*)
Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the worksheet for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.
Sample Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2157777 (For Student A)

See pages 275 to 278 for the Task 2 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

END of lesson 1

Lesson 2

Phase 1: Interactive Task Sequence 3

1. Roleplay Task 3 (*See how well you can do the task.*)
Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the worksheet for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.
Sample worksheet for student A
Task 3   **Student A**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend(

You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.

      You are at Phra Ram 9 Station

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.

1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg

2. Phra Ram 9 Station Area Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=2&Station=20

Think about:
- What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
- Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
- How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
- What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)
You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

See pages 279 to 282 for the Task 3 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

Phase 2: Input-Based Task Sequence

2. Warm up: Reading
Read the statement about the Airport Link in Bangkok. Answer the T/F questions.

Link to Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2157857 or scan the QR code below.

LESSON 2 - STEP 1

Read the statement below and answer TRUE (T) or FALSE (F)

Airport Link:
The Suvarnabhumi Airport Rail Link services are comprised of 2 lines, non-stop Express services, and City Train services. Non-stop Express services start at Suvarnabhumi Airport and terminate at Makkasan Station. The journey takes about 15 minutes and runs every 30 minutes. City Train or Commuter services run between Suvarnabhumi Airport, stop at Lat Krabang, Ban Thup Chang, Hua Mak, Makkasan, Ratchaprarop and Phaya Thai. The journey takes approximately 30 minutes and runs every 15 minutes. Facilitating the tourists and commuters to travel to other parts of Bangkok, both lines have interchange station at Makkasan Station, for MRT (Underground train) at Phetchaburi Station. City Train line is linked at Phaya Thai station for BTS (Skytrain) Phaya Thai Station.
https://lancasterbangkok.com/destination/

1. If you want to go to BTS Phaya Thai station, do not take the City Train line. (T/F)
2. If you are going to Phra Ram 9 station, you should take the City Train line from Suvarnabhumi Airport, get off at Makkasan Station and change to the underground train at Phetchaburi station. (T/F)
3. The fastest line to BTS Phaya Thai station is Commuter services line as it goes directly to the terminal station. (T/F)
4. If you want to go to BTS Siam Station, you can take the non-stop Express services train directly from Suvarnabhumi Airport. (T/F)

3. Learn new ways to do the task 🎧

Listen to a telephone conversation between two friends. Based on the map below, the students draw on the map follow the conversation they hear and identify the location on the map.

Video: https://youtu.be/xSKnRRtH54w

Worksheet

M ห้วยขวาง
MRT Huai Khwang

BL18

PHONG APARTMENT พงษ์อพาร์ทเมนท์
CITY COURT ซิตี้คอร์ท
MANSION 7 แมนชั่น 7
SIAM COMMERCIAL BANK ธนาคารไทยพาณิชย์
V.I.P. APARTMENT วี.ไอ.พี. อพาร์ทเมนท์
THE ATRIUM ดิเอเทรียม
JY MANSION เจวายแมนชั่น
YOU MANSION ยูแมนชั่น
WIWAT APARTMENT วิวัฒน์อพาร์ทเมนท์
PARKING AREA บริเวณที่จอดรถ
RATCHADA PAVILION รัชดาพาวิลเลี่ยน
CENTRIO RATCHADA-HUAI KHWANG เซ็นทริโอ รัชดา-ห้วยขวาง
SUMMER 1 ซัมเมอร์ 1
WAT KUN NATH RUTTHARAM (WAT HUAI KHWANG) วัดกุนนทีรุทธาราม (วัดห้วยขวาง)
SOI RANGSI COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTER ศูนย์บริการสาธารณสุขชุมชนซอยรังษี
HUA AI LI SAHA CLINIC สหคลินิกฮั่วอัยลี่
SOI KUNNATHI COMMUNITY ชุมชนซอยกุนนที
KRIT KAMON MANSION กฤษฎ์กมลแมนชั่น
HUAI KHWANG PLACE ห้วยขวางเพลส
A.T. APARTMENT เอ.ที. อพาร์ทเมนท์
RATCHADA HONDA AUTOMOBILE CO. LTD บจก. รัชดาฮอนด้า ออโต้โมบิล
SHRINE ศาลเจ้า
NICE PLACE ไนซ์เพลส
GALLERIA แกลเลอเรีย
GOEM GAP BUILDING อาคารเกิมแกป์ทรัพย์
NIJAN PHAN MANSION นิจพรรณแมนชั่น
LILAWADI MODEL HUAI KHWANG ลีลาวดีโมเดลห้วยขวาง
PUN PHATTHRA APARTMENT บุญภัทราอพาร์ทเมนท์
WUTTISAK OLINIC วุฒิศักดิ์คลินิก
RATTANA DORMITORY หอพักรัตนา
THE TEMPO RATCHADA เดอะเทมโป้ รัชดา
MY HOTEL มายโฮเต็ล
AMARANTA HOTEL โรงแรมอมรันตา
THIM APARTMENT ทิมอพาร์ทเมนท์
KIAT THONGCHAI FRESH MARKET ตลาดสดเกียรติธงชัย
VERANDA DENTAL CLINIC คลินิกทันตกรรมเวรันดา
JG MANSION เจจีแมนชั่น
AMARANTA SUITES อมรันตาสวีท
THE NICHE RATCHADA-HUAI KHWANG- เดอะนิช รัชดา-ห้วยขวาง
RATCHADA PLACE รัชดาเพลส
IDOL ME MEDICAL CLINIC คลินิกเวชกรรมไอดอลมี
HUAI KHWANG BAZAAR ห้วยขวางบาซาร์
YIM HUAI KHWANG HOSTEL ยิ้มห้วยขวางโฮสเทล
ERIYA OLINIC เอริยาคลินิก
HUAI KHWANG DISTRICT OFFICE สำนักงานเขตห้วยขวาง
KIRATI YADA APARTMENT กิรติญาดาอพาร์ทเมนท์
THE PARK RESIDENCE ห้วยขวางพาร์ค
SAHA PHAET RATCHADA MEDICAL CLINIC คลินิกเวชกรรมสหแพทย์รัชดา
PHOEM THANAWIT BUILDING อาคารเพิ่มธนวิช
Ganesha Shrine ศาลพระพิฆเนศ
RATCHADA CITY HOTEL โรงแรมรัชดาซิตี้
HUAI KHWANG LANGUAGE CENTER ศูนย์ภาษาห้วยขวาง
HUAI KHWANG INTERSECTION แยกห้วยขวาง
RATCHA GRAND BALLROOM รัชดาแกรนด์บอลรูม
MY NAME MEDICAL CLINIC มายเนมคลินิกเวชกรรม
MILAN MEDICAL CLINIC มิลานคลินิกเวชกรรม
PIN DENTAL CLINIC ปิ่นคลินิกทันตกรรม
KRUNG THAI BANK ธนาคารกรุงไทย
PHON NAKHON POLYTECHNIC COLLEGE HUAI KHWANG COMMUNITY BRANCH วิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีพลนครโปลีเทคนิค สาขาชุมชนห้วยขวาง
LATDA DENTAL CLINIC ลัดดาคลินิกทันตกรรม
THE COLORY VIVID เดอะคัลเลอรี่วิวิด
PRACHA SONGKHRO RD. ถนนประชาสงเคราะห์
CHAOMAE SAI THONG SHRINE ศาลเจ้าแม่ไทรทอง
SOMBOON SEAFOOD สมบูรณ์ซีฟู้ด
PHON RAWIN พรรวินท์
RAWIN APARTMENT รวินท์อพาร์ทเมนท์
HUAI KHWANG MARKET ตลาดห้วยขวาง
HUAI KHWANG TERRACE ห้วยขวางเทอเรซ
UOB BANK ธนาคารยูโอบี
SOI PRACHA RUAM MIT COMMUNITY HEALTH CENTER ศูนย์สุขภาพชุมชนซอยประชาร่วมมิตร
SASI RATCHADA BUILDING อาคารศศิรัชดา
SWISSOTEL LE CONCORDE BANGKOK โรงแรมสวิสโฮเต็ล เลอคองคอร์ด กรุงเทพฯ
HUAI KHWANG WATER PURIFICATION PLANT โรงงานผลิตน้ำประปาห้วยขวาง
BB PLACE บีบีเพลส
ZONTA INTERNATIONAL BANGKOK 1 PRE-SCHOOL CHILD DEVELOPMENT CENTER (BRANCH 3) ศูนย์พัฒนาเด็กก่อนวัยเรียนกรุงเทพฯ (สาขา 3) ซอนต้าอินเตอร์เนชั่นแนลกรุงเทพฯ
THE IVORY DENTAL OLINID คลินิกทันตกรรมดิไอวรี่
LE CONCORDE BUILDING อาคารเลอคองคอร์ด
BANGKOK แบงค์ค็อก
THE PALAZZO HOTEL โรงแรมเดอะพาลาสโซ่
BANGKOK KOREAN LANGUAGE SCHOOL โรงเรียนสอนภาษาเกาหลีกรุงเทพฯ
NATTHAKA NURSERY เนิร์สเซอรี่ณัฐกา
BANGKOK HIP CAR PARK ลานจอดรถ ฮิพคาร์พาร์ค
SOI NIAM UTHIT ซอยเนียมอุทิศ
THE EMERALD HOTEL โรงแรมดิเอมเมอรัลด์
THOTSAPHON BUILDING อาคารทศพร

สัญลักษณ์ Legend

สถานพยาบาล Hospital & Clinic	หน่วยงานภาคเอกชน Private&Public Organizations	ธนาคาร Bank	พื้นที่สีเขียว Green Zone
สถานีตำรวจ Police Station	ห้างสรรพสินค้า ตลาด Shopping area&Fresh market	วัด คริสตจักร มัสยิด Religious place	ทางแยกสำคัญ Intersection
สถานที่ราชการ หน่วยงานภาครัฐ Government Office	ที่อยู่อาศัย คอนโด โรงแรม Residential, Condominiums&Hotels	สถานศึกษา สถานรับเลี้ยงเด็ก Education & Child Care	คมนาคม ขนส่ง Transportation

BANGKOK MRT APPLICATION ดาวน์โหลดฟรีได้แล้ววันนี้
App Store
Google play
BEM_MRT
BEM MRT
WWW.BEMPLC.CO.TH

รถไฟฟ้าสายสีน้ำเงิน
MRT Blue Line

การรถไฟฟ้าขนส่งมวลชนแห่งประเทศไทย
MASS RAPID TRANSIT AUTHORITY OF THAILAND

BEM
BANGKOK EXPRESSWAY AND METRO

Audio script

Robert:	Hi, Tan. I've just landed.
Tan:	Hi, Robert. That's good to hear. Welcome to Bangkok.
Robert:	Thanks. Where should we meet?
Tan:	Ok, where are you now?
Robert:	I'm at Suvarnabhumi Airport. And you?
Tan:	I am at Huai Khwang Station.
Robert:	Ok, can you tell me how to get there?
Tan:	Sure! You should take the Airport Rail Link train from Suvarnabhumi Airport to the city.
Robert:	Okay.
Tan:	Get off at Makkasan Station and change to the MRT Phetchaburi Station. It's the interchange station to the MRT blue line.
Robert:	How many stations is Makkasan from the airport?
Tan:	It's the fifth station away from the airport. You get off at the fifth stop. Then you take the MRT train heading to Huai Khwang. It's only three stations away from the interchange. You get off at the third stop.
Robert:	Ok, the fifth stop and the third stop.
Tan:	When you arrive at Huai Khwang Station, take the third exit. Walk down the steps and you will see the UOB bank on your right-hand side.
Robert:	Ok, then?
Tan:	I'll see you there, in front of the bank.
Robert:	Alright, see you then.
Tan:	See you soon, bye for now.

Phase 3: Interactive Task Sequence 4

4. Roleplay Task 4 (*Same Task Repetition*)
Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the worksheet for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.

See pages 283 to 286 for the Task 4 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

End of lesson 2

Lesson 3

Phase 1: Interactive Task Sequence 5

1. Roleplay Task 5 (*See how well you can do the task.*)
Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the worksheet for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.

Sample worksheet for student A

Task 5   **Student A**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Banker)

You are a Thai banker working for LH Retail Bank. You receive a phone call from a foreign customer asking for directions to your bank. Give directions to your bank location. DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

You are at   LH Retail Bank (near Wat Mangkon Station)

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. **MRT Trains Map:** **https://metro.bemplc.co.th/MRT-System-Map**
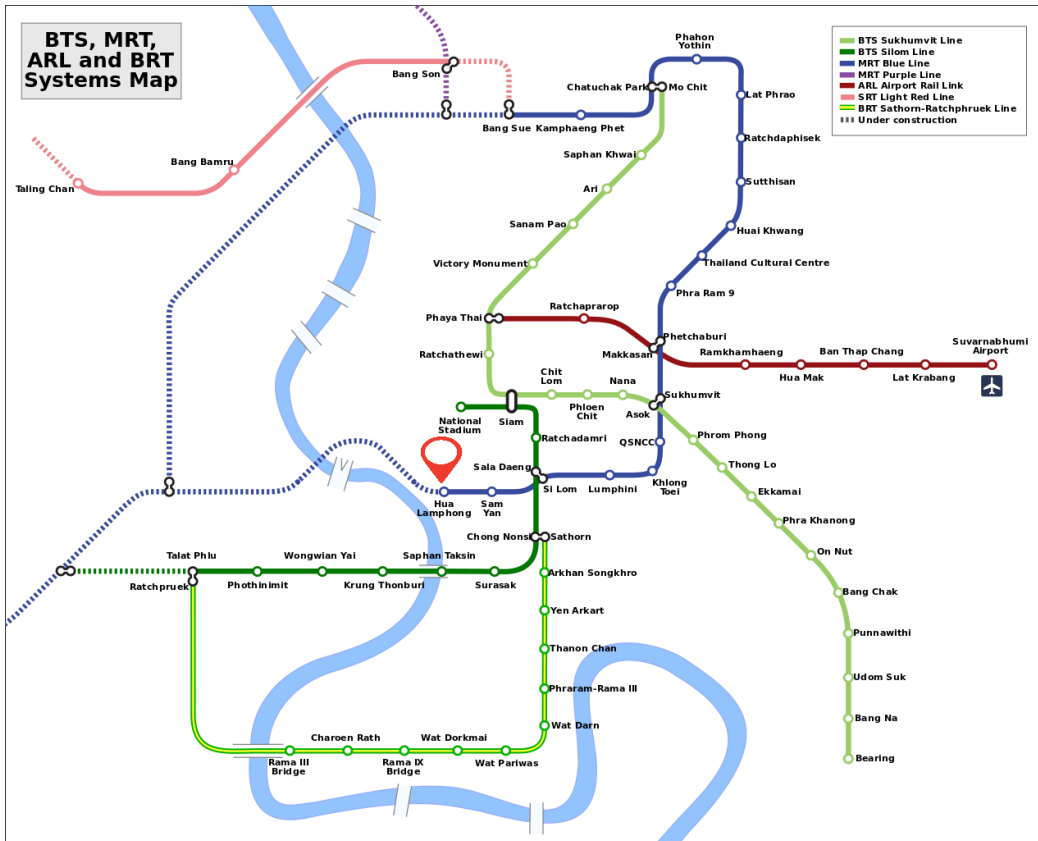
2. **Wat Mangkon Station Area Map:** **https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=1&Station=29**

Think about:

- How formal should you be speaking to a customer?
- Where is your customer's location? Which train station should be taken? Any interchange stations? How many stops?
- Where exactly are you on the map?
- The destination is MRT Wat Mangkon Station. Which exit is recommended? How to get to your bank? What streets should be taken? How long does it take? How far?

