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Facilitating Output and Interaction through Task-Based Language Teaching

A comparative analysis of the effectiveness of task-based and traditional tasks in a classroom setting

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1 Introduction

Getting pupils to speak a target language when solving tasks is no easy feat. A language teacher has to remain vigilant against learners reverting to their first language (L1) and keeping second language (L2) usage to a minimum. While the struggle to maintain the target language as the medium of communication is ever-ongoing, key researchers in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), such as Swain (1985), Long (1996), and Gass (1997/2011), emphasise the benefits of output and interaction in an instructional setting. However, while the field of SLA provides language teachers with a great deal of theoretical rationale as to *why* an instructor should aim to facilitate output and interaction, *how* they ought to motivate it is seldomly addressed. One methodology aimed at creating an interaction- and input-rich environment, which has gained prominence in recent years, is having language teaching (LT) be task-based. Task-based instruction (TBI), also interchangeably referred to as task-based language teaching (TBLT), aims to be a compromise between traditional instruction, based on a *focus on forms* and a *linguistic syllabus*, and a more radical focus on meaning which fully relegates form. It is through this compromise that this teaching approach supposedly attains the best of both worlds; both facilitating natural L2 language use whilst maintaining a *focus on form*.

Many proponents of TBLT assume it to be a priori that TBLT will facilitate learner engagement and thus L2 production. While the rationale is theoretically sound by being based on the likes of Swain's *comprehensible output hypothesis* (1985) and Long's *interaction hypothesis* (1996), there are prevalent concerns regarding the quantity and quality of output that TBLT is facilitative of (Seedhouse, 1999, p. 155). It would seem to be a faux pas to propose the great benefits of TBLT if there is not a solid empirical basis that it will outperform traditional teaching approaches. To this end, this dissertation aims to conduct a comparative analysis of how learners engage with tasks in a traditional and TBLT context. A key interest for this study will thus be peer-to-peer interaction, and motivation for L2 production when pupils are in a process of solving tasks.

The purpose conducting this research is twofold. First, I aim to test the interactivity and ability for TBLT to facilitate output in light of key interactional theories such as *negotiation for meaning*. Second, I aim to provide empirical support to these claims which in turn will enable instructors to justify choosing a task-based approach to aid them with establishing an L2 as the medium of classroom communication. The way in which this will be

achieved is through analysing a corpus specifically collected for this study to investigate how different task-designs facilitate L2 usage.

1.1 Research questions

1. Do task-based activities facilitate and motivate English L2 usage amongst pupils in an instructional setting to a greater degree than traditional tasks in terms of quality and quantity of output?
2. Does negotiation for meaning occur to a greater extent during the TBLT task segment in correlation with the presumed increase in interactivity?

2 Theoretical background

2.1 Interaction as a catalyst for SLA

Within the long-standing history of instructed LT, the notion that interaction might serve as an important trigger for language acquisition is a relatively recent interpretation of its role. Historically, there has been a tendency for interaction merely to serve as an arena for learners to practice, or drill, grammatical structures which had previously been acquired from explicit grammar teaching (Gass, 1997/2011, p. 104). An example of such interactions can be found in the stereotypical image of a language teacher reading a line on blackboard aloud, and the pupils repeating in lockstep fashion. Such an approach can typically, albeit not inherently, be attributed to *focus on forms*; a synthetic style of teaching which is primarily concerned with teaching specific grammatical forms in isolation (Long, 2009, p.373 & 381-382). However, with the emergence of teaching approaches such as TBLT, tailored to create situations with ‘authentic’ L2 usage for learners to engage in, the role of interaction changes to becoming the central driver of language acquisition. As Gass notes: “Within the current orthodoxy, conversation is not only a medium of practice; it is also the means by which learning takes place” (1997/2011, p. 104). The way in which the role of interaction is interpreted from a theoretical stance tends to coincide with the relationship between *form* and *meaning*, and how one interprets the significance of each in language acquisition.

The various teaching methodologies which have been prominent in the field of SLA since the time of its emergence can broadly be defined by the trichotomy between a *focus on forms*, a *focus on meaning*, and the compromise between the two relating to a *focus on form*. *Focus on forms*, as coined by Long (1991), was the predominant teaching methodology before Chomsky's propositions regarding Universal Grammar (Keck & Kim, 2014, p. 11-12), and is manifested as the age-old belief that language is learned through practicing isolated linguistic forms as part of a structural linguistic syllabus (Long, 1996, p. 429). The polar opposite of such a structuralist view of SLA is a focus on meaning spurred on by the dismissal of grammar teaching by the likes of Krashen (Keck & Kim, 2014, p. 18). Focusing on meaning entails being concerned with the transmission of messages with a focus on semantics and pragmatics in the target language, thus disregarding formal lingual aspects such as morphosyntax. Both of these approaches have their respective problems. Forms-focused instruction does not adhere to the fact that learners are not susceptible to acquire linguistic functions at the pace of any given linguistic syllabus, but rather at their own personal stage of interlanguage development, as is illustrated by the research into developmental sequences conducted by Pienemann (1984, p. 206-207). Meaning-focused instruction on the other hand does not account for the fact that learners need to be conscious of the forms and functions of a language in order to progress their interlanguage development, as shown by Swain's research into French-Canadian pupils in immersion programmes (1985, p. 247-249). The compromise intended to minimise the problems of both approaches, whilst maintaining the benefits, is a focus on form. Focus on form entails having the attention of the learner being oriented towards deciphering meaning in a conversation, and having their attention brought to form only when miscommunications arise (Long, 1996, p. 429), (Keck & Kim, 2014, p. 28). The relationship between *focus on forms* and *focus on form* will be further discussed in the presentation of the dichotomy between *traditional* and *TBLT* instruction.

As this study intends to focus on the facilitative ability of TBLT in regard to output and interaction, we will in the following sections elaborate further upon the role of interaction in SLA by examining the core theories relating to *input*, *output*, and *negotiation for meaning*. After these core theories have been established, we will examine their implications for methods of language teaching and tie them to the concept of *task*.

2.1.1 The role of input and output

Historically there has been a great focus within the field of SLA regarding the role of input in language acquisition. The broadest definition of what constitutes as input can be found in commercial SLA textbooks and will typically encompass the notion that input is “the language to which an individual is exposed in the environment” (Hummel, 2014, p. 11). Output conversely can in the simplest terms be defined as the language which an individual produces. How the two have been weighted in foreign language teaching (FLT) has varied throughout its history. Krashen’s *comprehensible input hypothesis*, and the idea that input is the key driving force behind L2 acquisition (Krashen, 1985, p. 2) has been instrumental in the field of SLA. While Krashen’s hypothesis has certainly lost its time in the limelight, as will be discussed shortly, it still retains a degree of prominence in SLA literature. As this hypothesis has both an important position in the field and ascribes a less prominent role for output and interaction in FLT as a whole (Krashen, 1985, p. 33), it has to be briefly discussed before contrary interpretations of the relationship between input and output can be presented, such as the *comprehensible output hypothesis* and the *interaction hypothesis*.

The essence of Krashen’s input hypothesis establishes input as the sole driver of language acquisition. “The input hypothesis claims that humans acquire language in only one way – by understanding messages, or by receiving ‘comprehensible input’” (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). Such an absolutist approach that language acquisition is solely hedged to comprehensible input, and the mind’s ability to process it, is what Krashen refers to as “the fundamental principle in second language acquisition” (Krashen, 1985, p. 4). As has been alluded to, not all L2 input can be deemed to be ‘comprehensible’, and thus able to trigger language acquisition. For a message to be understandable – or input to be comprehensible – it has to be on the learner’s level of comprehension or slightly above it. Krashen uses the formula $i + 1$ to conceptualise this, whereby the ‘i’ refers to the current stage of comprehension, and ‘+1’ refers to the next stage of comprehension (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). The implications of this “fundamental principle” are that L2 production and interaction is made redundant save to serve as comprehensible input; as is affirmed by Krashen: “The input hypothesis predicts that actual two-way interaction with native speakers is not necessary for acquisition. Practically, it can be an excellent way of obtaining comprehensible input.” (Krashen, 1985, p. 33).