A Listener Role (A Foreign Customer)
You are a foreigner. You want to go to the bank. Make a phone call to the bank and ask for directions.
You are at Fai Chai Station (BL03)
Round 1   Call student   **B** and ask for directions to   TISCO Bank
Round 2   Call Student   **D** and ask for directions to   Bangkok Bank

See pages 287 to 290 for the Task 5 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

Phase 2: Input-Based Task Sequence

2. Listening 🎧 : Listen to the audio and try to guess what their jobs are, write them in the table below.
Audio: https://youtu.be/HLVhl77GSSQ
Link to Liveworksheest: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2160201 or scan the QR code below.

Audio script

1. Good morning, Shangri-la hotel, Somsak speaking. How may I assist you?

2. Good afternoon, Bangkok Bank. Can I help you?

3. Good morning, reservation, Wantana speaking. How may I help you?

4. Good afternoon, Samitivej Hospital. How may I assist you?

---

3. Dictation

Listen to the same audio as in step 2 and type what you hear in Liveworksheet. Listen again and check the answers.
Audio: https://youtu.be/HLVhl77GSSQ
Link to Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2160206 or scan the QR code below.

4 :Learn new ways to do the task. 🎧

Listen to a telephone conversation between a foreigner and a bank employee. Based on the map below, the students draw on the map follow the conversation they hear and identify the location on the map.
Video: https://youtu.be/YpAlV3dmpX4

MRT วัดมังกร
Wat Mangkon
BL29

โรงเรียนวัดคณิกาผล WAT KHANIKAPHON SCHOOL
วัดคณิกาผล WAT KHANIKAPHON
สถานีตำรวจนครบาลพลับพลาไชย 1 PHLAPPHLA CHAI METROPOLITAN POLICE STATION 1
วัดคณิกาผล WAT KHANIKAPHON
คลินิก 405 ทันตแพทย์ 405 DENTAL CLINIC
วัดมังกรกมลาวาส (วัดเล่งเน่ยยี่) WAT MANGKON KAMALAWAT (WAT LENG NOEI YI)
ศูนย์การค้าเสือป่า SUEA PA SHOPPING CENTER
โรงพยาบาลสัตว์พลับพลาไชย PHLAPPHLA CHAI VETERINARY HOSPITAL
แพทย์สถานเอ็งงีเล้ง UENG NGI LENG CLINIC
อาคารบุญเสริม BUN SOEM TOWER
ที่จอดรถสิริรามา SIRI RAMA CAR PARKING
ธนาคารธนชาต THANACHART BANK
ศูนย์ปฏิบัติงานอาสาตำรวจนครบาล สถานีตำรวจนครบาลพลับพลาไชย 1 PHLAPPHLA CHAI 1METROPOLITAN POLICE STATION VOLUNTARY POLICE OPERATION CENTER
ศาลเจ้ากวางตุ้ง KWANG TUNG SHRINE
สถานพยาบาลมูลนิธิกวางสือป่วยเรื้อรังสามัคคีสงเคราะห์ KWONG SIO FOUNDATION CHRONIC PATIENT NURSING HOME
รัศมี (Radius) 100 เมตร (Meters)
โรงเรียนมังกรกมลาวาสวิทยาลัย MANGKON KAMALAWAT SCHOOL

สถานีถัดไป สถานีสามยอด Next Station Sam Yot — **BL30**
BL28 — สถานีถัดไป สถานีหัวลำโพง Next Station Hua Lamphong
ถนนเจริญกรุง CHAROEN KRUNG RD.
M MRT วัดมังกร Wat Mangkon BL29

จึงเม่งซินหินแพทย์ CHUENG MENG SIN DENTAL CLINIC
ธนาคารยูโอบี UOB BANK
คุมอง KUMON
ไชน่าทาวเวอร์ CHINA TOWER
แยกแปลงนาม PLAENG NAM INTERSECTION
คลินิกทันตแพทย์ 578 578 DENTAL CLINIC
ศาลเจ้าเล่าปุงเถ่ากง (ศาลเจ้าเลี้ยงเป็ด) LAO PUENG THAO KONG SHRINE (LIANG PET SHRINE)
ชุมชนคุรุสภาสามัคคี KHUSON SAMAKKHI COMMUNITY
เช็คอินน์ไชน่าทาวน์ CHECK INN CHINA TOWN
ศาลเจ้าล่งบ้วยเอี๊ยะ LENG BUAI IA SHRINE
แฟลตตลาดพุทธรักษ์ PHUTTHARET MARKET FLAT
ให้เอี๊ยงทันตแพทย์คลินิก THAI IANG DENTAL CLINIC
ศาลเจ้าพระโพธิสัตว์กวนอิม PHRA PHOTHISAT KUAN-IM SHRINE
วัดกุศลสมาคร WAT KUSON SAMAKHON
วัดกันมาตุยาราม WAT KANMATUYARAM
อาคารพิชัยญาติ PHICHAI YAT BUILDING
วัดมงคลสมาคม WAT MONGKHON SAMAKHOM
คลินิกน้ำแซ่ไต้แพทย์แผนไทย NAM SAE THAI THAI TRADITIONAL MEDICAL CLINIC
โฮเตลรอยัลบางกอกแอทไชน่าทาวน์ HOTEL ROYAL BANGKOK AT CHINA TOWN
ธนาคารแลนด์แอนด์เฮ้าส์ LH RETAIL BANK
โรงแรมบรอดเวย์ BROADWAY HOTEL
โรงเรียนคุรุสภาวิทยาลัย KUSONSAMAKON WITTHAYALAI SCHOOL
วัดบำเพ็ญจีนพรต WAT BAMPHEN CHIN PROT
ธนาคารไอซีบีซี (ไทย) ICBC (THAI) BANK
ธนาคารธนชาต THANACHART BANK
ธนาคารเกียรตินาคิน KIATNAKIN BANK
ธนาคารกสิกรไทย KASIKORN BANK
โรงภาพยนตร์ไชน่าทาวน์รามา CHINA TOWN RAMA CINIMA
ธนาคารกรุงไทย KRUNG THAI BANK
ธนาคารยูโอบี UOB BANK
ธนาคารออมสิน GOVERNMENT SAVINGS BANK
ธนาคารทิสโก้ TISCO BANK
อาคารฮั่วเซ่งเฮง HUA SENG HENG BUILDING
ธนาคารกรุงเทพ BANGKOK BANK
ธนาคารไทยพาณิชย์ SIAM COMMERCIAL BANK
วัดชัยภูมิการาม WAT CHAIYAPHUMKARAM
ตลาดเก่า OLD MARKET
ศาลเจ้าแม่กวนอิม (ชื่อปุยนาน่า) CHAOMAE KUAN-IM SHRINE (CHUE PUI NIA NA)
โรงแรมสินไต้ถง SIN TAI TONG HOTEL
ธนาคารธนชาต THANACHART BANK
ถนนพลับพลาไชย PHLAPPHLA CHAI RD.
ถนนเจริญกรุง 16 CHAROEN KRUNG 16
ถนนมังกร MANGKON RD.
ถนนแปลงนาม PLAENG NAM RD.
ถนนภูดิจ PHADUNG DAO RD.
ถนนเยาวราช YAOWARAT RD.
ถนนพัทสาย PHAT SAI RD.
ถนนสันติภาพ SANTIPHAP RD.

สัญลักษณ์ Legend

- สถานพยาบาล Hospital & Clinic
- สถานีตำรวจ Police Station
- สถานที่ราชการ หน่วยงานภาครัฐ Government Office
- หน่วยงานภาคเอกชน Private&Public Organizations
- ห้างสรรพสินค้า ตลาด Shopping area&Fresh market
- ที่อยู่อาศัย คอนโด โรงแรม Residential, Condominiums&Hotels
- ธนาคาร Bank
- วัด ศริสจักร มัสยิด Religious place
- สถานศึกษา สถานรับเลี้ยงเด็ก Education & Child Care
- พื้นที่สีเขียว Green Zone
- ทางแยกสำคัญ Intersection
- คมนาคม ขนส่ง Transportation

BANGKOK MRT APPLICATION
App Store Google play
BEM_MRT
BEM.MRT
WWW.BEMPLC.CO.TH

รถไฟฟ้าสายสีน้ำเงิน MRT Blue Line
การรถไฟฟ้าขนส่งมวลชนแห่งประเทศไทย MASS RAPID TRANSIT AUTHORITY OF THAILAND
BEM BANGKOK EXPRESSWAY AND METRO

Audio script

Bank Officer: Good afternoon, UOB Bank, Suwanna speaking. How may I help you?

Gary: Good afternoon, I'd like to go to your bank, but I'm not sure how to get there. Can you tell me how to get to UOB bank?

Bank Officer: Yes, I can. Could I ask what modes of transportation you will use, sir?

Gary: Well, I'll take the underground train. MRT?

Bank Office: Yes, MRT. Which station are you at now, sir?

Gary: I am at the MRT Yak Tiwanon Station (PP13).

Bank Officer: Our bank is near the MRT Wat Mangkon Station. You should first take a train from Yak Tiwanon Station to Tao Poon Station. It's an interchange station, and you change from the purple line to the blue line. From Tao Poon Station, you should then take a second train to Tha Phra Station. It's another interchange station.

Gary: How far is it from Tao Poon Station?

Bank Officer: It is nine stations away from Tao Poon. Get off at the ninth stop from Tao Poon Station, sir. Then you take a third train to Wat Mangkon Station. It's four stations away from Tao Poon.

Gary: Yes.

Bank Officer: Get off at Wat Mangkon Station, take the first exit and walk down the steps. Then, walk along Prang Nam Road. You will see the Nam Sae Thai Thai traditional medical clinic on your left. Walk past that. Cross Yaowarat Road. The bank is on the other side of the road, in front of you.

Gary: How far is it from the MRT station to the bank?

Bank officer: It's around 200 meters.

Gary: Ok, not too far. Thank you.

Bank officer: You're welcome, sir.

Phase 3: Interactive Task Sequence 6

5: Roleplay Task 6 (*Same task repetition*)
Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the worksheet for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.

See pages 287 to 290 for the Task 6 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

End of lesson 3

Lesson 4

Phase 1: Interactive Task Sequence 7

1. Roleplay Task 7 (*See how well you can do the task.*)
Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the worksheet for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.
Sample worksheet for student A
TASK 7   **Student A**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A That Student)
You are a Thai student at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, RMUTP. You receive a phone call from your foreign professor asking for directions to the campus. Your professor is new in Bangkok and wants to meet you at your location on campus. You have to give directions to your professor to meet you at "The main hall". DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

Please access the given maps to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok trains map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg

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2. Bus to campus:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/10jUW_WoGJbFo7Epk59few9bvEqhKP9PW/view?usp=sharing

3. RMUTP Campus map:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SWVLXv81GJy5PcUyEbyjQR3sbd53DTRx/view?usp=sharing

A Listener Role (A Foreign Professor)

You are a foreign professor. You are new to the Bangkok area. You want to meet up with your student on campus, but you are not sure how to get to the campus. Make a phone call to your Thai student, and ask for directions and the meeting point. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

You are at "MRT Silom Station"

Use the maps from the links above as references.

See pages 291 to 294 for the Task 7 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

Phase 2: Input-Based Task Sequence

2: Share your own ideas.

Work with a partner .In Liveworksheets, choose any square and read it to your partner .Your partner will answer. Drag the red crosses and drop them on the squares .Then reverse roles and try again .Continue until all the squares are crossed out.

Link to Liveworksheets: https://www.liveworksheets.com/w/en/english-second-language-esl/2160291 or scan the QR code below

CHOOSE ANY SQUARE AND READ

IT TO YOUR PARTNER. YOUR PARTNER WILL ANSWER. DRAG THE RED CROSSES AND DROP THEM ON THE SQUARES. THEN REVERSE ROLES AND TRY AGAIN. CONTINUE UNTIL ALL THE SQUARES ARE CROSSED OUT.

EXPLAIN HOW TO GET FROM YOUR HOME TO THE **NEAREST 7/11.**

Think of a town you know well. Describe the route from a school to a hospital.

Tell me three phrases you might use if an English speaker asked you for directions.

Tell me three phrases you might use when asking for directions in an English-speaking country.

Think of a town you know well. Describe the route from a market to a police station.

Explain how to get from your home to Bangkok Commercial Campus, RMUTP.

3. Learn new ways to do the task. 🎧

Listen to a telephone conversation between an American teacher and a student of RMUTP. Based on the maps below, the students draw on the maps, follow the conversation they hear and identify the location on the map.