As alluded to, the relation between the role of interaction and output as outlined by Krashen is certainly not ideal from the stance of an interactionist. Regarding the relationship between input and output, and the degree to which one assesses the necessity of each, Long states:

The need for learner output in development, and hence for conversational support, is also denied by some on the basis of individuals who have supposedly learned a language without speaking, whereas others maintain that production facilitates development, and still others that it is essential (1996, p. 414).

For an adherent of Krashen's hypothesis, language acquisition can be seen as a passive activity on the part of the learner, as one would merely require a sufficient degree of comprehensible input in order to stimulate acquisition. This view of input being the sole, or primary, facilitator of SLA is by no means an uncontested position. Contrary interpretations value the act of speaking a foreign language as a catalyst for its acquisition to a greater degree. A primary proposition which advocates foreign language production as a facilitator of L2 development is Swain's comprehensible output hypothesis.

Swain argues that whilst comprehensible input is necessary, comprehensible output is of equal importance in order to facilitate language acquisition. To Swain, comprehensible input is the initial driver of grammatical acquisition as it allows the learner to process the form of the language rather than merely the meaning (Swain, 1985, p. 248). Swain reasons that it is impossible for a learner to both be conscious of the form of an utterance, whilst also actively attempting to decode its meaning (ibid). However, attention to form alone is not sufficient in order to acquire a language. If the role of output is expanded beyond merely serving as a source of comprehensible input, then it could serve to explain the difficulties which learners often face in producing a foreign language despite of sufficient amounts of comprehensible input. As Swain puts it: "One learns to read by reading, and to write by writing. Similarly it can be argued that one learns to speak by speaking" (1985, p. 248). To this end, 3 primary functions of comprehensible output can be outlined as following: 1) To serve as an opportunity for a learner to practice the linguistic resources which they have acquired in a language (ibid). 2) To be "pushed" towards employing a semantically and pragmatically correct language through *negotiation for meaning* (Swain, 1985, p. 249). 3) To force the learner to pay attention to the morphosyntactic structure of the target language rather than merely relying on decoding meaning (ibid). These 3 factors go beyond what is required of a learner when processing comprehensible input. Long goes even a step further in arguing

that overreliance on comprehensible input might be detrimental to the acquisition of morphosyntax as a result of a learner solely being concerned with processing the meaning of a sentence (1996, p. 425). As the comprehensible output hypothesis alludes to, the demands of attention to form which is required in language production may serve as a key trigger in language acquisition, especially in regard to learning language structure.

A key interactional concept relating to the roles of input and output, which numerous theorists like Swain (1985, p.248-249), Long (1996, p.452-252), and Gass (1997/2011, p.105-107) attribute to facilitating language acquisition, is *negotiation for meaning*. This concept has already been mentioned in passing, but as we intend to investigate how interaction serves to further SLA, we will provide an in-depth analysis of what it is, how it affects acquisition, and how it is interlinked with the input / output dichotomy.

2.1.2 Negotiation for meaning and the interaction hypothesis

As mentioned previously, the purpose of input might be in large part to trigger instances where learners have to engage in negotiation for meaning. This concept relating to acquisition through conversation can be defined as the following:

Negotiation for meaning is the process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to linguistic forms, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved (Long, 1996, p. 418).

In layman's terms, this entails that when faced with an issue of miscommunication, learners will attempt to adjust their speech until a sufficient, or acceptable, degree of understanding has been reached. Such instances of miscommunication ought not to be seen in a negative view as a failure of grammatical or semantic teaching as they may initially appear, but rather as a boon which may help further language acquisition (Gass, 1997/2011, p. 104-105).

However, a learner that uses pidginised language, or otherwise incorrect language, may still be able to convey a meaning that is understandable to the interlocutor, thus not causing any overt misunderstanding. Swain emphasises that the definition of negotiation for meaning should be expanded to include instances where learners are "pushed" towards employing precise and correct language in addition (1985, p. 248-249). Such a "push" can occur in an imagined scenario whereby a less proficient learner uses the overregularized past tense

morpheme 'ed' on irregular verbs such as 'go', and the interlocutor halts the conversation to correct them by introducing the correct term 'went'. There is no breakdown in semantic meaning which has to be fixed, but rather a breakdown in the morphemic preciseness of the language which pushes the learner to alter their output.

An important caveat is that in order for learners to negotiate, they must be aware that there is a miscommunication to begin with. A learner cannot receive negative evidence if the person they are in conversation with either does not realise that an error has been made or wish to bring to attention that a miscommunication has occurred. Through learners being aware that a miscommunication has occurred, they will attempt to alter and adapt their interlanguage in order to restore mutually intelligible communication (Long, 1996, p. 418). The learner will as a result be exposed to what is often referred to as *modified input*; input which has been specifically altered to match the proficiency level of the learner (Ellis, 1999, p. 4) It is this process which, in accordance with the *interaction hypothesis*, is supposedly a key factor in facilitating language acquisition.

The interaction hypothesis proposes that through interactions, instances of miscommunications, and subsequent samples modified input and output, learners will be exposed to an acquisition-rich environment.

I would like to suggest that *negotiation for meaning*, and especially negotiation work [sic] that triggers *interactional* adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selection attention, and output in productive ways (Long, 1996, p. 451-452).

It goes without saying that saying that this hypothesis bases the medium of the interaction as a key instigator of acquisitional processes. However, the view of interaction within this hypothesis is not that it facilitates acquisition solely on the basis of it being interactive. Rather, it is the act of modifying input by an interlocutor which enables a learner to pay attention to specific linguistic features in the input (Gass, 1997/2011, p. 87), such as discrepancies between a learner's perceived knowledge – or lack thereof – of the functions of an L2, and the reality of the L2 presented through an interaction (Gass, 2003, p. 235). A rationale for emphasising the importance of modifications rather than simplifications stems from, amongst others, findings made by Yano, Ross, and Long which concluded that simplified input provided no additional comprehension at the cost of yielding impoverished linguistic form which is not used in a natural L2 setting (1994, p. 214). As a result, the

interaction hypothesis is based on the belief that modified input through negotiation for meaning, either as a result of a miscommunication or a pre-emptive move to prevent one, is able to incidentally facilitate acquisition (Ellis, 1999, p. 3-4).

One of the primary functions for negotiation for meaning and interaction is to make learners more conscious of the form of a language. In the discussion regarding the comprehensible output hypothesis, it was mentioned in brief passing that one of its purposes of output was to push the learner to pay attention to form. The manner in which a learner is forced to focus on the grammatical form of a language is through negotiation for meaning.

In other words, it would seem that negotiation for meaning – coming to a communicative consensus – is a necessary first step to grammatical acquisition. It paves the way for future exchanges, where, because the message is understood, the learner is free to pay attention to form. Thus, comprehensible input is crucial (...) because by being understood – by match with the learner’s ongoing intentions and cognitions – it permits the learner to focus on form. (Swain, 1985, p. 248).

This entails that through the meaning of an utterance being understood through negotiation for meaning, the learner is free to conduct a conscious analysis of the form of the utterance. Such an observation is in line with Ellis’ proposition that through a learner formulating knowledge through L2 output, even in non-interactive contexts, they are more conscious about the form of the language (Ellis, 1992, p. 119-120). Long elaborates upon Swain’s proposal by stating that miscommunications in conversations between learners with different proficiency levels will cause the learners with a lesser degree of proficiency to become more aware of the mismatch between their output, and the input of the more proficient speaker (Long, 1996, p. 451). There is by no means a guarantee that a learner will upon attaining the meaning of an utterance direct their conscious efforts to deciphering its form. It is however certainly more probable that they will be able to conduct such an action when the meaning is known to the learner, compared to when both the meaning *and* the form of the utterance is unknown to them.