Video: https://youtu.be/WJjeisOVL70
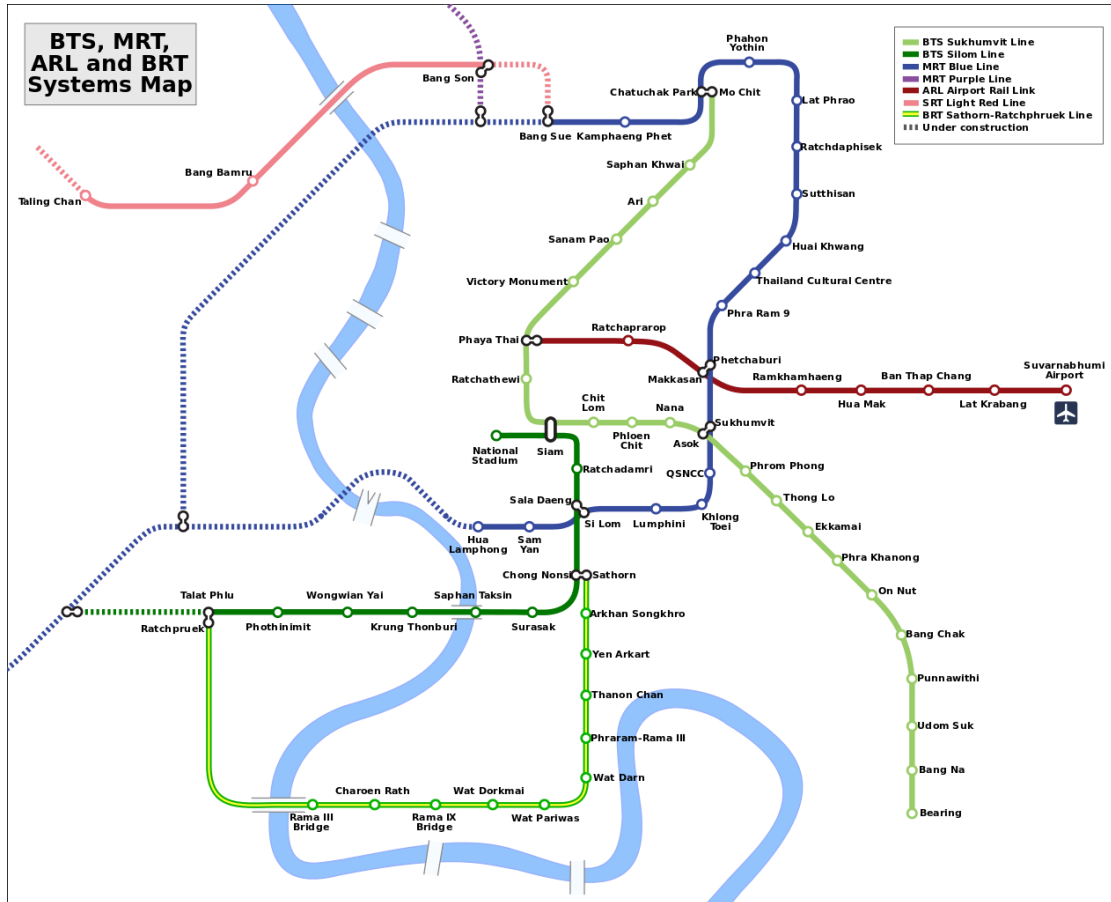
Bus to the campus

From **BTS Ratchathewi** No. 16, 23, 99, 505

From **BTS Victory Monument** No. 157, 509
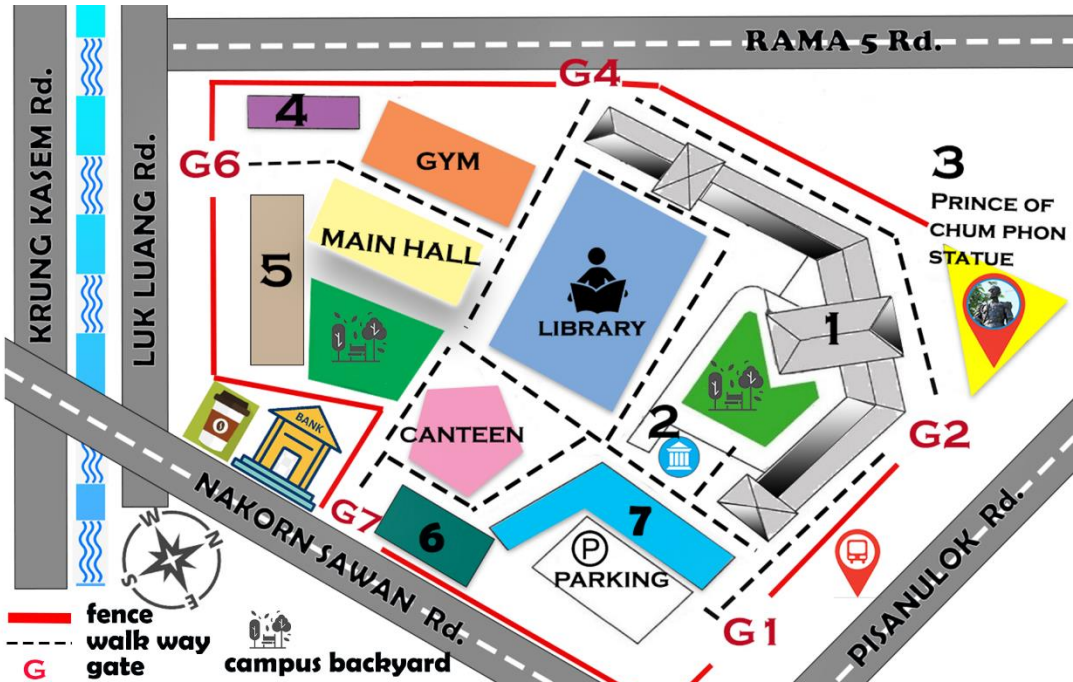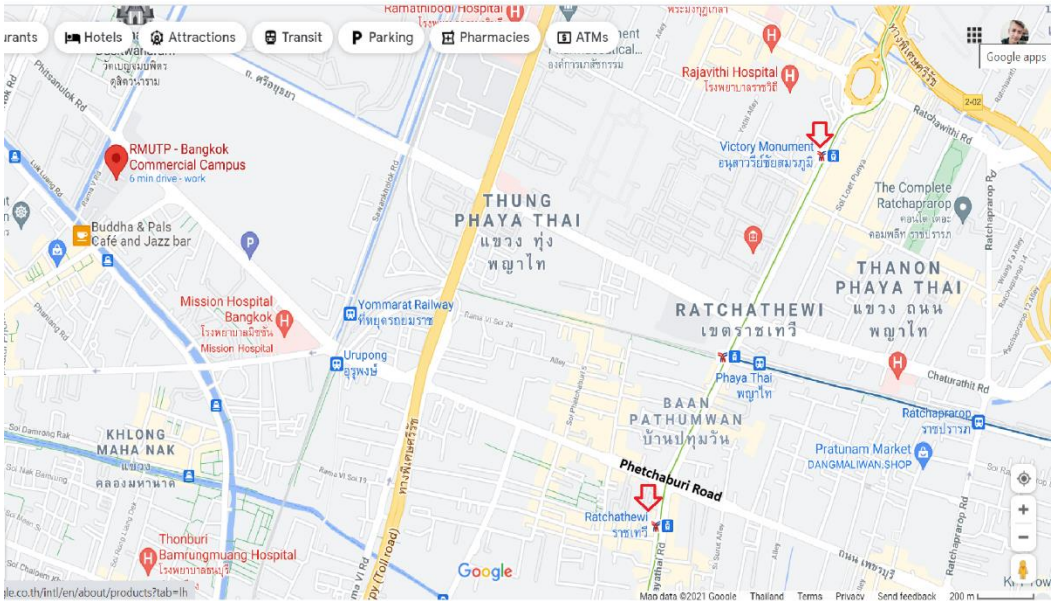
1: BUILDING 1, **2:** RUAN MOR PHON MUSEUM, **4:** BUILDING 4
5: FACULTY OF LIBERAL ARTS, **7:** FACULTY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
6: FACULTY OF INDUSTRAIL TEXTILES AND FASION DESIGN

Audio script

Mr. Grey:	Hello Bam. How are you doing?
Bam:	Hello, Mr Grey. I'm great, thank you. How about you?
Mr. Grey:	Good, thank you. Listen, I'm on my way to the campus but I'm not sure about the directions.
Bam:	Ok.
Mr. Grey:	Are you on campus? Where are you?
Bam:	Yes. I am. I'm at the Faculty of Liberal Arts building at the moment.
Mr. Grey:	Hey, that's great. I'm about to go there too. Can you tell me how to get there from the MRT Hua Lampong Station?
Bam:	Yes, sir. From Hua Lampong Station, you should take a train to Silom Station, get off there and change from the MRT train to the BTS train at Sala Daeng Station. Take the BTS train from Sala Daeng to Siam Station, it's the interchange station.
Mr. Grey:	Ok, do I have to change trains there?
Bam:	Yes, sir. You have to change from the Silom line to the Sukhumvit line. Take a new train heading to Ratchathewi Station. Get off at the first stop from Siam Station. Ratchathewi Station is close to our campus.
Mr. Grey:	Alright, then?
Bam:	Go out of the station, you'll see a bus stop on Phetchaburi Road. Take bus number 16, 99, 23, or 505 to the campus.
Mr. Grey:	All of them are going to the campus?
Bam:	Yes. It'll take you around ten to fifteen minutes to the campus bus stop.
Mr. Grey:	Ok, should be easy.
Bam:	From the bus stop, go through gate number one and turn right, you'll see the blue building. Turn left there. Walk straight until you see the campus backyard opposite the canteen. Turn right there, go straight, and take the first left. Keep going until you see gate number six. The faculty building will be on your left.
Mr. Grey:	Alright, let me write that down. Thank you, Bam.
Bam:	My pleasure, Mr. Grey. See you.

Phase 3: Interactive Task Sequence 8

4: Roleplay Task 8 (*Same task repetition*)

Divide the class into groups of four. In each group, assign students as A, B, C, and D. In round 1, student A works with B, and C works with D. Student A uses the worksheet for A, as well as students B, C, and D, respectively. Change roles as a speaker and a listener. Then change partner in round 2.

See pages 291 to 294 for the Task 8 worksheet for each student or scan the QRs below.

Worksheet for student A

Worksheet for student B

Worksheet for student C

Worksheet for student D

End of lesson 4

Task 1 Worksheets

Task 1   **Worksheet for student "A"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

You are at the starting point.

Ask your friend to the following places.

      Round 1: Call student "B" and ask directions to **"The shoe shop"**

      Round 2: Call student "D" and ask directions to **"The library"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.

Task 1   **Worksheet for student "B"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

You are at the starting point.

Ask your friend to the following places.

      Round 1: Call student "A" and ask directions to **"The bank"**

      Round 2: Call student "C" and ask directions to **"The pub"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.

Task 1   **Worksheet for student "C"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

You are at the starting point.

Ask your friend to the following places.

     Round 1: Call student "D" and ask directions to **"The library"**

     Round 2: Call student "B" and ask directions to **"The shoe shop"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.

Task 1   **Worksheet for student "D"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

You are at the starting point.

Ask your friend to the following places.

Round 1: Call student "C" and ask directions to **"The pub"**

Round 2: Call student "A" and ask directions to **"The bank"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.

The pub   The bank
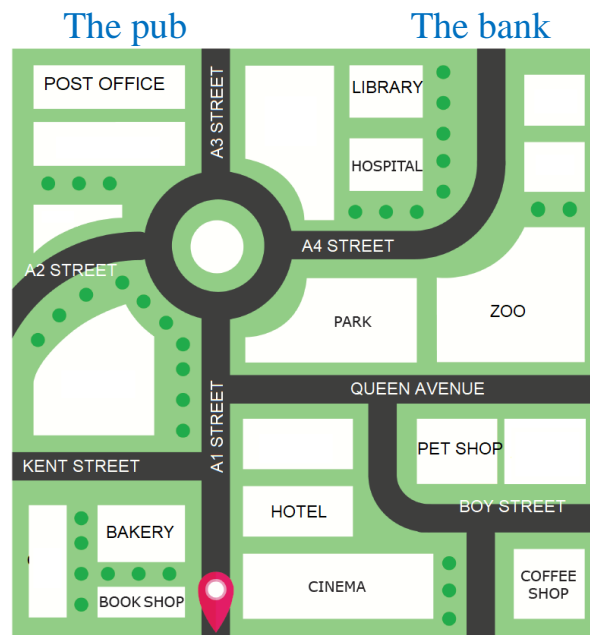
Task 2 Worksheets

Task 2 **Worksheet for student "A"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

You are at the starting point.

Ask your friend to the following places.

> Round 1: Call student "B" and ask directions to **"The town hall"**
>
> Round 2: Call student "D" and ask directions to **"The bus station"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.

The town hall   The bus station
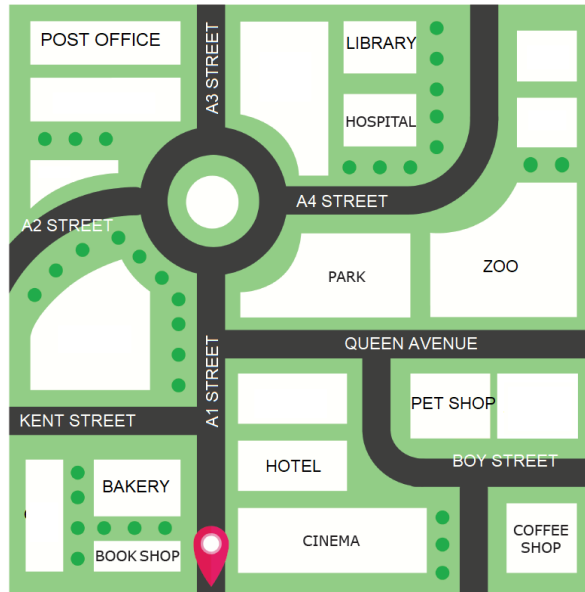
Task 2   **Worksheet for student "B"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

You are at the starting point.

Ask your friend to the following places.

Round 1: Call student "A" and ask directions to **"The book shop"**

Round 2: Call student "C" and ask directions to **"The shoe shop"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.
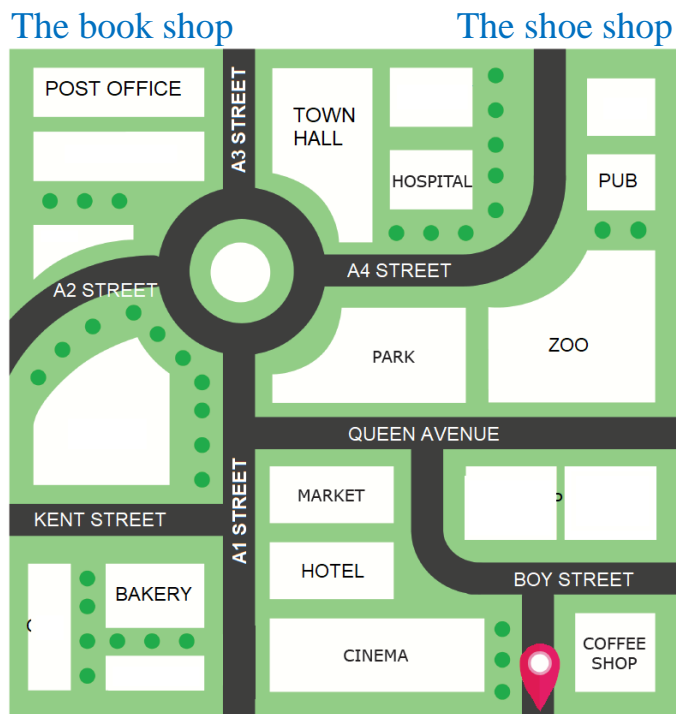
Task 2   **Worksheet for student "C"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

You are at the starting point.

Ask your friend to the following places.

      Round 1: Call student "D" and ask directions to **"The bus station"**

      Round 2: Call student "B" and ask directions to **"The town hall"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.
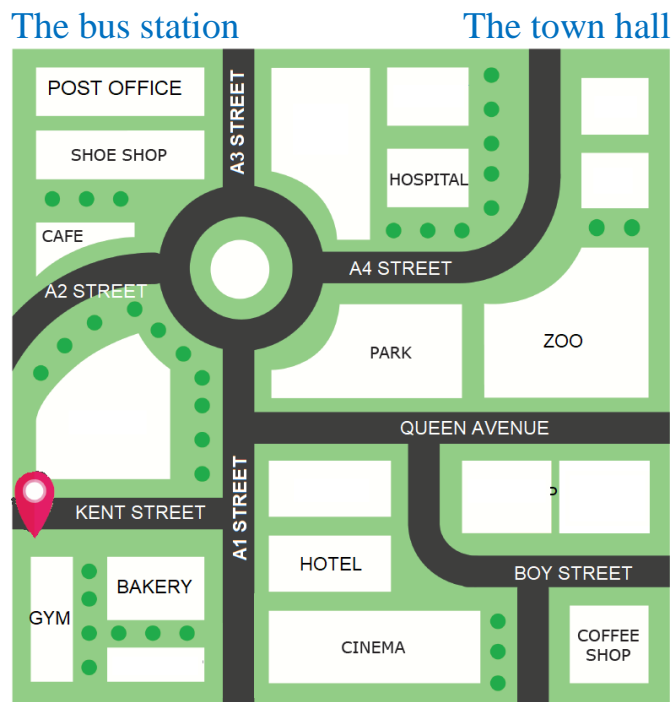
Task 2   **Worksheet for student "D"**

DO NOT LET YOUR FRIEND SEE YOUR MAP

First:

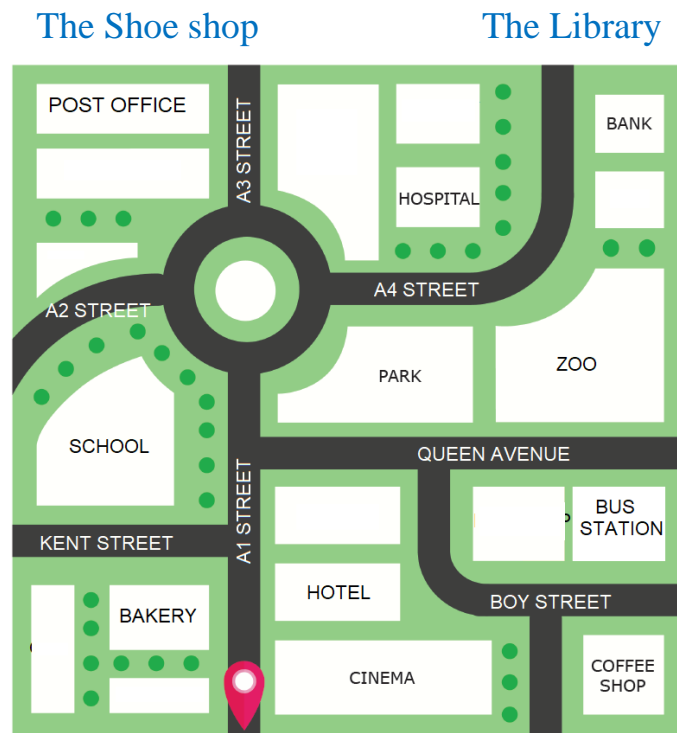You are at the starting point. 📍

Ask your friend to the following places.

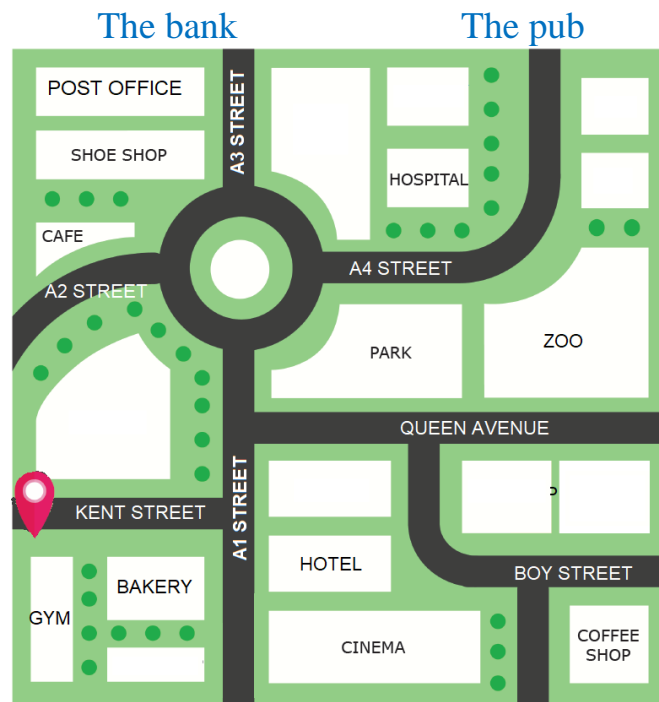   Round 1: Call student "C" and ask directions to **"The shoe shop"**
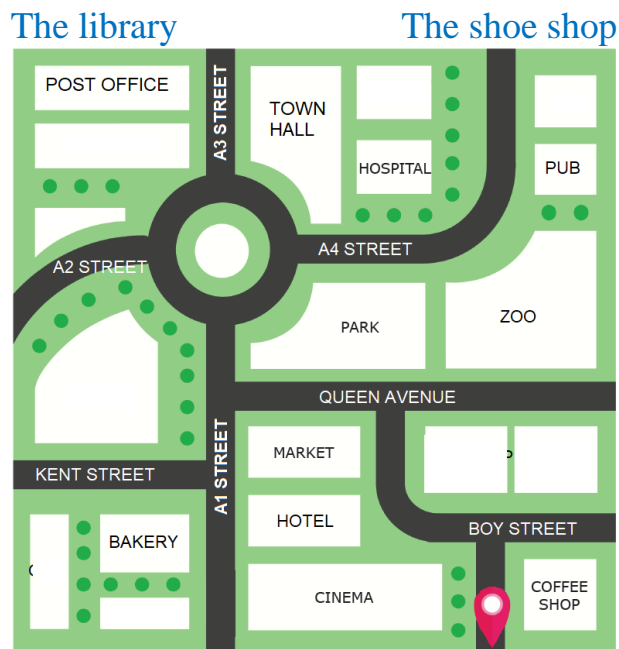
      Round 2: Call student "A" and ask directions to **"The book shop"**

Start from the starting point, follow the directions that you heard and identify the locations. Drag the locations and drop on the map.

Click "Finish!!" below and check your answers.

The shoe shop   The book shop
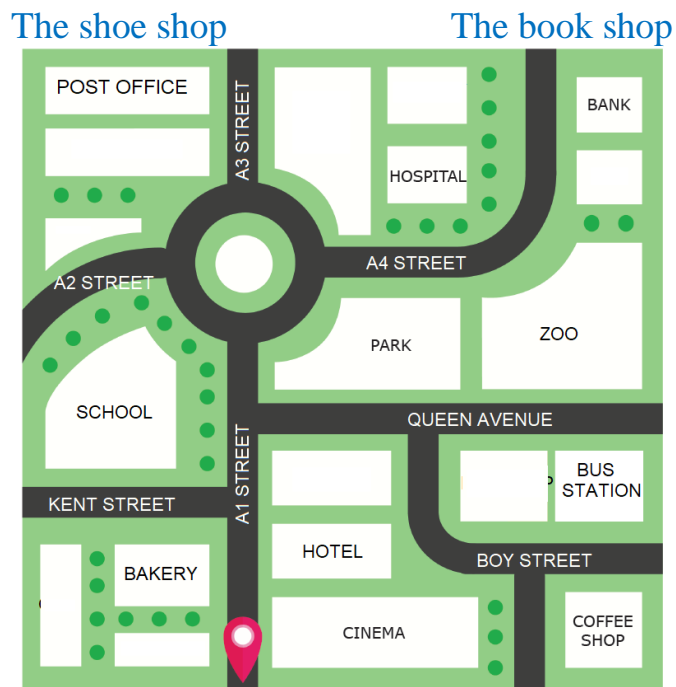
Task 3 Worksheets

Task 3   **Worksheet for Student A**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)

You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.

         You are at Phra Ram 9 Station

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.

1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg

2. Phra Ram 9 Station Area Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=2&Station=20

Think about:
- What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
- Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
- How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
- What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)

You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 3   **Worksheet for Student B**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)
You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.
            You are at Ratchathewi Station
Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Ratchathewi Station Area Map:
https://btsapp1.bts.co.th/WebApplication//WareHouse/AreaMap/310562095833StationAreamap@website_N1_Dr1.png
Think about:
·   What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
·   Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
·   How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
·   What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)
You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 3   **Worksheet for Student C**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)
You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.
       You are at Nana Station
Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Nana Station Area Map:
https://btsapp1.bts.co.th/WebApplication//WareHouse/AreaMap/021062101631AW_Areamap@website_E3_SEP19.png
Think about:
· What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
· Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
· How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
· What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)
You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 3   **Worksheet for Student D**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)
You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.
          You are at Victory Monument Station
Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Victory Monument Station Area Map:
https://btsapp1.bts.co.th/WebApplication//WareHouse/AreaMap/310562095724StationAreamap@website_N3_Dr1.png
Think about:
· What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
· Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
· How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
· What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)
You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 4 Worksheets

Task 4   **Worksheet for Student A**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

> *A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)*
> You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.
>   **You are at Nana Station**
> Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
> 1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
> 2. Nana Station Area Map:
> https://btsapp1.bts.co.th/WebApplication//WareHouse/AreaMap/021062101631AW_Areamap@website_E3_SEP19.png
> Think about:
> - What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
> - Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
> - How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
> - What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

> *A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)*
> You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 4   **Worksheet for Student B**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)
You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.
        You are at Victory Monument Station
Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Victory Monument Station Area Map:
https://btsapp1.bts.co.th/WebApplication//WareHouse/AreaMap/310562095724StationAreamap@website_N3_Dr1.png
Think about:
·   What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
·   Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
·   How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
·   What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)
You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 4   **Worksheet for Student C**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)

You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.

        You are at Rama 9 Station

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.

1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg

2. Rama 9 Station Area Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=2&Station=20

Think about:

- What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
- Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
- How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
- What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)

You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 4   **Worksheet for Student D**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (Thai Friend)

You are a Thai friend receiving a phone call from your foreign friend who just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport. S/he is visiting Thailand for the first time. Give directions to your location by using BTS or MRT trains. DO NOT ask your friend to take a taxi. You have 3 minutes to speak.

          You are at Ratchathewi Station

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.

1. Bangkok Trains Map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg

2. Ratchathewi Station Station Area Map:

https://btsapp1.bts.co.th/WebApplication//WareHouse/AreaMap/310562095833StationAreamap@website_N1_Dr1.png

Think about:

·   What is your friend's starting point? Which station is your friend located?
·   Should your friend change to any stations? What are they?
·   How many stops to the destination? How long does it take?
·   What is the name of the final station? Which exit should be taken? Where exactly is the meeting point?

A Listener Role (Foreign Friend)

You are a foreigner who has just landed at Suvarnabhumi Airport for the first time. You want to visit your Thai friend. Make a phone call to your Thai friend and ask how to get to his/her location from Suvarnabhumi Airport. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

Task 5 and Task 6 Worksheets

Tasks 5 and 6   **Worksheet for student A**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Banker)

You are a Thai banker working for LH Retail Bank. You receive a phone call from a foreign customer asking for directions to your bank. Give directions to your bank location. DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

You are at   LH Retail Bank (near Wat Mangkorn Station)

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. MRT Trains Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/MRT-System-Map
2. Wat Mangkorn Station Area Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=1&Station=29
Think about:
- How formal should you be speaking to a customer?
- Where is your customer's location? Which train station should be taken? Any interchange stations? How many stops?
- Where exactly are you on the map?
- The destination is MRT Wat Mangkorn station. Which exit is recommended? How to get to your bank? What streets should be taken? How long does it take? How far?

A Listener Role (A Foreign Customer)

You are a foreigner. You want to go to the bank. Make a phone call to the bank and ask for directions.
              You are at **Fai Chai Station (BL03)**
      Round 1   Call student **B** and ask for directions to TISCO Bank
      Round 2   Call Student **D** and ask for directions to Bangkok Bank

Tasks 5 and 6   **Worksheet for student B**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Banker)
You are a Thai banker working for TISCO Bank. You receive a phone call from a foreign customer asking for directions to your bank. Give directions to your bank location. DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

       You are at   TISCO Bank

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. MRT Trains Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/MRT-System-Map
2. Wat Mangkorn Station Area Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=1&Station=29
Think about:
- How formal should you be speaking to a customer?
- Where is your customer's location? Which train station should be taken? Any interchange stations? How many stops?
- Where exactly are you on the map?
- The destination is MRT Wat Mangkorn station. Which exit is recommended? How to get to your bank? What streets should be taken? How long does it take? How far?

A Listener Role (A Foreign Customer)
You are a foreigner. You want to go to the bank. Make a phone call to the bank and ask for directions.
       You are at **Bang Son Station (PP15)**
    Round 1   Call student **A** and ask for directions to **LH Retail Bank**
    Round 2   Call Student **C** and ask for directions to **Government Saving Bank**

Tasks 5 and 6   **Worksheet for student C**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Banker)
You are a Thai banker working for Government Saving Bank. You receive a phone call from a foreign customer asking for directions to your bank. Give directions to your bank location. DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

You are at   Government Saving Bank

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. MRT Trains Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/MRT-System-Map
2. Wat Mangkorn Station Area Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=1&Station=29
Think about:
- How formal should you be speaking to a customer?
- Where is your customer's location? Which train station should be taken? Any interchange stations? How many stops?
- Where exactly are you on the map?
- The destination is MRT Wat Mangkorn station. Which exit is recommended? How to get to your bank? What streets should be taken? How long does it take? How far?

A Listener Role (A Foreign Customer)
You are a foreigner. You want to go to the bank. Make a phone call to the bank and ask for directions.
            You are at **Fai Chai Station (BL03)**
    Round 1   Call student **D** and ask for directions to **Bangkok Bank**
    Round 2   Call Student **B** and ask for directions to **TISCO Bank**

Tasks 5 and 6   **Worksheet for student D**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Banker)
You are a Thai banker working for Bangkok Bank. You receive a phone call from a foreign customer asking for directions to your bank. Give directions to your bank location. DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

You are at   Bangkok Bank

Please access the train map links to prepare for your speaking.
1. MRT Trains Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/MRT-System-Map
2. Wat Mangkorn Station Area Map: https://metro.bemplc.co.th/Line-Maps?Line=1&Station=29
Think about:
- How formal should you be speaking to a customer?
- Where is your customer's location? Which train station should be taken? Any interchange stations? How many stops?
- Where exactly are you on the map?
- The destination is MRT Wat Mangkorn station. Which exit is recommended? How to get to your bank? What streets should be taken? How long does it take? How far?

A Listener Role (A Foreign Customer)
You are a foreigner. You want to go to the bank. Make a phone call to the bank and ask for directions.
        You are at Bang Son Station (PP15)
        Round 1   Call student C and ask for directions to Government SavingBank
        Round 2   Call Student A and ask for directions to LH Retail Bank

Task 7 and Task 8 Worksheets

Tasks 7 and 8   **Worksheet for student A**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Student)

You are a Thai student at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, RMUTP. You receive a phone call from your foreign professor asking for directions to the campus. Your professor is new in Bangkok and wants to meet you at your location on campus. You have to give directions to your professor to meet you at "The main hall". DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

Please access the given maps to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok trains map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Bus to campus:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/10jUW_WoGJbFo7Epk59few9bvEqhKP9PW/view?usp=sharing
3. RMUTP Campus map:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SWVLXv81GJy5PcUyEbyjQR3sbd53DTRx/view?usp=sharing

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A Listener Role (A Foreign Professor)

You are a foreign professor. You are new to the Bangkok area. You want to meet up with your student on campus, but you are not sure how to get to the campus. Make a phone call to your Thai student, and ask for directions and the meeting point. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

You are at "MRT Silom Station"

Use the maps from the links above as references.