Despite all the interactional SLA theories proposed thus far, there is empirical evidence provided by Foster in her 1998 study which dismisses that the notion that negotiation for meaning occurs in the classroom to a meaningful extent. An unfortunate trend in the relationship between SLA and language pedagogy is that there seems to be a split between what is feasible theoretically and what can be observed in actual instructional settings. Regarding negotiation for meaning in a classroom context, Foster notes: “However,

when the individual scores are taken into account, it is clear that even in this supposedly 'best' set-up [information exchange in dyads], most students made only a few attempts to negotiate for meaning, and all made very few or no modified utterances” (1998, p. 18). Her findings are the following: 1) Learners will seldomly engage in negotiation for meaning on a general basis (Foster, 1998, p. 18). 2) Even when there is a miscommunication, and a ‘request’ for negotiation is made, learners tend to either not respond, or simply provide a yes/no answer (Foster, 1998, p. 15). There are however important caveats to this study, namely that it featured only a small selection of participants, 21 in total, and as Foster notes, a great deal of data was made ineligible due to unusable recordings (1998, p. 7) and irregular attendance (1998, p. 5), making the true sample size even smaller.

Regardless of the small flaws in the methodology, Foster’s study and proposals provide an important context for this study, as negotiation for meaning is a vital part of the classroom research regarding tasks and how they facilitate language use. Should negotiations be null-and-void to a meaningful extent in an actual classroom environment as Foster proposes, then it can be predicted to be missing to a significant degree in my study as well. However, it will be of interest to investigate whether the supposed increased interactivity through TBLT will lead to a quantitatively greater degree of negotiations compared to tasks within a traditional design, even if the overall quantity of negotiation-work remains limited.

2.2 The role of tasks in instruction

Before we go into detail on the functions and methods of TBI, we have to take a step back assess the role that ‘tasks’ have in FLT. Contrary to what one might think, a ‘task’ is not merely a ‘task’, but rather an issue of interpretation stemming from the functions that one ascribes to this concept. The absolute widest understanding of what constitutes as a task can be found in the very lexical meaning of the word. An example of such a lexical definition of the noun can be: “a piece of work to be done” (Oxford English Dictionary, 2006, p. 1060). It goes without saying that in justifying task-design, or pedagogic choices, on fulfilling the criteria set by this definition is superficial at best. Instead, one has to analyse what the purpose of conducting any given task is and tie it into a larger syllabus based upon an SLA-informed teaching approach.

Tasks have had a role in instructed LT since time immemorial, but their functions vary depending on the framework of teaching which they are part of. Previously I brought up the example of the stereotypical classroom encounter whereby the pupils orally recite lines from a blackboard as an example of the varying role that production and interaction can have. Likewise, reciting such lines with focus on pronunciation in lockstep fashion can be seen as an instance of a task in a classroom environment. A radically different classroom task would be having pupils talk about their weekend in the target language. Both these instances of ‘task’ fulfil the lexical definition of the word, but the demands posed on what a task should contain from the perspective of a teaching approach differ radically.

The two task contexts which will be proposed and juxtaposed in this study are *traditional tasks* and *TBLT tasks*. Skehan operates with a similar dichotomy as presented here:

“Two opposing methods of implementing tasks have been proposed, which differ in the way they relate tasks to specific language structures. The first ‘traps’ structures through task design, while the second advocates the use of communicative tasks on the assumption that transacting the tasks will drive forward acquisition” (1998, p. 122).

The first task context caters to a systematic approach to language acquisition, whereas the second task context emphasises incidental acquisition through interaction.

2.2.1 Traditional tasks

The term “traditional, which is used to describe the tasks that act as the juxtaposition of TBLT, will doubtlessly be a matter of controversy. The controversy will likely stem from the fact that the usage of the term is inherently orientated from a TBLT perspective, as practitioners who employ *synthetic* grammar tasks would doubtfully label their teachings as such. A common function of this label is creating a contrast between the ‘old’ tradition of pedagogic practices with ‘new’ emerging ideas; designating the *avant garde* so to speak. The use of labels such as these tends to occur in TBLT writings: “One wonders how Swan proposes to measure the quantity of ‘new language’ that learners are exposed to in traditional and task-based approaches” (Ellis, 2009, p. 235). However, it must be noted that the usage of the term in this study is in no way intended to diminish, ‘the old’ framework of task-design. The term is used with the intention of providing a clear dichotomy between two philosophies of task-design, to make for a comparative analysis which is easily understood for a layman.

It is no small issue drawing the line between what one would define as traditional teaching approaches and TBLT, as is evident by the many divergent interpretations of what these task-contexts ought to contain. The murk largely stems from interpretations (or rather misinterpretations) of what TBLT actually constitutes as. There are indeed theorists who claim that they are researching and advocating for TBLT, mostly on the basis of communicative tasks, but neglect the core elements which make up this approach. For instance, one such interpretation is presented by Loschky & Bley-Vroman (1993). They present communicative tasks as having the goal of practicing specific grammatical structures, although hidden through a task format (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993, p. 140-141). Despite a usage of the label TBLT, erroneous interpretations are not mutually exclusive to what I deem traditional teaching approaches if they share key design-philosophies.

While the label ‘traditional’ encompasses a great many task-designs and approaches, it can be identified by the presence of a linguistic syllabus of some nature.

In some commercial textbooks and in some writing on pedagogy, *task* simply refers to a traditional, linguistically forced exercise or activity (...). A third use of *task* is to denote an activity that is communicative at some level, but whose purpose, overt or covert, is to practice specific linguistic items” (Long, 2016, p. 5).

The end-goal of tasks within this context is thus to further specific grammatical functions, pronunciations, or the vocabulary of learners. In this regard, these practice-oriented tasks can have their linguistic syllabus appear either overtly, for instance through learners being instructed to correct sentences with incorrect use of tense, or covertly, for instance through learners having to come up with synonyms in order to expand their vocabulary to include certain lexemes. As a consequence, the task-design necessitates a clear structure which can predictably trigger instances in which the learners can practice whatever linguistic item an instructor should so desire. Communicative tasks that have a covert linguistic syllabus, as with Loschky & Bley-Vroman (1993), fall within the designation alluded to by Skehan as *structure-trapping tasks* (1998, p. 122). Long designates such tasks to be “components in the delivery of a traditional linguistic syllabus” (2016, p. 6), and further differentiates them from task-based LT by the term *task-supported* LT (ibid). In conclusion, the ‘traditional’ label can be designated to tasks which do not adhere to a task-syllabus, whereby the process of solving the task is an inherent goal, but rather a traditional linguistic syllabus.

Another defining feature stems from the linguistic syllabus present in traditional tasks belonging within a wider *focus on forms*. The purpose of having a linguistic syllabus in the first place is in order support a *synthetic* process of language acquisition, where learners are exposed to, and expected to acquire, functions and features of an L2 in sequences set by an instructor (Long, 2009, p. 373). The rationale for a focus on forms is based upon the age-old belief that if something is taught, be it vocation or vocabulary, it will be learned. A traditional approach like this to language instruction is manifested as practicing isolated linguistic forms as part of a structural syllabus (Long, 1996, p. 429). This entails instructors sequencing a language into manageable “chunks” over the span of their L2 sessions. This is by no means an uncontested position in SLA: “Although most syllabi and methods assume the opposite learners do not move from ignorance of a form to mastery of it in one step” (Long, 1991, p. 44). The belief in focus on forms as a structuralist approach to language acquisition is a key feature that differentiates traditional teaching from TBLT.

2.2.2 TBLT tasks

A different interpretation of the role of form compared to the aforementioned synthetic focus on forms present in traditional teaching approaches, is *focus on form* in *analytic* teaching approaches such as TBLT. Analytic teaching approaches reject the notion that a learner can learn anything at any time, and rather places the learner as the focal point regarding their ability to process meanings and rules in the L2 (Long, 2009, p. 373). This context for language instruction emphasises that learners are exposed to natural sources of L2 to a greater degree than one would typically find in synthetic instruction. “Analytic approaches provide richer input, encountered in typically less contrived, more realistic, models of target-language use. They allow learners to use their cognitive abilities to segment that input and induce rules and patterns they are capable of processing” (Long, 2009, p. 383). The aim is thus to provide rich sources of natural L2 from which learners are able to induce the forms and functions of the language from. In addition to being analytic, TBLT has an inherent focus on form through interactions in a target language as a means to further knowledge regarding its form.

Focus on form on form involves learner’s orientation being drawn to language as object, but in context. In other words, it is a claim that learners need to attend to a task if acquisition is to occur, but that their

orientation can best be to both form and meaning, not to either form or meaning alone (Long, 1996, p. 429).