Tasks 7 and 8   **Worksheet for student B**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Student)
You are a Thai student at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, RMUTP. You receive a phone call from your foreign professor asking for directions to the campus. Your professor is new in Bangkok and wants to meet you at your location on campus. You have to give directions to your professor to meet you at "The library". DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

Please access the given maps to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok trains map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Bus to campus:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/10jUW_WoGJbFo7Epk59few9bvEqhKP9PW/view?usp=sharing
3. RMUTP Campus map:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SWVLXv81GJy5PcUyEbyjQR3sbd53DTRx/view?usp=sharing

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A Listener Role (A Foreign Professor)
You are a foreign professor. You are new to the Bangkok area. You want to meet up with your student on campus, but you are not sure how to get to the campus. Make a phone call to your Thai student, and ask for directions and the meeting point. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

<div align="center">You are at " MRT Rat Phrao Station "</div>

Use the maps from the links above as references.

Tasks 7 and 8   **Worksheet for student C**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Student)
You are a Thai student at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, RMUTP. You receive a phone call from your foreign professor asking for directions to the campus. Your professor is new in Bangkok and wants to meet you at your location on campus. You have to give directions to your professor to meet you at " Ruan Mor Phon Museum ". DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

Please access the given maps to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok trains map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Bus to campus:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/10jUW_WoGJbFo7Epk59few9bvEqhKP9PW/view?usp=sharing
3. RMUTP Campus map:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SWVLXv81GJy5PcUyEbyjQR3sbd53DTRx/view?usp=sharing

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A Listener Role (A Foreign Professor)
You are a foreign professor. You are new to the Bangkok area. You want to meet up with your student on campus, but you are not sure how to get to the campus. Make a phone call to your Thai student, and ask for directions and the meeting point. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

You are at " MRT Chatuchak Park Station "

Use the maps from the links above as references.

Tasks 7 and 8   **Worksheet for student D**

Instruction: Work in pairs. You are taking a roleplay as a speaker and then changing to a listener or vice versa. You have 4 minutes to plan your speaking.

Situation:

A Speaker Role (A Thai Student)
You are a Thai student at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, RMUTP. You receive a phone call from your foreign professor asking for directions to the campus. Your professor is new in Bangkok and wants to meet you at your location on campus. You have to give directions to your professor to meet you at " Building 4 ". DO NOT tell him/her to take a Taxi. You have 5 minutes to speak.

Please access the given maps to prepare for your speaking.
1. Bangkok trains map: https://ontheworldmap.com/thailand/city/bangkok/bangkok-bts-mrt-arl-brt-map.jpg
2. Bus to campus:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/10jUW_WoGJbFo7Epk59few9bvEqhKP9PW/view?usp=sharing
3. RMUTP Campus map:
https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SWVLXv81GJy5PcUyEbyjQR3sbd53DTRx/view?usp=sharing

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A Listener Role (A Foreign Professor)
You are a foreign professor. You are new to the Bangkok area. You want to meet up with your student on campus, but you are not sure how to get to the campus. Make a phone call to your Thai student, and ask for directions and the meeting point. You CAN NOT take a Taxi.

You are at " MRT QSNCC Station "

Use the maps from the links above as references.

Appendix I:

Impact of Goal-tracking on Engagement in Language Use in an Online TBLT Module for Thai University Students

Study 3
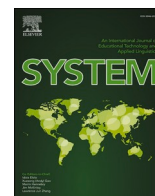
Impact of goal-tracking on engagement in language use in an online TBLT module for Thai university students

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A B S T R A C T

This study investigates the impact of using a criterion-referenced goal-tracking system on task engagement. The study was conducted during a fully-online TBLT program that consisted of 24 task performances of an interactive task type, Giving Directions, sequenced from less to more complex. Seventy-eight first-year English for International Communication majors at a university in Thailand completed the 6-h TBLT module in either one of two groups: 1) Goal-tracking, which required learners to reflect on whether they had met pre-determined criteria for successful task performance, and 2) non-goal-tracking, which required learners to reflect on their performance without the provision of any performance criteria. To determine the impact of goal-tracking on task engagement, task performances before and after the module were analyzed for indicators of Engagement in Language use (ELU) and included words and turns produced (behavioral engagement), backchannels (social engagement), and negotiation of meaning sequences (cognitive engagement). A multivariate analysis revealed that learners significantly improved in ELU after completion of the TBLT module regardless of group. However, while goal-tracking resulted in significantly more negotiation of meaning sequences (cognitive engagement), non-goal-tracking did not. Results are discussed in terms of how goal-tracking within a TBLT course might be implemented to improve task engagement.

1. Introduction

In task-based language teaching (TBLT), 'tasks' are pedagogic tools used to promote incidental second-language learning during meaning-focused communication where learners acquire language *through* task performance rather than *for* task performance (Ellis et al., 2020). To date, TBLT researchers have primarily been concerned with the relationship between task design features and task performance. The aim has been to establish general principles that address learners' psycholinguistic needs (Skehan, 2018). However, recent trends have begun to recognize the integral role of the learner in TBLT (Lambert et al., 2023) with a growing focus on investigating *task engagement* to account for learners' deliberate and active involvement in task performances (e.g., Aubrey, 2022a; Aubrey & Philpott, 2023; Aubrey et al., 2022; Dao & Sato, 2021; Lambert et al., 2017; Dao, 2021; Lambert et al., 2023; Lambert &

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Zhang, 2019; Lambert et al., in press; Nakamura et al., 2021; Qui & Lo, 2017; Stroud, 2017; Tsoi & Aubrey, 2023).

Engendering high levels of social, cognitive, and behavioral engagement is seen as a priority for language teachers (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020). TBLT research investigating this issue has primarily been concerned with how task design features (e.g., task topic, type and content) can be manipulated to enhance learners' personal investment in task performance (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Nakamura et al., 2021; Phung, 2017). However, it is necessary to build on this research foundation to also understand how teachers might implement tasks within a TBLT course to promote engagement. Such course-based considerations necessarily include repeating and sequencing tasks, which bring their own effects on learner engagement (e.g., Kim & Tracy-Ventura, 2013; Qui & Lo, 2017). Furthermore, existing task engagement research has typically focused on face-to-face (FTF) settings, with little attention paid to learners' involvement in tasks within technology-mediated environments. Given the surge in online learning (Al Shlowi et al., 2021) and the unique features of online tools to support task-based learning (Chong & Reinders, 2020), more evidence-based recommendations for implementing online task-based courses successfully are needed (Smith & Ziegler, 2023).

One intervention which may enhance task engagement over time is the use of goal-tracking. This consists of asking learners to evaluate their task performances based on specific criteria of success determined by a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) or established standards of importance (Lambert, 2023a). In contrast to other forms of reflective practice, which typically rely on learners' own intuition of what they think is needed to improve in a future performance (Dao et al., 2020; Khezrlou, 2021), goal-tracking focuses learners' attention on explicit benchmarks of success so they can track their improvement over repeated performances. The current study examines how goal-tracking based on criteria established by a TBNA impacted English language learners' engagement during a fully online TBLT course at a university in Thailand. To determine the impact of goal-tracking on task engagement, verbal indicators of engagement in language use (ELU) (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023; Lambert et al., 2017) during task performance were collected before and after a TBLT module for a group that participated in goal-tracking and a group that reflected on how to improve their own performances.

2. Literature review

2.1. Task engagement

Engagement in learning is associated with action, effort, and active involvement (Christenson et al., 2012; Fredricks et al., 2019), and it has long been considered a construct that predicts desirable academic outcomes (Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Fredricks et al., 2004). In a TBLT classroom setting, specifically, "engagement is a useful lens for L2 researchers seeking to understand how and why individuals focus on, interact within, and learn from tasks" (Hiver & Wu, 2023, p. 74).

Early research conceptualized task engagement in terms of behavioral engagement, or active participation, measured by the number of words and/or turns produced during a task (Dörnyei, 2002; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Kormos & Dörnyei, 2004). The rationale for operationalizing task engagement in this way was based on the idea that the more semantic content learners produce and the more they interact with one another, the more effort they are investing. However, more recent research has begun to recognize that task engagement is also related to the quality of learners' language production, which reflects social and cognitive aspects of language use (Svalberg, 2009, 2018). To account for this complexity, Philp and Duchesne (2016) conceptualized task engagement as a multidimensional construct, which includes behavioral, cognitive, social, and emotional dimensions. While the emotional aspects of engagement relate to the emotions that arise during task performance (e.g., enjoyment, anxiety) and tend to be measured with self-reports (e.g., Aubrey, 2022c; Baralt et al., 2016; Dao & Sato, 2021; Nakamura et al., 2021), behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement have been operationalized with discourse analytic measures which, together, have been referred to as Engagement in Language Use (ELU) (Lambert et al., 2017).

Lambert and Aubrey (2023) provide a recent overview of the ELU framework. They describe *behavioral engagement* as learners' active involvement and persistence in completing tasks, as reflected by the time learners invest in task performance or the amount of language that they produce (Lambert et al., 2017; Nakamura et al., 2021). Accounting for the quality of learners' behavior, *cognitive engagement* refers to the mental effort that learners invest in task performance, evidenced by language-related episodes (LREs) (attention directed toward language issues) (Swain & Lapkin, 1998) or by negotiation of content (attention directed toward clarifying or elaborating content) (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019). Finally, *social engagement* refers to the use of language that serves affiliative functions by encouraging and supporting an interlocutor or by showing empathy or personal interest in what the person is saying (backchannels or non-verbal behaviors) (Gregersen, 2023; Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Phung, 2017). It is important to note that behavioral, cognitive, and social engagement are interdependent, rather than independent constructs (Christenson et al., 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). For example, a learner who displays high social engagement (e.g., acknowledging an interlocutor) is likely to also exhibit high behavioural engagement (e.g., being talkative) and cognitive engagement (e.g., providing and responding to feedback). Thus, task engagement studies often use ELU measures to understand the relationships between dimensions under different task design or task implementation conditions (e.g., Dao, 2021; Nakamura et al., 2021; Phung, 2017; Qiu & Cheng, 2022; Qui & Lo, 2017).

Task engagement research has mostly focused on how changes in task design features (e.g., task topic, task type, task content) impact learner engagement during task performances (e.g., Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Nakamura et al., 2021; Qui & Lo, 2017). A common finding is that giving learners choice over topic (Nakamura et al., 2021) or having them generate their own content to be used in a task (Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019) increases the amount of language produced, time invested in the task, content negotiated, use of socially sensitive language, and learner enthusiasm (for similar findings on the effect of learner preferences, see Phung, 2017; Qui & Lo, 2017). However, engagement also seems to be mediated by the type of task that learners

perform. Dao (2021), for instance, found that a decision-making task encouraged learners to engage more socially with each other compared to opinion-sharing tasks. Dao explained that the task goal requirement in decision-making tasks encouraged learners to offer more mutual support than an equivalent task that does not require learners to converge on a decision. Likewise, Qiu and Cheng (2022) found that learners spent a longer time, exhibited more turn-taking (behavioural engagement) and more frequently negotiated language issues (cognitive engagement) in collaborative storytelling tasks than in collaborative opinion-exchange tasks. Similar to Dao (2021), Qiu and Cheng (2022) explained that the convergent nature of the storytelling task (i.e., to agree on elements of a story) led to higher levels of learner involvement.

The current study adopts the ELU framework to focus on an under-researched task type in task engagement research, an information-transfer task (Nation, 1988). Furthermore, in contrast to much engagement research that has examined variations in task design, we investigate the impact of a task implementation condition, *goal-tracking*, that involves a post-task reflective practice in which learners evaluate their performances in reference to successful performance criteria.

2.2. Reflective learning practice

Reflective learning practices require learners to consciously analyse their past learning experience for the purpose of achieving a future outcome (Kolb, 1984, 2014; Schon, 1983). Reflective learning can be viewed as a cycle, in which learners (1) complete an activity, (2) observe and reflect on the activity, (3) form abstract concepts or strategies for improvement, and (4) apply those strategies to new experiences (Kolb, 1984). Reflective learning practices are considered valuable as they promote learners' self-regulation strategies through monitoring and evaluation of their own learning (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007).

Applied to TBLT, reflective learning practices can involve post-task activities that encourage learners to reflect retrospectively and introspectively on their task performance (Ellis et al., 2020). For example, Khezrlou (2021) carried out a post-task reflection after the first of three narrative tasks where learners were asked to complete a questionnaire that asked them about their attitudes towards the task, how they felt about their performance and their opinions on how they can improve. It was found that learners' tended to reflect on language issues in their initial performance, leading to improved accuracy in subsequent tasks. Similarly, Dao et al. (2020) implemented a reflection intervention after a picture-sequencing and problem-solution task performance to promote attention to form. The intervention also involved a questionnaire, but guided learners by including specific questions on the extent they attended to language issues, causing them to focus on language form in a future task. A characteristic of these reflection interventions is that, rather than providing objective criteria, learners' rely on their own intuition of what they think is needed to improve their performances.

Other forms of reflective practice provide learners with more specific guidance, or goals. According to goal-setting theorists, effective reflection should include "aims of an action to attain a specific standard of proficiency" (Locke & Latham, 2002, p. 705). In other words, learners should have a specific goal in mind related to an ideal level of task competency that they are committed to achieving (Lee & Bong, 2019; Locke, 2000; Locke & Latham, 2006). In providing such goals, teachers might create explicit performance criteria themselves or create rubrics in collaboration with students (e.g., Kartchava & Nassaji, 2019). However, in the context of TBLT, Long (2015) recommends providing students with task goals that are generated as part of a task-based needs analysis (TBNA) (e. g., performing a greeting, asking for information, confirming directions etc.). Formulating criterion-referenced benchmarks for successful task performance in this way may satisfy students' explicit learning goals to a greater extent than when expectations are based on teachers' or learners' own intuition (e.g., Bocanegra-Valle, 2016; Serafini et al., 2015). When these criteria are made available to learners, they might serve to clarify expectations and focus their efforts by breaking performances down into manageable parts.

In sum, there is evidence that reflective practice in TBLT can have positive effects on learners' future performances, particularly in terms of learners' attention to form. However, there are also arguments that learners need to be provided with objective and concrete goals in terms of criteria of success in order to bring their own performance in line with expected standards.

2.3. Goal-tracking

A reflective learning intervention that has been argued to promote task engagement is *goal-tacking*, or asking learners to evaluate and track their performances on a learning task based on a goal, or a criterion of success, until the goal is attained (Lambert, 2023a). In contrast to other post-task reflection activities (e.g., Dao et al., 2020; Kartchava & Nassaji, 2019; Khezrlou, 2021), goal-tacking involves repeated interventions, each of which occurs between performances of the same task type. In this way, learners can incrementally 'track' improvements in their performance over time. Thus, the temporal aspect of goal-tracking means that learner engagement may build over a series of tasks as the end goal is approached (Aubrey, 2022b; Dörnyei et al., 2015; Ibrahim & Al-Hoorie, 2018).