Attention to form is by no means omitted in this approach just on the basis of rejection of forms-based instruction. But rather than attention to form being the result of conscious exercises linked to it, it emerges as a result of spontaneous instances where learners become aware of form through communication in the L2. Focus on form serves as a way to make learners both conscious of meaning through communicative tasks, and form through unplanned instances of learners inducing the functions of the target language.

A part of the rationale for maintaining a focus on form in this model of language teaching, as opposed to focus on forms, stems from the principle of developmental sequences which cannot be circumvented by instructed teaching, as per the proposals made by Pienemann (1984, p. 206-207). In short, it can be observed that all language acquisition seems to follow similar patterns, a natural order of acquisition, which can be attributed to the existence of some underlying psychological sequences of language development (Pienemann, 1984, p. 186). Counter to a structuralist view, this proposal suggests learners can only acquire language through instruction if the learner is at a sufficient sequence of development which coincides with the instruction. As a consequence, instructors have little ability to force progression through these stages by the use of language drills and repetitions, but rather the onus is more so on the learners to progress according to their stage of development (Long, 2009, p. 378). While the psycholinguistic limitations of having stages of development is problematic for a synthetic syllabus, it is not so for an analytic one. “Offered gestalt samples of language use as part of an analytic approach, learners are freed from the unnatural, and often impossible, task of trying to learn a language one developmentally inappropriate piece at a time” (Long, 2009, p. 383). Through engaging with form only as the need arises, learners are susceptible to acquire it if they are at an appropriate developmental stage. In many ways, one can interpret focus on form to be one of the only defensible positions for teaching form in light of these discoveries relating to interlanguage development (Long, 1991, p. 45).

TBLT has been formulated as a methodology which is analytic in nature and leads to a *focus on form* through the usage of a task syllabus as opposed to a linguistic one. Having tasks be both the primary means in which language acquisition is facilitated and the goal of instructed LT, is a methodological solution to the problems for instructed teaching raised by the proposition of sequential language development (Long, 1985, p. 88). Through the

meaning-based communication that occurs by solving tasks, the preconditions for the interaction hypothesis and focus on form arise.

In this last regard [about negotiation for meaning], tasks that stimulate negotiation for meaning may turn out to be one among several useful language-learning activities in or out of classrooms, for they may be of the easiest ways to facilitate a learner's focus on form without losing sight of a lesson's (or conversation's) predominant focus on meaning (Long, 1996, p. 454).

Not compromising the flow of meaning-based communication through overtly focusing on forms, ensures target language exchanges occur as they do in natural contexts of language acquisition. Furthermore, the creation of a task syllabus is not derived from the forms and functions of a target language, but rather from the individual *needs* that a learner, or a group of learners, have from this language. The purpose conducting a learner-centred needs analysis is to create such a syllabus which is relevant to their pragmatic usage of the L2 (Long, 2005, p. 22-23). These pragmatic needs might be related to vocation for migrant workers, studies for international students, or anything in between. From cataloguing the needs that learners have from the target language, an instructor can create the *task-types*, the categories of tasks that a learner has to be able to conduct in a real-life setting, which makes up the task syllabus (Long, 1985, p. 91-92).

There are numerous interpretations of exactly what the meaning of 'task' is in a TBLT context, as has already been illustrated by the interpretation by Loschky & Bley-Vroman which run counter to the understanding of this concept which will be established here. Long's initial proposal of TBLT, and task syllabus, highlights the pragmatic aspect of tasks. "In the present context, "task" has no more or less than its everyday meaning. (...) by "task" is meant the hundred and one things people *do* in everyday life" (Long, 1985, p. 89). While understanding 'tasks' as the daily activities that one would require to use the target language to conduct is a good initial theoretical basis, it is still quite ambiguous and difficult to feasibly implement in instructed LT. Ellis proposes a refinement to Long's methodology by ascribing 4 criteria for tasks which for this dissertation will act as the premiere definition of tasks within a TBLT context. The 4 criteria can in short be summed up as the following: 1) The learners are primarily focused on conveying or processing meaning. 2) There is a need to convey meaning in order for the task at hand to be solved. 3) Learners have to primarily utilise their own knowledge, linguistic or otherwise in a task process. 4) Solving the task is the primary outcome of an exercise, not practicing linguistic structures (Ellis, 2009, p. 223). These criteria, along with Long's pragmatic vision for TBLT, illustrates that the concept of

'task' does not have a direct role in language learning, but rather through the interactive communicative process of solving tasks it has an indirect facilitatory role of acquisition.

2.3 Motivation

As the purpose of this study is to examine how different tasks further a willingness to communicate, the complicated issue of motivation must be examined in short. There is empirical research provided by Kormos & Dörnyei which supports the notion that there is a correlation between the degree that a learner is motivated to solve a task, and the overall quantity of L2 production (2004, p. 9). The motivation they investigated in the study is related both towards the motivation to the task itself, *task attitude*, and the motivation towards the language course in its entirety, *course attitude* (ibid). However, while there is solid evidence for *quantity* being manifested as a result of motivation, there is little to indicate that it will equally facilitate *quality* of production according to their findings.

We can also observe that the correlations between the motivational factors and the quantity of talk are considerably higher than the correlation between motivation and the qualitative measures. This is in fact consistent with theories of motivation which see motivation as the force that determines the *magnitude* of the behaviour rather than the quality of the behavioural outcome (Kormos & Dörnyei, 2004, p. 10).

As such, motivation is a paramount concern when investigating willingness to produce L2 output, but it alone cannot be expected to enhance, or otherwise augment, lexical complexity.

While motivation might seem like a simple topic to describe in terms of 'how much or how little one desires to do something', it is fraught with influencing factors which are difficult to account for. For instance, when learners solve tasks with a poor task attitude, such as finding a task to be uninspiring, dull, or otherwise difficult, their output may not necessarily be manifested as lacklustre as previously discussed. Lacking motivation in task attitude can be made up for by an overall motivation from the course attitude (Kormos & Dörnyei, 2004, p. 12). As a result, the teaching environment, such as the teacher, the fellow pupils, and/or the quality of the instruction, can be sufficient to ensure L2 output even if the task itself is demotivating. In addition, personal motivation, to both the task and course, is not the only motivational factor at play when in a dyad or group. The motivation of the interlocutor(s) also affects the personal level of output in a task environment (Kormos & Dörnyei, 2004, p. 15). Should an unmotivated learner be paired with a highly motivated

learner, chances are that the enthusiasm of the motivated learner(s) will compel the unmotivated one to produce more output than their personal motivation facilitates (ibid). When analysing how the task-designs motivate learners to speak, one has to keep these contextual factors in mind.

Research conducted by Poupore (2013) highlights that TBLT might not be motivating for pupils. Using a combination of questionnaires and interviews (2013, p. 99-102), Poupore tested 38 Korean learners of English over the span of a year of instructed teaching and catalogued their motivation for solving TBLT tasks (2013, p. 97-98). His investigation into two tasks in particular highlights that the interplay between numerous factors of motivation surrounding the tasks, such as their complexity and seriousness of topic, led to an overall decrease in motivation (Poupore, 2013, p. 105-109). However, the tasks he used followed a differing interpretation of *task* compared to the one previously established on the basis of Long (1985) and Ellis (2009). The two conditions for a task used by Poupore are: “(1) an interactive and free use of language with an emphasis on meaning and (2) achievement of a clearly stated goal whose results needed to be reported orally, in writing, or both” (2013, p. 98). The implications of TBLT having a myriad of factors which ultimately leads to it being demotivating is that one can potentially expect to see a decrease in L2 production when solving them compared to traditional tasks in line with Kormos & Dörnyei’s findings.

2.4 Didactic considerations and the issue of TBLT

As has been mentioned previously, there is a need for didactic practitioners to be aware of both *how* and *why* certain SLA-informed teaching practices should be executed. Thus far we have established why interaction, negotiation for meaning, and motivation have significant benefits in SLA. In addition, we have established how TBLT can create an instructional environment which is tailored to facilitate pupil L2 production in line with these existing theories. While this position of having established a *how* and *why* ought to have been a cause for rejoice for language teachers, there is one prevalent issue; the lack of empirical evidence which supports TBLT in this regard. If the goal is to manufacture a teaching approach which creates learning situations in which pupils are motivated to produce the greatest extent of L2 output, have the most interactions, experience misunderstandings leading to negotiations for meaning, and instigating modified input, then there has to be solid evidence that TBLT will do so to a greater extent than existing teaching practices. To provide more clarity on this

subject, and to aid language teachers in discerning whether TBLT is actually viable as a means to facilitate output and interaction, this study intends to test its performance in relation to traditional tasks.

3 Methodology

The purpose of this dissertation is to test the interactivity of tasks within a task-based framework, and its efficiency in motivating L2 production, in comparison to traditional teaching approaches. This will be achieved through a quantitative and qualitative analysis of empirical data collected in the form of a corpus gathered in a Norwegian instructional setting.

3.1 Research questions

1. Do task-based activities facilitate and motivate English L2 usage amongst pupils in an instructional setting to a greater degree than traditional tasks in terms of quality and quantity of output?
2. Does negotiation for meaning occur to a greater extent during the TBLT task segment in correlation with the presumed increase in interactivity?

3.2 Data collection design

This study intends to investigate how different task contexts may influence the use of English for Norwegian learners at an upper-secondary school in terms of their motivation for oral L2 production. A paramount concern in the design of the data collection is how to capture learner L2 production in an authentic instructional setting whilst simultaneously also mitigating influencing factors. As Bachman (1990) notes, the conditions surrounding a physical testing environment might influence how participants undertake tasks, and their performance in solving them. Some of these factors include the familiarity of the place of testing, familiarity of the test equipment, the familiarity with the personnel conducting the tests, and at what time of day the testing takes place (Bachman, 1990, p. 118). In order to attain an as authentic and reliable testing environment as possible, the data collection design was tailored to emulate the familiarity of a classroom setting, whilst also limiting the factors detailed by Bachman which could potentially influence the data.

In order to accurately capture all utterances produced by the participating pupils, the Norwegian learners of English were voice recorded as they solved tasks within a task-based framework, and a traditional one. These recordings were transcribed and assembled into a corpus. This corpus serves as the empirical data which makes up the basis for this study.

The data was collected during two instructed English sessions on consecutive days featuring the same participants in both sequences. Both sequences lasted roughly 10 – 12 minutes, whereby six minutes of which was dedicated to solving tasks. All groups conducted the traditional tasks on the first day of testing, whilst the second day of testing was used for the TBLT tasks. The aim was to conduct the tests in conjunction with ordinary instructed English teaching, which was taking place simultaneously as the testing, in order for the tasks to feel as an organic part of their teaching, rather than research conducted by a third-party. To this end, the tasks were designed to fit into the topic of the English session of the corresponding day. Both of these sessions belonged within the larger topic of *English as a World Language*. The purpose of this was 1) to ensure that the pupils had some degree of prior knowledge relating to the topic of the task sequences, 2) to place both task contexts within the same topical framework of ‘English as a World Language’ to eliminate the factor of a given topic influencing production, and 3) to make the pupils more familiar with the testing situation and make it feel like it was part of their actual instructed teaching.

There were however limitations in the authenticity of the testing stemming from the fact that a classroom is a difficult testing environment. Ideally, the testing would have been conducted in the classroom with all the pupils conducting the groupwork simultaneously as is the standard in instructed teaching, and how Foster conducted her 1998 study. However, a classroom is a volatile testing environment, where teacher control can at times be limited, and innumerable social factors are at play. Additionally, as the conversations were to be transcribed and analysed through a corpus, it was of paramount importance that too much noise did not make the recordings unintelligible. This issue was faced by Foster, leading to a significant amount of data being unusable for her study (Foster, 1998, p. 7). To circumvent this, two groups were taken out of the classroom at a time to conduct the testing in a separate, albeit smaller, classroom with me both providing and overseeing the tasks. While this is not completely in line with Foster’s desire for SLA research to be conducted in “an undisturbed, intact classroom” (1998, p. 4), it was a compromise deemed essential in order for the study to be feasible in regard to ethics – as non-consenting pupils should not be audible in the background of the recordings – and of purely practical reasons. While this compromises the

authenticity of the research setting, as the classroom is not intact, it does ensure that the data is analysable whilst also being conducted in a familiar testing environment for the participants.

Other measures taken to limit the factors presented by Bachman were incorporated in the study design, such as using familiar testing equipment, becoming acquainted with the pupils, and conducting each test sequence at the same time of day. The pupils' own phones were used as the instruments of recording through the use of an app provided by 'Nettskjema Diktafon'. As such, there was no alien equipment present during the testing, but rather the recording happened through dormant phones laying on the pupils' desks. As I personally had to both provide the tasks and oversee the completion of the tasks, it was of importance that the participants were acquainted with me prior to the testing. To achieve a degree of acquaintance with the participants, I attended English sessions prior to the testing with the aim of familiarising myself with the participants. Lastly, in order to rule out the factor of fatigue influencing the data, both test segments were initiated at roughly 10:40 AM. As a result, the pupils had around 2 hours of teaching prior to both testing segments. Through the aforementioned measures, the impact of the potential sources of error in quite a volatile testing environment has been reduced.

3.3 Participants and group-design

The participants in this study consisted of 12 upper secondary school pupils chosen from the same class, who belonged to a study-specialisation programme with added specialisation in music. Their common vocational specialisation in music served as a key factor in the design of the TBLT tasks, as this provides common set of needs for the participants, in line with Long's proposal (1985, p. 89), (2005, p. 22-23). In collaboration with their teacher and the school administration, the participants were recruited through the teacher presenting the broad schematics of this study and provided a consent form to all pupils of this class. The pupils who signed the consent form were deemed to be eligible participants. There were more willing potential participants than these 12, however the scope of this dissertation limited how much data could be processed. As a result, the 12 participating pupils were chosen at random.

The 12 participants were further organised into four groups consisting of three participants each. The proficiency level of these participants was not catalogued prior to the

testing, and the groups were assembled at random with no regard for it. Thus, one can assume that the levels of proficiency are quite diverse as one tends to have in a classroom environment. These four groups all conducted the testing in tandem. It is worth noting that this is a deviation from the group-design employed by Foster. Her study had both dyads – groups of only two participants – and groups with more than two participants (Foster 1998, p. 5). My desire to have uniform group sizes stems from a need to for a reliable comparative analysis between the groups. Having different parameters between a very limited set of participants would have added a great deal of uncertainty to any findings.

3.4 The first task sequence: Traditional tasks

The tasks in the first task sequence, along with the text they read to complete them, were taken from the participants' commercial English textbook. In essence these tasks functions as post-reading tasks for a text on colonialism. In line with the traditional synthetic syllabus, these tasks aim to practice linguistic skills such as reading comprehension, expansion of L2 vocabulary, and semantic usage of key terms linked with the topic of English as a World Language.

The first task in the traditional segment asked the participants to find synonyms to words from a short text, and to provide their own definitions to key terms relating to this topic. Prior to receiving the task, the pupils read a short text on colonisation. Subsequently, they were tasked with locating synonyms in the text which matched a list of 5 words they were provided. For instance, to the word and description “Grow – become larger”, the pupils had to locate the synonym “Expand” in the text. The second part of the task required the pupils to come up with their own definitions to key terms relating to the topic of the text, for instance “discover”, “influence”, and “lingua franca”.

The second task in this segment involved the participants discovering the etymology of certain English words and providing an independent explanation as to how and why these words were incorporated into the English language. Using the internet, the participants had to discover the origin of the English words, “zombie”, ”pyjamas”, and “moose”. In addition, they had to use their pre-existing knowledge on the topic to explain how these words became part of the English language, and for what reason.

3.5 The second task sequence: TBLT tasks

The first TBLT task required the participants to identify and analyse a song from the English-speaking world which was played to them prior to the testing. Firstly, the task asked the participants to identify which genre 'Three Little Birds' belongs to, and which English-speaking country this genre is associated with. Secondly, the participants were asked to analyse the defining characteristics of the genre based on this song.