Goal achievement theory suggests that the quality of engagement in an activity, such as goal tracking, partly depends on one's goal orientation (e.g., Ames, 1992; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Much of the empirical work on goal-tracking suggests that learners adopt *performance-oriented goals*, in which the focus is on demonstrating ability in comparison to others (Vansteenkiste et al., 2014). Performance-oriented goal-tracking often include game-based elements in which learners accumulate points based on an achievement criterion, and points are used to compete with others (Dörner et al., 2016). For example, Reese and Wells (2007) report on how a card game and a scoring sheet can be used to promote engagement in English language debate tasks. Learners obtain points for using phrases for expressing opinions while completing pedagogic tasks and trying to raise their scores over time. More recently, Stroud (2017) researched the impact of such a card game used in conjunction with a series of opinion-sharing tasks. Learners were awarded points for performing functions during the task, which they accumulated across similar tasks during a course. Although there were some improvements in engagement, the 'goal-tracking' system failed to improve learners' social and cognitive engagement (e.g.,

making clarifications, requesting, opinion giving, disagreeing/agreeing, paraphrasing, providing help). It might be argued that the performance goal-orientation of learners (i.e., competitively collecting points) may have influenced engagement to a greater extent than the desire to improve their competence in performing the task (Diefenbach & Müssig, 2019; Domínguez et al., 2013).

In contrast to performance goals, *mastery* goal-orientation refers to one's aim to improve competence in comparison to intra-personally defined levels of competence (Belenky & Nokes-Malach, 2013). Applied to goal-tracking in a TBLT environment, mastery goal-orientation involves reflecting on one's own task performances in relation to criteria for success as opposed to comparing one's performances with others. When learners track their progress towards mastery, they are likely to be intrinsically motivated in the task, resulting in meaningful task experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Mastery-goal adoption has clear advantages over performance-goal adoption, including higher overall achievement (Bong, 2009), more willingness to seek out assistance (Ryan & Pintrich, 1997), and more effort invested (Miller et al., 1996). As achievement in TBLT is assessed based on criterion-referenced performance tests (Long, 2015), more research is needed to disambiguate goal-tracking based on criteria of successful task performance from gamified point accumulation.

3. The present study

The present study extends research on reflective practice by investigating EFL learners' ELU in goal-tracking and non-goal-tracking conditions. While the goal-tracking intervention encourages learners to adopt mastery goals by providing them with criteria of successful performance derived from a TBNA, the non-goal-tracking requires learners to simply reflect on their performance without referencing such criteria (Khezrlou, 2021). These reflective practices were employed as post-task activities during a fully online TBLT module at a university in Bangkok, Thailand. The module was designed based on Robinson's (2010) SSARC model, a commonly used TBLT framework that sequences tasks from less to more complex in line with learners' developing abilities (Lambert, 2020; Lambert & Robinson, 2014; Robinson, 2010). However, the pedagogy within each lesson of the module is based on a PTP (Pre-Task, Task, Post-Task) Framework (Lambert, 2020). The following research questions guided the study:

(1) Does the TBLT module used in the study result in increased engagement in pedagogic task performance?
(2) Does criterion-based goal-tracking after each task performance during the TBLT module result in higher task engagement than self-reflection without criterion-based goal-tracking?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

Participants in the study were 78 first-year English for International Communication (EIC) majors at a university in Thailand. They ranged in age from 18 to 20 ($M = 18.26$; $SD = 0.59$). Based on the background information provided by the university admissions office, their English proficiency level ranged from high-beginning to high-intermediate (CEFR A2- B2) (Council of Europe, 2001). These participants volunteered to take part in a one-week online TBLT module that used interactive pedagogic tasks to improve spoken English communication skills in line with their future needs in customer service positions in Thailand, such as hotels, banks, and recreation centers. The module provided the context for this study in which learners participated in either goal-tracking (GT) or non-goal-tracking (NGT) self-reflections after interactive tasks (n = 40, n = 38, respectively). Informed consent was obtained from all

Table 1
Design of the study.

Day		GT Group (N = 40)					NGT Group (N = 38)				
		Class Sizes									
		(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(6)
1	→	Interactive Task (Pre-Test Performance)									
2	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
3	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
4	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
5	→	Self-evaluation after task performance x 6									
6	→	Interactive Task (Post-Test Performance)									

participants before the start of the module.

4.2. Design

This study employed a between-groups, quasi-experimental design. Participants were randomly assigned to either the GT group (34 females; 6 males) or the NGT group (33 females; 5 males). The independent variable in the study is the post-task reflection with two levels (GT and NGT). To facilitate the delivery of the online TBLT module, participants were divided into 10 classes (five classes per group) taught as separate classes by five Thai English teachers. To control for variation in teacher characteristics, each teacher taught one group in each condition. During the TBLT module, learners performed six interactive tasks each day for four days. After each task performance, learners evaluated themselves in one of two ways: Learners in the GT group self-evaluated based on eight criteria of successful task performance (i.e., goal-tracking) as determined by a TBNA (Soongpankhao & Lambert, in press) while learners in NGT group completed the same tasks but were given a questionnaire which asked them to reflect on their performance and how to improve it (i.e., non-goal-tracking) similar to Khezrlou (2021). Differences in improvement in ELU (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023) in the task performances between the two groups were measured using a task administered as a pre-test and post-test to all 78 learners before and after the TBLT module. A summary of the design is shown in Table 1.

The dependent variables in the study were six measures of ELU on the pre-test and post-test: measures of behavioral engagement were the number of words and turns produced by learners, measures of cognitive engagement were negotiation of meaning sequences and elaborations, and measures of social engagement were affiliative and non-affiliative backchannels (for examples of these indicators, see Analysis, Table 5). Pre-test ELU scores for the respective groups did not differ significantly (Pillai's Trace = 0.054, $F(4,74)$ = 1.41, p = .245, partial $\eta2$ = 0.05), indicating that the two groups were initially comparable in terms of their ELU on the tasks before the module before the treatment.

4.3. Materials

The materials for the study consisted of the TBLT module, self-evaluation forms for each group, and the 'exit task' for the module (Long, 2015) which served as a pre-test and post-test.

4.3.1. TBLT module

The TBLT module was implemented fully online using *Google Meet* conferencing software and LINE messaging software. The module consisted of four 90-min lessons (Lessons 1 to 4), each of which centered around an interactive, information-transfer task that required learners to use English to give directions to specific places on maps. This 'Giving Directions' task was performed in pairs, in which one learner took the role of an employee and gave directions in English to the second learner who took the role of the customer and asked for directions. This task was identified as critical for the future needs of EIC majors entering the customer service industry in Thailand based on a TBNA (Soongpankhao & Lambert, in press).

The TBLT module was based on Robinson's (2010) framework that sequenced tasks from less to more complex in line with learners' developing capacities to complete them. The implementation and rationale for the framework is described below.

In the TBLT module, tasks gradually increased in complexity across the four lessons (Long, 2015; Robinson, 2011) based on three sequencing criteria: (1) authenticity, or from simple to authentic maps, (2) scale, or from smaller to larger areas with progressively more elements, and (3) transport, or from one to multiple modes of transportation and transits. As can be seen in Table 2, there were four versions of the task across the TBLT module. Increasing the task complexity in this way is believed to initially encourage learners to focus on meaning, while subsequent more complex versions allowed learners to direct their attention to linguistic form within an already familiar context (Robinson, 2011).

Procedural repetition was performed between lessons (same task type but different levels of map complexity), but exact repetition was performed within each lesson (same task type and map content) (Kim & Tracy-Ventura, 2013). Each lesson was divided into three stages based on the PTP framework (Lambert, 2022). During the first stage, learners were provided with 5 min of planning before

Table 2
Complexity sequence of the TBLT module.

Sequencing Criteria	Lesson 1 (Day 2)	Lesson 2 (Day 3)	Lesson 3 (Day 4)	Lesson 4 (Day 5)
	Simplest Task	←	→	Most Complex Task
Authenticity	Simplified maps	Simplified maps	Authentic maps	Authentic maps
Scale	Small Area, Few Elements	Small Area, Few Elements	Large Area, More Elements	Large Area, More Elements
Transport	One mode of transport/transit	Two modes of transport/transit	Two modes of transport/transit	Three modes of transport /transit

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performing the interactive task with a partner for the first time. The task was then repeated twice with different partners as shown in Fig. 1. With each new partner, learners took turns as listener and speaker. Repeating the exact same task in this way has been shown to lead to more fluent performances, with three performances, specifically, leading to optimal fluency effects (Lambert, 2023b; Lambert et al., 2017).

After the first three performances, the second stage consisted of two supplementary listening and reading input-based tasks so that learners could compare their own performances to model input. The reading input were texts from a local transportation company website and listening input were YouTube videos of a fluent Thai speaker giving directions to a foreigner in English. The input-based tasks required learners to move objects and write numbers or names of locations on a map based on their comprehension of the input (for an example, see Appendix 1) and the discourse samples were based on an analysis of target discourse (ATD, Long, 2021) conducted as part of a TBNA (Soongpankhao & Lambert, in press). Such input stages have been suggested by TBLT scholars (Lambert, 2020, 2022) as way to provide learners with opportunities to notice new language forms relevant to future task performances.

In the third stage, learners performed the same interactive tasks as in the first stage. The only difference is that learners asked for and gave directions for a different location on the map. Tasks were also performed with the same interlocutors and in the same repetition pattern as shown in Fig. 1. During Stage 3, it was thought that learners might incorporate new language forms noticed in Stage 2 (Lambert, 2020). Furthermore, the time gap from Stage 1–3 repetitions would require learners to engage in more effortful memory retrieval during initial Stage 3 performances, which may facilitate learning (Rogers, 2022).

In total, the interactive task was performed six times per lesson in each role (i.e., employee and customer). All task interactions on *Google Meet* were recorded using a record function for subsequent analysis. A summary of the TBLT module is shown in Table 3.

4.3.2. Self-evaluation forms

Following each interactive task performance in the TBLT module, learners in both groups completed a self-evaluation. The GT group completed a criterion-referenced self-evaluation as shown in Table 4. The GT self-evaluation form is made up of criteria for performance that represent the common sub-steps for successful task completion. As per Long's (2015) recommendation, these criteria were determined by an ATD as part of the TBNA (Soongpankhao & Lambert, in press).

In contrast, the NGT group were provided with a 3-item questionnaire which asked to rate their enjoyment (*Did you enjoy doing the task?*) and anxiety (*Were you anxious during the task?*) on 10-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 10 = strongly agree) and answer the following question in writing in their L1 (Thai), *If you could do the task again, what would you do to improve your performance?* Thus, the questionnaire simply required learners to reflect on their task performance but did not provide them with concrete goals.

Across the module, each learner completed a total of 24 self-evaluation forms, corresponding to the 24 interactive task performances in either the GT or NGT condition. These forms were digitalized using *Google Sheets* and access links were shared with participants through LINE. Google Sheets allowed learners in the GT group to track their scores by revisiting the document online. It also allowed the teacher to verify that all learners had completed all self-evaluations.

4.3.3. Pre- and post-tests

The pre-test and post-test for the module represented a fully complex version of the interactive task, or 'exit task', which served to assess learners' abilities to perform the tasks successfully at criterion levels (Long, 2015). The two tasks were parallel versions, with different locations on maps, but the same level of complexity. In other words, both involved the use of two authentic maps of large areas with many elements and three modes of transport or transit (see Appendix 2). The pre-task was performed on Day 1 (a day before the first TBLT lesson) and the post-task was performed on Day 6 (a day after the last TBLT lesson) in the same manner as the TBLT module (i.e., using Google Meets, LINE). Each test involved two performances so that learners could alternate roles as employee and customer. Both tests were completed with the same interlocutors.

4.5. Analysis

Pruned transcriptions were made of the 78 pre-test and 78 post-test performances, so filled pauses, false starts, hesitations, and
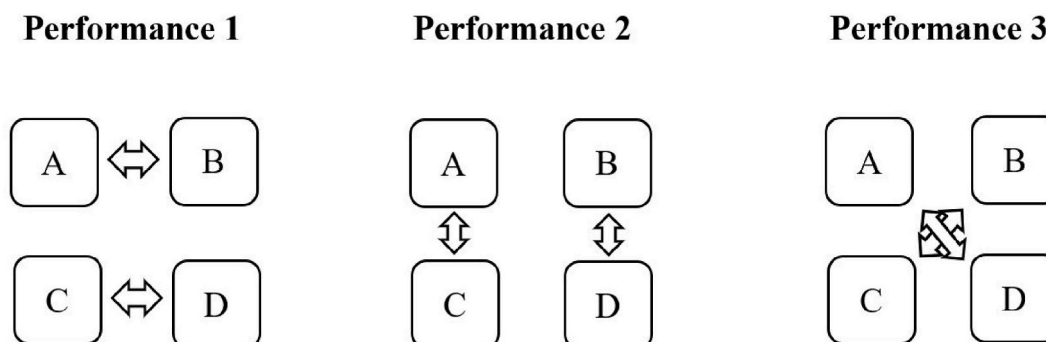

Fig. 1. Task repetition pattern.

Table 3
The TBLT module.

	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4
	Simpler Tasks	←	→	**Complex Tasks**
Stage 1	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3
Stage 2	Input-Based Task Sequence	Input-Based Task Sequence	Input-Based Task Sequence	Input-Based Task Sequence
Stage 3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3	Interactive Task Sequence x3

Table 4
Criterion-referenced self-evaluation form for GT group.

Giving Directions		Score
When you were the employee		
1	Did you greet customer with a standard greeting?	0–1
2	Did you acknowledge customer's problem?	0–1
3	Did you clarify the customer's mode of transportation?	0–1
4	Did you explain route using visible landmarks?	0–1
5	Did you clarify distances in minutes, meters, stops, streets, etc.?	0–1
6	Did you offer additional support?	0–1
7	Did you confirm the customer has understood key information?	0–1
8	Did you close with a standard closing, thanking the customer?	0–1
Score as Employee		__/8
When you were the customer		
1	Did you respond to the employee's greeting?	0–1
2	Did you explain where you are wand where you wanted to go?	0–1
3	Did you explain how you intend to go there?	0–1
4	Did you repeat the directions, confirming any landmarks?	0–1
5	Did you ask for clarification or confirm details regarding distances?	0–1
6	Did you identify the destination successfully?	0–1
7	Did you clarify words or terms you didn't understand?	0–1
8	Did you close by thanking the employee for the directions?	0–1
Score as Customer		__/8

Table 5
Examples of ELU measures.

Negotiation of meaning	Listener: I want to see you, but I don't know how to get there.
	Speaker: Do you want to see me? Where are you now? (*asking additional details*)
	Listener: I'm at Siam station.
	Speaker: Is it MRT or BTS? (*confirmation checking*)
	Listener: I think it's a train station.
	Speaker: Do you mean an underground train? (*clarifying meaning*)
Elaborations	Speaker: Take the train to Mangkorn station and change to the blue line.
	Listener: Oh, I see.
	Speaker: I think it's faster to take the blue line (*suggestion*).
	–
	Speaker: When you arrive at the Ratchathewi, you can get on the bus.
	Listener: Yes.
	Speaker: And the bus number you can get on are 16 and 23 (*adding details*).
Simple backchannels	Speaker: Go straight and turn left.
	Listener: Yes (*acknowledgment*).
	Speaker: You will then see the orange building.
	Listener: Ok, orange building (*repetition*).
Affiliative backchannels	Speaker: I think it's really far.
	Listener: Oh, really? (*surprise*)
	Speaker: You cannot walk!
	Listener: Ha Ha, I was thinking. (*laughing*)

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reformulations were excluded (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). All 156 task performances were coded for ELU. Behavioral engagement was operationalized as the number of words and turns taken to complete the task. Cognitive engagement was operationalized as (1) negotiation of meanings sequences, which included instances of asking additional details, clarifying meanings, and confirmation checking, and (2) elaborations, which included expanded semantic content, such as adding details, suggestions, and opinions (Lambert & Aubrey, 2023). Social engagement included affiliative backchannels or moves on the part of the listener going beyond acknowledgment of comprehension to show support, encouragement, empathy, or surprise. Finally, simple backchannels included acknowledgements of comprehension. Examples of ELU measures are provided in Table 5.

The first author and an American EFL teacher at the university where the study was conducted independently coded ten learners' transcripts from both groups (25% of the data). Cohen's kappa coefficients indicated an acceptable degree of inter-rater reliability (0.7–1.0 on all measures) (Cohen, 1988). The first author then coded the remaining performances.

After initial data screening to confirm normality and homogeneity of variance, it was found that most scores were positively skewed and often kurtotic. In most cases, this was corrected through square root transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p.87). However, this was not possible with affiliative backchannels and elaborations as these score distributions contained predominately zero values. This was because the task was a simple information-transfer task, and the focus was on effective information transfer. Voluntary elaboration of the conversation and displays of affiliation were rare as the conversations were not personal. Therefore, ELU on this transactionally focused occupational task was reflected in number of words, turns, simple backchannels, and negotiation of meaning rather than elaboration or affiliation based on personal interest (Skehan, 2023).

Finally, a GLM repeated measures test was run in SPSS version 27 on the four remaining dependent variables (words, turns, negotiation of meaning sequences, backchannels) with Test (pre/post) and Group (GT, NGT) as a grouping variable. A qualitative analysis of representative excepts from pre-test and post-test task performances was conducted to further illuminate the impact of goal-tracking and self-reflection, respectively, on learners' discourse.

5. Results

5.1. Quantitative results

Table 6 summarizes the mean scores for both groups before and after the treatments.

Using Pillai's Trace, significant and large multivariate main effects were found for Test (pre, post) [$F_{(6,71)} = 24.421$, $p < .001$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.674$] and significant and medium multivariate main effects were found for Group (GT, NGT) [$F_{(6, 71)} = 2.4$, $p = .036$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.169$]. When the analysis was split for groups, significant multivariate main effects for Test were found for both GT [$F_{(6, 34)} = 16.402$, $p < .001$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.743$] and NGT [$F_{(4, 34)} = 14.282$, $p < .001$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.627$]. These effects suggest that completion of the TBLT module had a significant effect on ELU regardless of group, but that criterion-referenced goal tracking resulted in a larger effect on ELU than simple self-reflection and performance, resulting in significant differences in ELU between groups on the posttest. Finally, the multivariate analysis revealed no significant main effect for interaction between Test and Group [$F_{(6, 71)} = 2.197$, $p = .053$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.157$], indicating that effects of TBLT were comparable across groups.

Post-hoc univariate tests split for groups using Pillai's Trace further illuminated the robustness of the main effects reported in the previous paragraph with respect to each measure of ELU. In terms of gains between the pre-test and post-test, both groups increased, but the magnitude of increase was greater for the GT group than the NGT group for all measures. This included number of words produced (GT: $F = 87.416$, $p < .001$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.691$; NGT: F = 53.442, $p < .001$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.591$), number of turns produced (GT: F = 54,112, $p < .001$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.581$; NGT: $F = 11.429$, $p = .002$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.236$), number of negotiation of meaning sequences (GT: $F = 33,477$, $p < .001$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.462$; NGT: $F = 2.667$, $p = .111$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.067$), and backchannels produced (GT: $F = 11.204$, $p = .002$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.223$; NGT: F = 5.459, $p < .025$, $^p\eta^2 = 0.129$).

In sum, both groups showed significant gains on each measure between the pre-test and the post-test except the NGT group which showed no significant increase in negotiation of meaning. Thus, the primary difference was that the GT group engaged in more negotiation of meaning on the post-test than the pre-test, and the NGT group did not. Furthermore, magnitude of the gains in ELU between pre-test and post-test were consistently larger for the GT group than for the NGT group. Figs. 2–5 illustrate these differences in pre-test and post-test performance in each group.

Thus, learners who received the criterion-based goal-tracking intervention across the TBLT module became more engaged in the pedagogic tasks than learners who simply self-reflected on their own task performances.

Table 6
Descriptive statistics for groups on pre- and posttests (untransformed).

Test	Group	N	Words		Turns		NoM		BCs	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Pre	**GT**	40	**72.22**	56.38	**4.27**	4.94	**0.90**	1.48	**0.13**	0.34
	NGT	38	61.89	54.24	3.34	4.17	0.87	1.61	0.00	0.00
Post	**GT**	40	**141.90**	56.93	**7.97**	5.29	**2.05**	2.01	**0.83**	1.50
	NGT	38	110.71	43.14	4.58	2.61	0.97	0.94	0.16	0.44

Notes. NoM = negotiation of meanings, BCs = backchannels, GT = goal-tracking, NG = non-goal-tracking.
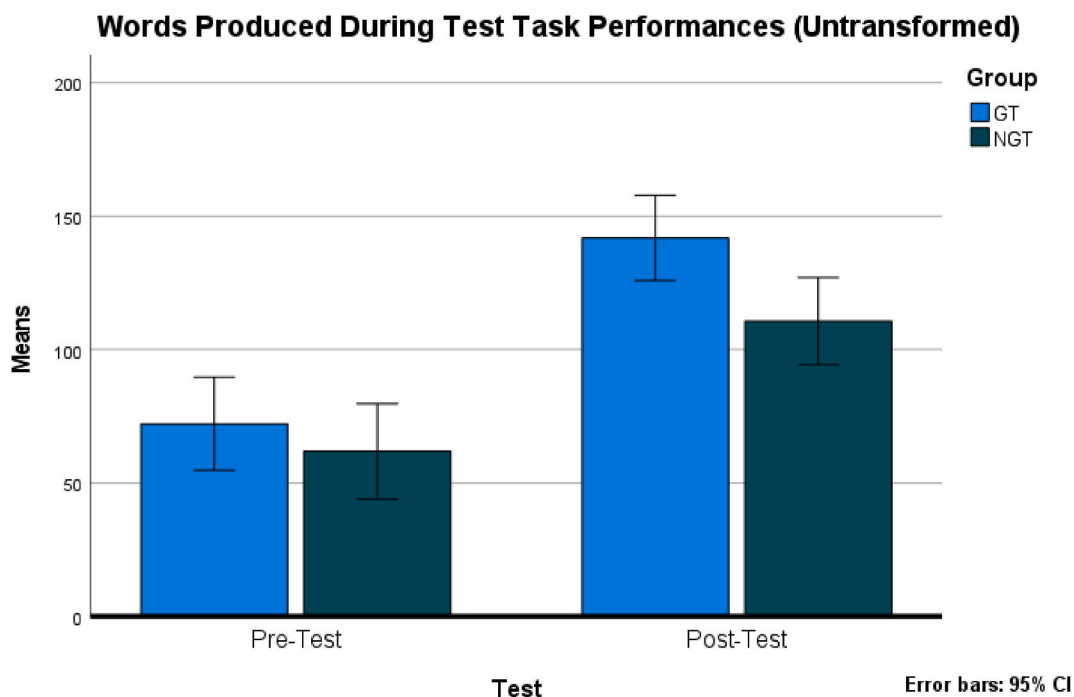
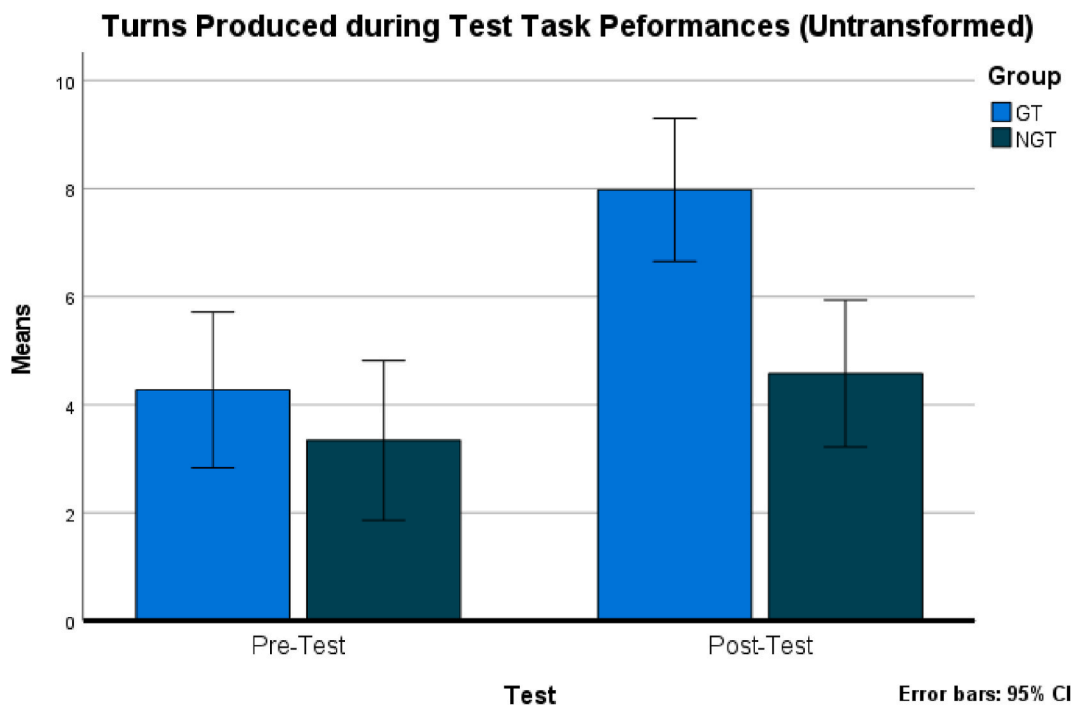**Fig. 2.** Gains in words produced for groups between pre-test and post-test.

Fig. 3. Gains in turns produced for groups between pre-test and post-test.

5.2. Qualitative results

Tables 7 and 8 qualitatively illustrate characteristic differences observed in pre-test and post-test performances in the GT group and NGT group, respectively.
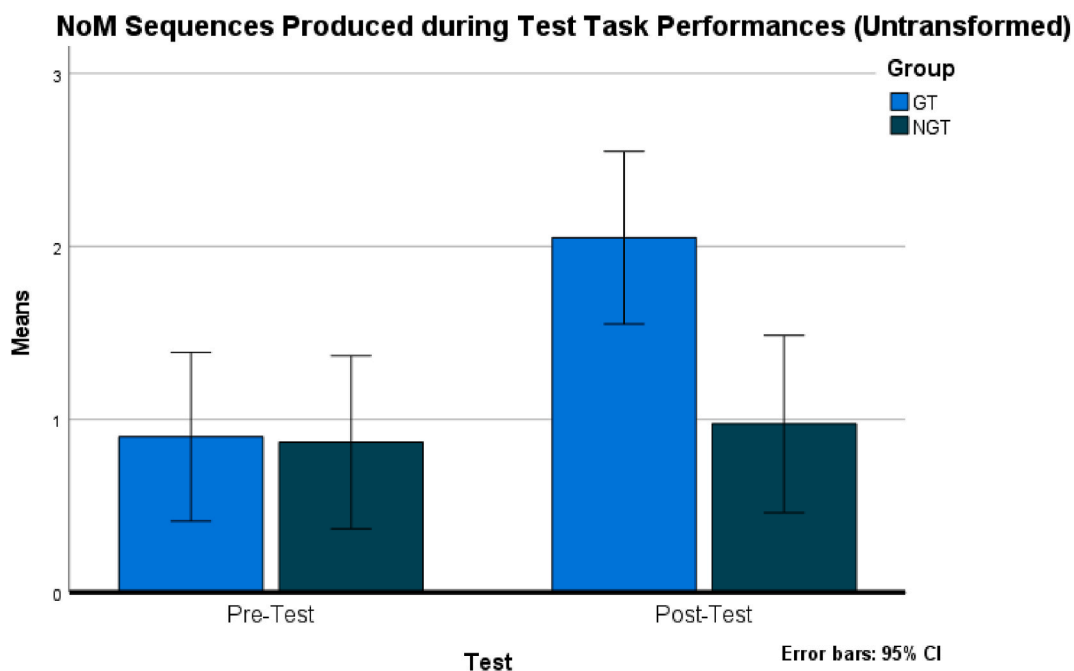
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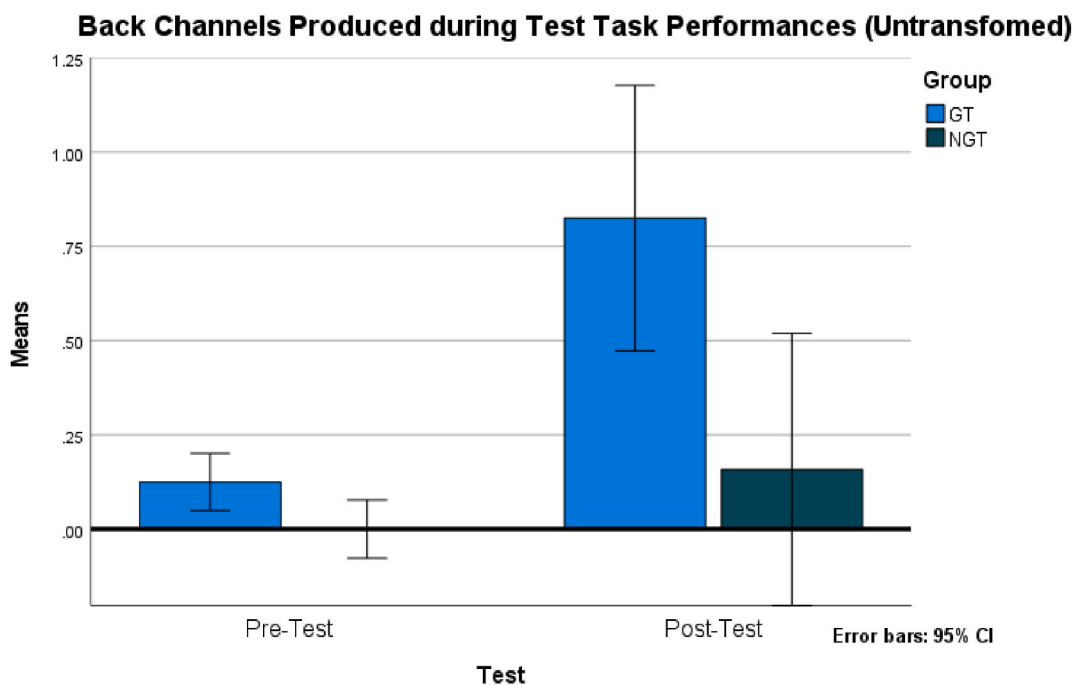**Fig. 4.** Gains in negotiation of meaning for groups between pre-test and post-test.