The second task asked the participants to orchestrate a musical performance which highlighted the English-speaking world. They would do so by designing a song, or multiple, which represents one or more English-speaking countries. The participants were not asked to write a song, but rather to engage in the creative process of planning their performance. In other words, they proceeded as if they were in the initial phase of creating music, and thus justifying the choices they made based upon their own knowledge and proficiency in music. To help them with this, the participants were given a list of elements which they could discuss. For instance, what instruments would be required to play the music from a given English-speaking country, or what the overall defining musical characteristics are for the country of their choice. To provide an example of how such a task can be solved, in collaborating on how to represent music from New Zealand, one group discussed how they could do so by incorporating the Māori language, traditional instruments, and war chants.

A key concern in designing these tasks, was that they were facilitative of L2 usage and interaction. This concern stems from an observation made by Seedhouse that TBLT supposedly encourages impoverished L2 (1999, p. 153). Thus, a key aspect in the task-design is to ensure its facilitative value in terms of production and interactivity. Firstly, both tasks are designed to be two-way tasks, requiring all of the participants to interact and share the knowledge they possess or their opinions on the given subject (Mackey, 2012, p. 23). As Long notes, two-way tasks are suited for triggering instances of negotiation for meaning as well (1996, p. 418). Secondly, the tasks test different aspects of the participants' problem-solving capabilities. The first task is a closed reciprocal task where the participants have to accumulate their collective knowledge to carry out the musical analysis, and arrive at an answer (Mackey, 2012, p. 23). In such a task, there is only one correct answer which the participants have to collectively figure out, hence the designator 'closed'. The second task,

however, is an ‘open’ consensus task in which the participants debate amongst themselves to achieve any given consensus about how they would design their performance (ibid). Such a task has no correct answer, meaning that the participants can arrive at any consensus of their choice and still solve the task. Thirdly, the tasks are both linked and dependent on the prior knowledge that the participants have, which in this instance is the subject of music, and the topic ‘English as a World Language’.

In justifying how these task segments adhere to the essence of TBLT, I used the aforementioned 4 criteria for what a ‘task’ must satisfy proposed by Ellis (2009, p. 223). 1) These tasks focus on processing pragmatic and semantic meaning through inter-peer interaction. In simple terms, the participants were required to decode the meaning of what their fellow group members were attempting to convey. 2) There is an overall need to use the L2 in order to convey information grounded in a group’s shared knowledge regarding the field of music, or their opinions on it. 3) The learners have to solve these tasks through utilising both their pre-existing knowledge about the field of music and their L2 linguistic capabilities. 4) There is a clearly defined outcome, or product, stemming from the tasks being solved other than the use of the language itself. The first task requires a musical analysis being made, and the second task requires that a musical performance is designed. Through Ellis’ interpretation of ‘task’, the tasks in this segment belong within a TBI framework.

Another key element in the design of the TBI tasks is its adherence to the needs that the pupils have in the field of music, which is in conjunction of the competence aims that LK20 – the Norwegian national curriculum – establishes to be the overt goal of their education. There are two core needs established by LK20 which ties in with the TBLT tasks. Firstly, there is a core need for the musician participants is the ability to analyse music through an active listening process (UDIR, 2020a, p. 4). Secondly, there is a need for the participants to be able to plan and coordinate a musical performance (UDIR, 2020b, p. 4). As such, the TBLT inspired tasks are designed to cater to the needs that the music pupils have for using their L2 in accordance with LK20.

3.6 Method of analysis

As this study is aimed at investigating the facilitative ability of a task-based and traditional environment in terms of output and interaction, it is prudent to analyse the corpus both

quantitatively and qualitatively. The purpose of such a mixed approach is to get a more holistic analysis. Certain elements of the analysis can be properly presented through a quantitative analysis of numbers and figures, such as when investigating the total number of words produced in each context. However, other elements can best be qualitatively analysed through looking at key excerpts from the corpus which exemplifies overall observable trends. Instances of negotiation for meaning, for instance, is difficult to analyse quantitatively, and as such will be analysed qualitatively. Naturally, a quantitative analysis of the total spoken L2 tokens that the participants produce in each context will feature prominently in this study. However, it is also of interest to analyse the complexity of the lexicon that the participants employ, which can be done through looking at the total amount of unique, non-repeating, L2 tokens. In order to analyse the interactions and instances of negotiation for meaning which occur in each task setting, it is also necessary to conduct a qualitative analysis of relevant excerpt to judge their complexity and potential acquisitional value. L1 production will also be assessed quantitatively in terms of total L1 speech, and also qualitatively to see when its usage is facilitated in the tasks.

There are however a few considerations which have been taken regarding which language productions are included in the analysis of the corpus. Firstly, only oral productions related to the process of solving the tasks will be included in this study. Dialogue or comments which are deemed to be irrelevant to solving the tasks will be omitted from the corpus entirely. This concern stems both from an ethical perspective of only collecting the data which the participants agreed upon, and a desire to not influence the results by counting tokens not related to the tasks at hand. Secondly, it is worth noting that only independent L2 production that the participants make in solving the tasks will be included in the quantitative analysis of total tokens and total unique tokens produced in each context. Meaning that L1 tokens and tokens stemming from orally quoting written text will not be counted. There will also be a separate analysis concerned with analysing L1 usage as previously mentioned, but these L1 tokens will be counted separately.

Another key factor in this study is the aspect of how different task contexts might yield a greater or lesser degree of motivation for L2 production. It is difficult to quantitatively measure motivation of any kind, let alone motivation for speaking. Thus, I have had to rely on the participants self-reporting their motivation through grading how enjoyable each task sequence was on a scale from 1 to 10. This was done orally while the voice recordings were ongoing after the six minutes, that the participants had to complete the tasks, had passed. I

asked the participants how they felt about the tasks, and to come to a consensus on an enjoyment score from 1 - 10. Furthermore, the amount, and quality, of L2 production, can also be an indicator of motivation for solving a given task. This is by no means an ideal way to get an exact measure of motivation for speaking, but it allows us to get an understanding of which task sequence the pupils found more engaging. Thus, a comparative motivation analysis between the two task-contexts will be feasible.

3.7 Ethical concerns

As this study collected personal data in the form of voice recordings from pupils, maintaining good ethics was a key concern. Before any data could be collected, I sought permission from Norsk Senter for Forskningsdata (NSD), who approved the application on the condition that I took the following measures. The recordings were only stored on secure cloud services through Nettskjema and the University of Tromsø SharePoint. Furthermore, the participants had to sign a consent form in order to be present in the study which outlined how the data will be used and their rights to have their data withdrawn. Additionally, all participants are anonymous in the corpus and only represented by fictitious names. There exists no link between the individual pupils and their utterances in the corpus. The reference number for the NSD application is 634312.

4 Results and discussion

4.1 Research question 1: Facilitating and motivating L2 usage

4.1.1 Assessing quantity and quality of output

Overall, the results from the corpus analysis indicates that there is an overall greater quantity of L2 production present in the TBLT task segment for every group. Groups 3 and 4, as the overall lowest scoring groups, had the largest differential disparity between their token count in the traditional task setting compared to the TBLT one. Group 4 in particular has a large gap, with 218 tokens separating the two. In contrast, the best scoring groups have a far

lessened disparity between the tokens produced in each context. Group 2, the overall best scoring group, has a differential of only 35, whilst group 1 has a differential of 88. On average, in a TBLT context of task solving, the participating pupils produced 116 more L2 tokens.