Fig. 5. Gains in backchannels for groups between pre-test and post-test.

In Table 7, the excerpts show how a pair from the GT group produced substantially more words and turns on the post-test than on the pre-test. Compared to the pre-test, the learner in the role of the employee elaborates on her introduction, introducing herself by name and signals the time of day in her introduction in the post-test. The same learner also asks more questions in the post-test to elicit details, clarification, and confirmation (*Ok, is that MRT? Do you want me to repeat again? Where are you now?*) which provokes more elaborated responses from her interlocutor.

In comparison, Table 8 presents an excerpt of the pre-tests and post-tests on a pair of learners from the NGT group. They also

Table 7

Discourse sample from a *goal-tracking* dyad.

Pre-test	Post-test

Employee: Hello, it's Bangkok bank center. Can I help you?
  Caller: I have a business in your bank, so I need to know how I get to the Bangkok Bank?
  Employee: Ok, where are you now? **(NoM)**
  Caller: Now, I'm at Fai Chai station, BL3.
  Employee: You take the MRT to Wat Mangkorn station. It's BL29. From BL3 to BL29, to Wat Mangkorn station.
	Employee: Good morning, sir. It's Bangkok bank, Arita speaking. How may I help you?
	  Caller: I'd like to go to the Bangkok bank but I don't have any idea how to get there. Could you tell me how to go to the Bangkok bank?
	  Employee: Yes, I can. Where are you now? **(NoM)**
	  Caller: Now, I am at Fai Chai station.
	  Employee: Ok, is that MRT? **(NoM)**
	  Caller: Yes.
	  Employee: You start from Fai Chai station. You take the MRT to Tha Phra station, it's the interchange. After that you take the MRT from Tha Phra to Wat Mangkorn station. It's BL29.
	  Caller: Ok.
	  Employee: You will pass about four stations. Do you want me to repeat again? **(NoM)**

Notes. NoM = negotiation of meanings.

Table 8

Discourse sample from a *non-goal-tracking* dyad.

Pre-test	Post-test

Caller: Could you tell me how to get to your bank, please?
  Employee: Certainly, where are you now? **(NoM)**
  Caller: I'm currently at Fai Chai Station.
  Employee: Ok, you should take MRT Blue line from Fai Chai Station and get off at Wat Mankron Station. It's only six station from Fai Chai.
	Caller: Could you please tell me how to get to the bank please?
	  Employee: Yes, but could I ask you what transportation you will use? **(NoM)**
	  Caller: I will use the underground railway, MRT.
	  Employee: Ok, MRT. Where are you now? **(NoM)**
	  Caller: Currently, I'm at Fai Chai station.
	  Employee: Ok, you take MRT Blue line and get off at Wat Mangkorn station. It's 6th station from Fai Chai station. When you arrive at Wat Mangkorn station, you use exit number 2 and you turn to the second entrance and walk to your right. Keep going straight and turn left onto Mangkorn road. Keep going straight, you will see an intersection.

Notes. NoM = negotiation of meaning.

demonstrated more ELU on the post-test than on the pre-test. However, this was more limited. The learner in the role of the employee asked about the caller's location on the pre-test and only added an additional question regarding mode of transportation on the post-test. In contrast, the learner in the role of the customer asked for directions to the bank and asked about the distance from the train station to the destination on both the pre-test and the post-test. The quality of the NGT group thus differed from the GT group.

6. Discussion

The first research question asked if participation in the TBLT module would result in increased engagement in pedagogic task performance. Results revealed that, regardless of whether learners completed goal-tracking or non-goal-tracking reflections, completion of the TBLT module had a significant effect on ELU. In fact, both groups significantly improved on three out of four ELU measures, including words (GT: $p < .001$; NGT: $p = .002$), turns (GT: $p < .001$; $p = .002$; NGT: $p = .002$), and backchannels produced (GT: $p = .002$; NGT: $p = .025$). As the TBLT module was based on a framework that sequenced versions of an information-transfer task in terms of increasing complexity (Robinson, 2010; Lambert & Robinson, 2014), these findings echo previous research that increasing task complexity can improve learners' engagement in task performance (Baralt et al., 2016; Qiu, 2022). However, is should be noted that only the GT group produced significantly more negotiation of meaning sequences after the TBLT module, suggesting that completion of the module itself has a selective impact on cognitive engagement. This is discussed in relation to the second research question.

The second research question asked whether criterion-based goal-tracking results in higher task engagement than simple self-reflection. Although there were significant gains overall in terms of ELU within both the criterion-referenced GT group ($p < .001$) and the NGT group ($p < .001$), each of the four ELU indicators for the GT group increased more than the NGT group in magnitude and had greater effect sizes (see Figs. 2–5). Furthermore, while there were no significant increases from pre-test to post-test for negotiation of meaning for the NGT group ($p = .111$), the GT group produced significantly more negotiation of meaning sequences ($p < .001$). The advantages of the GT condition can be explained by goal-setting theory, which emphasizes that learners need specific aims of action, or carefully established criteria, to guide their future behaviour (Lee & Bong, 2019; Locke, 2000; Locke & Latham, 2002). In particular, the significant improvement in cognitive engagement for the GT group might be attributed to reflection criteria that explicitly encouraged learners to negotiate for meaning (see Table 4, e.g., *clarify the customer's mode of transportation; clarify distances; confirm the customer has understood*). A comparison can be made with Dao et al.'s (2020) post-task reflection that also directed learners' reflection in a way that led to increased cognitive engagement in subsequent task performances (i.e., more LREs). In contrast, learners in the NGT group had no such guidance to direct their attention. As Elliot et al. (2011) argues, self-based reflections require more cognitive capacity than reflections based on established standards as learners must evaluate both their performance outcome and expected

outcome simultaneously. It could be argued then that the lower cognitive engagement in the NGT condition also resulted from insufficient learner effort to identify performance weaknesses and conceptualize specific goals that were not yet achieved in performance (e.g., clarifying, confirming). Instead, learners may have reflected on less challenging issues, such as producing more language (behavioural engagement) without paying much attention to content provided by their interlocutor (cognitive engagement). This underscores the value of setting comprehensive and objective goals for learners during post-task reflections.

In addition, this study illustrates how goal-tracking based on performance criteria can encourage mastery goal-orientation. During criterion-referenced goal-tracking, mastery goals are formed when learners focus on improving their own competencies in line with criterion-referenced benchmarks of success (Belenky & Nokes-Malach, 2013). This contrasts with Stroud's (2017) study that implemented a 'goal-tracking' intervention in which learners kept track of accumulated points that they were awarded for participation in the task. Whereas such an implementation likely incentivized learners to gain points with the least amount of effort, the present study implemented goal-tracking in a way that focused learners on improving aspects of their performance. This difference may explain why Stroud's intervention failed to significantly improve learners' social and cognitive engagement on most measures (i.e., making clarifications, requesting, opinion giving, disagreeing/agreeing, paraphrasing, providing help). The present study therefore suggests that goal-tracking based on explicit criteria of success should be distinguished from goal-tracking based on gamified point accumulation (e. g., Reese & Wells, 2007; Stroud, 2017). While the former promotes mastery goal-orientation, the latter could be argued to promote performance goal-orientation only (i.e., comparing one's points with others). Implementing goal-tracking with performance criteria may thus lead to touted benefits of mastery goal-orientation, such as high levels of effort invested (Diefenbach & Müssig, 2019; Domínguez et al., 2013) and high overall learning achievement (Bong, 2009). Furthermore, as criteria provide clear end-goals for achievement, learners might progressively increase their effort over time as they approach their idealized task performance (Aubrey, 2022b; Ibrahim & Al-Hoorie, 2018). Future research should collect engagement data during goal-tracking interventions to verify such claims.

This study also revealed that ELU can vary depending on task type as indicated by the extremely low level of *affiliative* backchannels and elaboration of content in both GT and NGT groups (see Analysis section). Previous research has shown that affiliative backchannels, marked by empathy, enthusiastic tone or personal elaboration, and elaboration of content, marked by suggestions or voluntarily adding details, are important indicators of task engagement during decision-making or opinion-based tasks that involve the sharing of personal ideas and experiences (e.g., Aubrey & Philpott, 2023; Lambert et al., 2017; Lambert & Zhang, 2019; Nakamura et al., 2021; Phung, 2017; Qui & Lo, 2017). Established ways for improving engagement on these tasks include conditions that facilitate learners' exposure to non-verbal communication cues during performance (e.g., Aubrey & Philpott, 2023) and design features that offer learners more choice over topics (e.g., Nakamura et al., 2021) and content (e.g., Lambert et al., 2017). However, the present study suggests that such recommendations may not be as important for information-transfer tasks. The locus of engagement in the information-transfer task, Giving Directions, is not elaboration of ideas and empathy and encouragement through affiliative backchannels, but rather negotiation of meaning (e.g., confirming and clarifying directions), which captures the cognitive aspect of collaborative understanding information, and *simple* backchannels (e.g., hmm, okay, right), which captures the social aspect of showing understanding or being grateful for the information received. Thus, in contrast to tasks that involve sharing opinions, personal investment may be lacking in information-transfer tasks (for a similar claim, see also Skehan, 2023). Our study therefore provides evidence supporting the position that appropriate measures of task engagement depend on task type (e.g., Dao, 2021; Qiu & Cheng; 2022). In future research, goal-tracking might be implemented with a broader range of task types to investigate whether ELU might manifest itself differently, especially during transactional tasks determined based on learners' occupational needs.

7. Conclusion

This study demonstrated the positive effects of an online TBLT module and a criterion-referenced goal-tracking system implemented within the online TBLT module on task engagement. The results indicated that the online TBLT module, which sequenced tasks in terms of increasing task complexity, had an overall positive effect on ELU regardless of whether learners engaged goal-tracking or not. However, goal-tracking across a TBLT module based on criteria of successful performance as determined by a TBNA led to significantly higher cognitive engagement (negotiation of meaning) whereas simply allowing learners to reflect on their own performance without providing them any performance criteria did not significantly improve cognitive engagement. This study highlights the value of providing learners with performance criteria as a tool for reflection to improve learner engagement. This goal-tracking approach represents a relatively unobtrusive intervention for sequenced tasks in that it does not require adding elements to change the task itself (e.g., a card game, Reese & Wells, 2007). Furthermore, rather than incentivizing learners to focus on non-task-related rewards through gamification (e.g., accumulating points, Stroud, 2017), benefits came from learners self-monitoring and improving their task-related skills in line with criteria for successful task performance. If teachers seek to engage learners in pedagogic tasks while also improving goal-orientation and task-related skills, we recommend developing clear performance criteria for use in post-task self-assessment activities.

This study has some limitations, which should be addressed in future research. First, regarding the research design, the overall gains in engagement resulting from participation in the TBLT module may be in question due to a lack of a comparison group. That is, it is unknown whether the positive effect on engagement was from the sequencing of tasks in the module or other factors (e.g., increased interlocutor familiarity). Further studies that include a comparison group should be conducted. Second, the research is limited to learners' performance of a single task type (Giving Directions). Although this task was appropriately chosen to match the participants' needs in this context, learners engage with different task types differently (Qiu & Cheng, 2022) and different task types entail different goal orientations (Dao, 2021). Therefore, future research needs to investigate how goal-tracking influences learners' engagement in

other types of tasks (e.g., decision-making, information-sharing, input-based 'listen-and-do' tasks). Third, the length of the TBLT module was only four days, which might explain why the effects were not stronger. Future studies should try implementing goal-tracking during semester-length courses in which learners can experience a gradual development in line with successful criteria. Fourth, this study did not collect data to measure learners' emotional engagement. Emotional engagement, which pertains to learners' subjective response to the task, is an important dimension of the engagement construct (Baralt et al., 2016; Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and may explain the mechanism through which goal-tracking can energize learners to participate in tasks. Future research might employ interviews or post-task questionnaires to probe how learners' emotions change throughout the goal-tracking intervention period. Finally, although this research provides an example of how a TBLT module can beaubreyaubrey designed and implemented in an online environment, it does not explore learners' attitudes or learning challenges faced. Thus, we echo recent calls for more research in this vein to support teachers who wish to successfully implement and engage learners in technology mediated TBLT courses (Smith & Ziegler, 2023).

Declarations of competing interest

None.

CRediT author statement

Watcharaphong Soongpankhao: Data collection, transcriptions, coding, methodology, coding, analysis, writing.
Scott Aubrey: Conceptualization, coding, writing, proofreading.
Craig Lambert: Conceptualization, analysis, proofreading.

Appendix 1. Sample Input-Based Task

| Sub-Task Steps	Sample Discourse	Visual Material
Greets customer	A: Good morning, Bangkok Hospital, how may I help you? B: Hello, yes, may I know how to get to your hospital, please?	Listening
Acknowledges problem	A: Certainly sir, where are you now? B: I'm near the train station, on First Street.	
		  Lesson1_Step 5
Clarifies mode of transport	A: Alright, how will you get here? By car? B: Hm, I am walking now. Is it too far to walk?	
Explains route with landmarks	A: No not at all, you just turn right onto Central Avenue. You will then see the Victory Monument on your left.	
		  Lesson 3 (Step 4)
Clarifies distances	A: Go straight and keep walking for around two hundred meters. B: Two hundred meters? That's quite far.	

(*continued*)

Sub-Task Steps	Sample Discourse	Visual Material
Offers additional support	A: Yes, well, we could send a car to pick you up. B: It's ok, I can walk. I'm somewhere on Central Street, there's a restaurant on my left-hand side. A: Alright then you will see an intersection, go past that, the hospital is on your left, opposite the temple.	Reading
Confirms understanding Closes the conversation	A: Do you want me to repeat it? B: No, thank you so much. A: You're welcome. Good bye.	

Appendix 2. Exit Task: Employee Role

You are working for **LH Retail Bank**. You receive a phone call from a foreign customer asking for directions to the bank. Give directions to the bank using public transportation from the customer's location. Use the subway and the station area maps below.
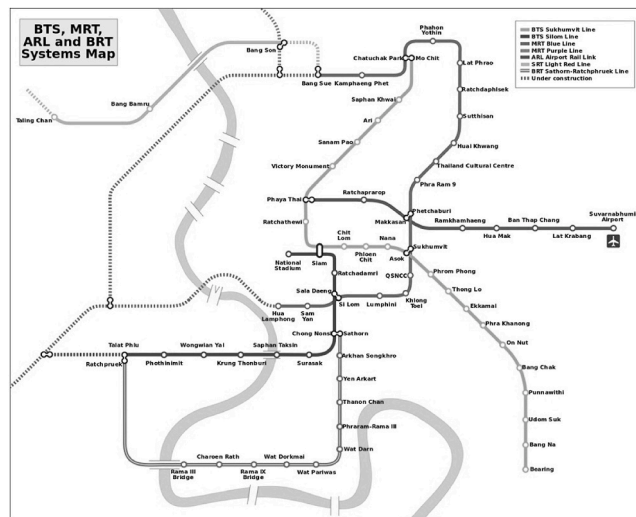
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