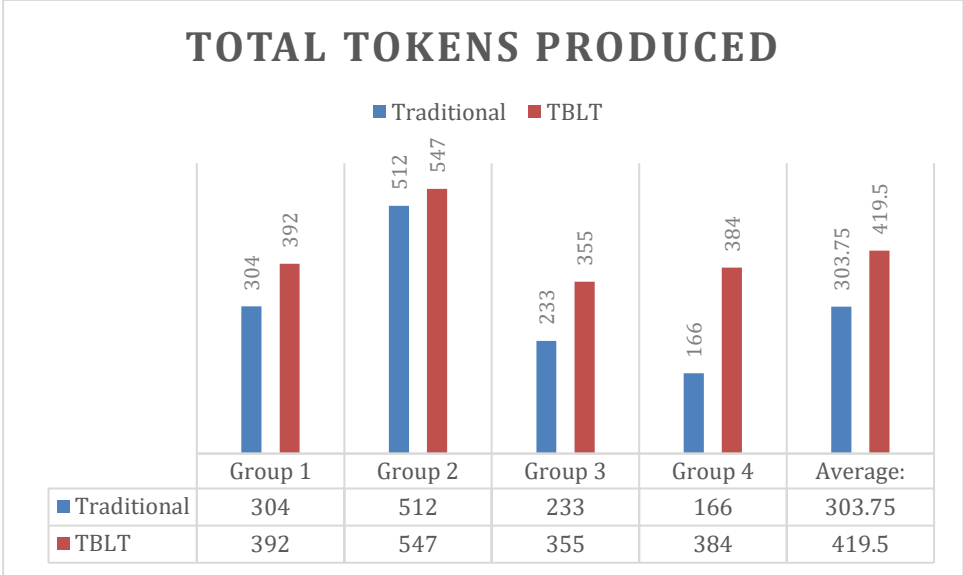


Figure 1 (Total tokens produced.)

By looking purely at the total tokens produced, there does indeed seem to be a correlation between TBLT and an overall quantitative increase in pupil oral production, but mostly so for the groups that struggled with the traditional tasks. Universally, all groups spoke more during the TBLT segment. As such, it would appear that the notion that TBLT is able to facilitate a greater quantity of oral L2 production compared to traditional tasks does have credence. It is worth noting however that a large part of the average quantitative gap between the task-designs stem from the groups that struggled the most in the traditional task segment performing better in the TBLT segment. Group 2 has only a nominal increase of 6.8% in the TBLT tasks, whilst group 4 has a staggering 131% increase. A potential explanation is that the less proficient participants found the more interactive analytic tasks easier to engage with compared with the synthetic traditional tasks, and thus simply had more to say when solving them. On the other hand, the quite proficient participants had no such barrier in talking and interacting in the traditional task segment. From this data, it can be interpreted that the threshold for production and interaction seems to be lower with a task-based design.

While tasks in a TBLT framework have shown to facilitate a greater quantity total of L2 production, there is a stark contrast between the two TBLT tasks regarding how much the

participants produced in each. As figure 2 illustrates, the vast majority of the L2 tokens came from the pupils solving the open consensus task. The closed reciprocal task on the other hand produced a comparatively marginal amount of L2 tokens.

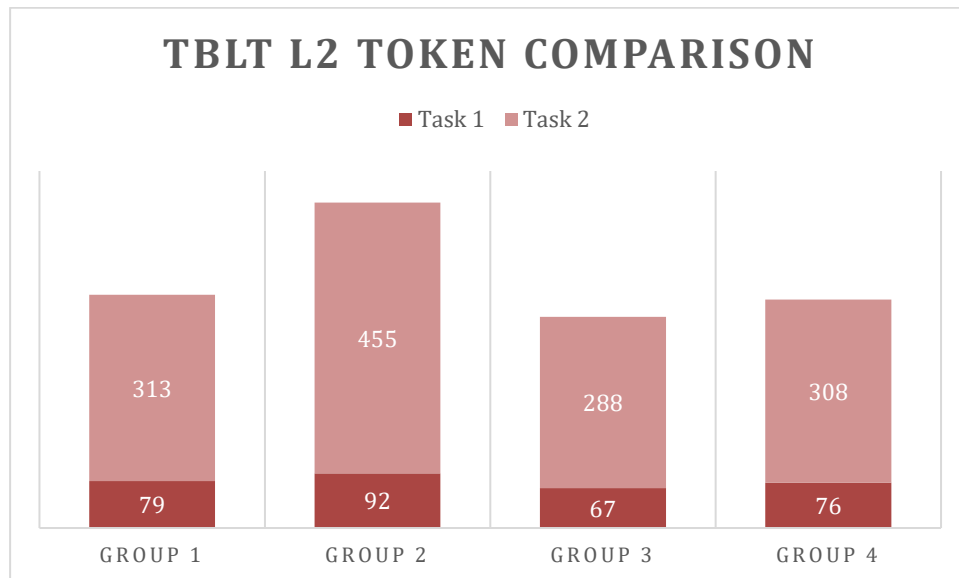


Figure 2 (Internal token comparison between the two TBLT tasks.)

Additionally, this can also be qualitatively assessed when reading the corpus. For task 1, there was a tendency for the pupils to “race” to an answer, and when they arrived at an answer they believed to be acceptable, they were happy to simply move on with the next task. The implication of this disparity is that TBLT may not be an inherent facilitator of output production; there are other crucial elements of the task-design which determine how much output is produced. An instructor will thus have to critically assess what the purpose of a given task is. If the desired purpose of a task is for the pupils to produce the maximum amount of output in an interactional context, then an open consensus task might be best suited like task 2. Whereas if the instructor wishes to solve a specific “problem”, or have the learners come to a specific answer, a closed reciprocal task might be more fitting.

In contrast to the total token count, there is mostly only a slight increase in total unique, non-repeating, tokens in the TBLT segment than the traditional segment on average. The most extreme example of a small difference in unique productions comes from group 2 which produced only one more unique token in the TBLT context. Likewise, groups 1 and 3 had only an increase of 13 tokens and 11 tokens respectively. However, group 4 stands as an outlier since it actually had a significant increase in unique tokens in the TBLT context. In

total, group 4 produced 57 more unique tokens when solving tasks within a task-based framework compared to a traditional one.

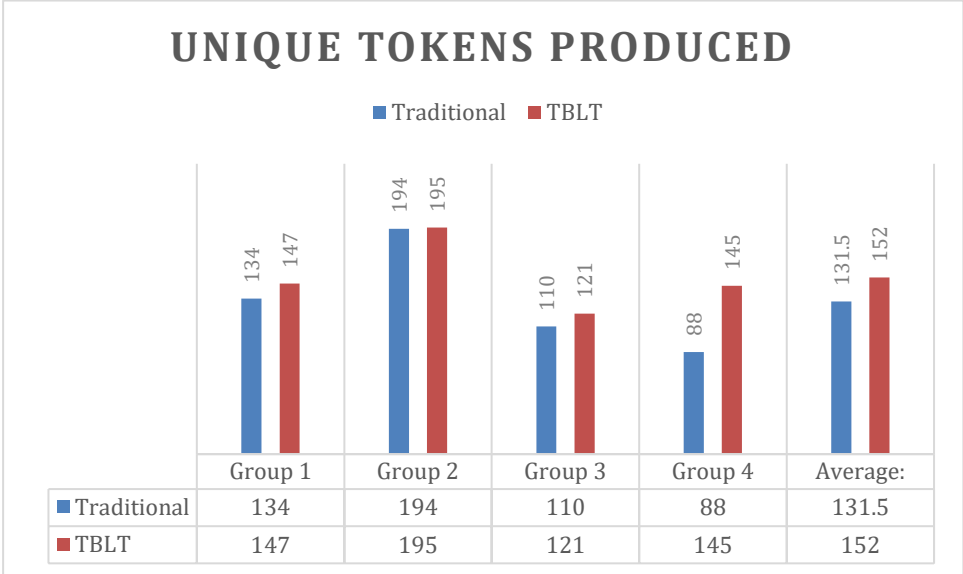


Figure 3 (Unique tokens produced.)

There is however a prominent element up for discussion regarding whether these tasks actually facilitated a greater quality of output. If one were to solely look at the total quantity of unique tokens and extrapolate this to mean that they are indicative of quality of output, then one could argue that the TBLT tasks facilitated just this. However, the margins in which TBLT had more unique tokens than the traditional tasks are slim, group 2 only having one more, and there seems to be only an incremental correlation between the increase in total tokens and total unique tokens. On average, the groups produced roughly 38.1% more total tokens in the TBLT tasks, yet they only averaged an increase of 15.6% unique tokens. This is indicative that the increase in output that the TBLT tasks facilitated is mostly manifested as repeating words and phrases. When analysing which tokens in particular that occur with greater frequency in these tasks, we can see that there is a general tendency for confirmation words, determiners, and pronouns to occur with greater frequency. Of these word classes, the informal confirmation word “yeah”, the determiner “the”, and the personal pronoun “I” occurred to the greatest extent in their respective classes.

Notable tokens	Sum of TBLT	Sum of Traditional
Confirmation word: “Yeah”	78	59
Determiner: “The”	61	37
Personal pronoun: “I”	38	27
Total notable tokens	177	123

Figure 4: Table 1 (Notable tokens that are repeated.)

As this table shows, the notable token types are repeated with a far greater frequency in the TBLT tasks, which helps to explain the disparity between total and unique tokens. It would seem that the additional output which is produced is primarily manifested as repetition of low complexity tokens. These findings coincide with the observation made by Kormon & Dörnyei in their analysis of motivation in interactional tasks, as motivated participants were able to speak more, but not with an increase in the richness of their vocabulary (2004, p. 9). On one hand, it cannot necessarily be claimed that tasks adhering to the task-design of TBLT helps facilitate a greater quality of output; given that the increase in unique lexicons is marginal to the total output. On the other hand however, there is still a disparity in lexical complexity between the task contexts, which does indicate that TBLT is facilitative of quality of output to some greater degree.

4.1.2 Interactions in traditional and TBLT task contexts

The findings that confirmation words, determiners and pronouns have an increased frequency in the TBLT tasks coincide with an observable increase in interactional exchanges. Through a qualitative analysis of the corpus, there seems to be a great deal of interactions occurring in the TBLT segment. There are numerous characteristics which illustrate how these tasks are facilitative of interactional exchanges.

Linn: Yeah, or if we gonna take more interesting country like...
 an English-speaking African country.
 John: If we take Sweden we got ABBA.
 Linn: They doesn't speak English.
 John: Sure, but they speak Engli- that's true, my bad.
 Linn: What about Nigeria or Jamaica? Jamaica.
 John: Jamaica, they got Bob Marley.
 Linn: They got Bob-
 John: And he's a big guy. He was... he was a big guy,
 before he smoked so much plant that he died from cancer.

Figure 5: Excerpt 1 (Group 4 interaction in TBLT.)

Firstly, there is an observable willingness to correct erroneous information provided by an interlocutor, as is exemplified by excerpt 1. An interlocutor providing a correction is indicative that they have some 'stake' in a conversation which urges them to provide negative feedback.

Jen: But I feel like piano, like classical piano, that's more European.
 Pete: Well, yeah, not, not classical piano.
 Jen: No.
 Pete: More like keyboards.
 Jen: Keyboards.
 Tom: Blues piano you might need if you're going to play blues for sure,
 if you're playing hip-hop you're definitely going to need like you said.
 Jen: And of course-
 Tom: And jazz as well.
 Jen: Sing with an American accent.

Figure 6: Excerpt 2: (Group 2 interaction in TBLT.)

Secondly, the participants are mostly able to work off the ideas made by their interlocutors and provide suggestions. An ability to collaboratively process ideas in such a manner carries on the conversation and allows for more 'turns' to be had for each speaker.

Cliff: We could also take something from New Zealand, or Austalia.
 Sam: No they dont speak English, they speak Australian.
 Cliff: Ok.
 May: We could take England.
 Cliff: Yeah.
 Sam: They speak Englandish, not English... Jamaica.
 Cliff: India.
 Amy: But didn't they take Jamaica? Through the verse.
 Sam: No, Bob Marley not Jamaican.
 Amy: Yeah, but wasn't that what you said?

Figure 7: Excerpt 3 (Group 1 interaction in TBLT.)

Thirdly, there is a willingness to express a degree of disagreement with interlocutors. Engaging in argumentation is the result of having a motivational interest in furthering your position when solving a task. Kormos & Dörnyei suggests that “participants with a favourable attitude to the task were more willing to express disagreement with their partner’s view than students who did not fancy the task very much” (2004, p. 12). These three characteristics illustrates how TBLT is facilitative of interactional exchanges, through having participants further engage with each other through their ‘stakes’ in the task.

Conversely, the levels of interaction in the traditional tasks seem to be of a lesser degree, largely stemming from an overreliance on context, a lacking desire to question erroneous or superficial answers, and voice disagreement. There is a predominant trend for these tasks to stifle interaction to the bare minimum required to solve the tasks in question.

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Cliff: Influence...  
Amy: That is when someone gets affected-  
Cliff: Yeah.  
Amy: By others.  
Cliff: Or something, yeah.  
Amy: Yeah.
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Figure 8: Excerpt 4 (Group 1 interaction in traditional tasks.)

The context of these tasks serves as a limiting factor for interaction, as the quite straightforward procedure of processing the linguistic syllabus is not facilitative of inter-peer argumentation. Furthermore, as has been already alluded to, there is also tendency for the participants to accept any answer provided by their partners without question. This can be seen in the following excerpt from group 4, as they have no objection to “independent” being a synonym to “do away with”.

```
Linn: Do away with... Do away with-  
Linn: <L1: Er neste.>  
John: Is that independent?  
Cath: Perhaps.  
John: Yeah...
```

Figure 9: Excerpt 5 (Group 4 interaction in traditional task 1.)

An explanation for the lack of objections or disagreements in cases like this for the traditional tasks likely stem from issues relating to motivation. As the example regarding disagreements

in TBLT establish, a lacking attitude towards solving the task can be manifested as an aversion to disagreement, as interlocutors lack a ‘stake’ to voice their arguments.

It should be noted that there is no observable uniformity to the degree of interactivity that can be observed in each task for each context. As previously mentioned, TBLT task 1 facilitated a far lesser degree of output than the open consensus task. Likewise, the first part of traditional task 1 also elicited impoverished interactions to a greater extent than for instance the creation of definitions. When locating synonyms in the textbook, most groups tended to merely find a word, either from the text or from pure guesswork, and state it in complete isolation. As such, we are not dealing with a pure dichotomy where one context is entirely interactive and the other not, but rather a gradient of interactivity. However, overall the observable tendency is for interactions being more prominent in the task-based segment, which gives credence to the claim that TBLT is more interactive than traditional tasks.

4.1.3 The issue of motivation

Regarding the self-reported motivation for solving the tasks, the participants overall reported the TBLT tasks to be more motivating. Groups 1 and 2 had the largest disparity between their reported motivation in a traditional and TBLT context, with 3.5 and 2 points respectively separating them. Groups 3 and 4, however, only had one point separating the contexts. On average, the groups rated the TBLT tasks to be 1.9 points more motivating and enjoyable than their traditional counterparts.

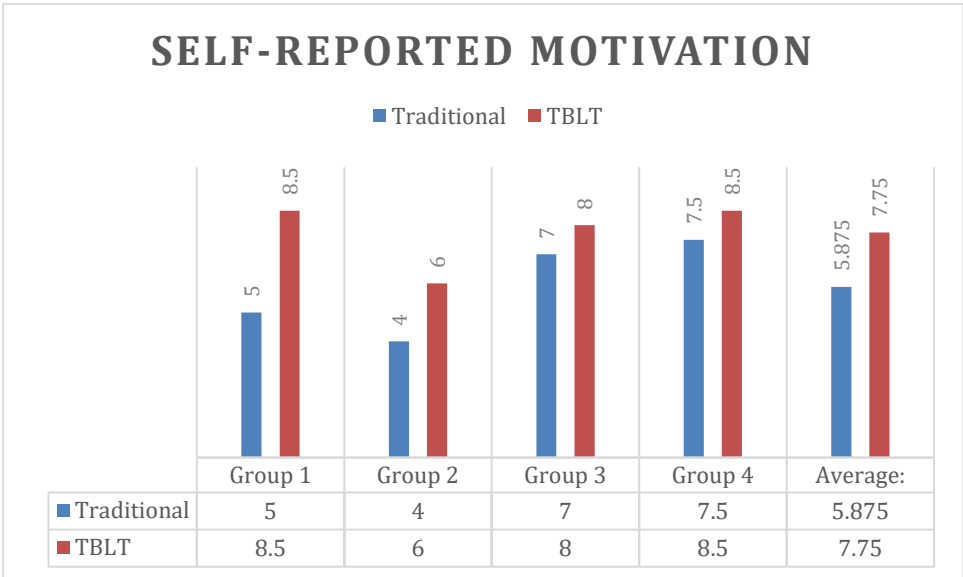
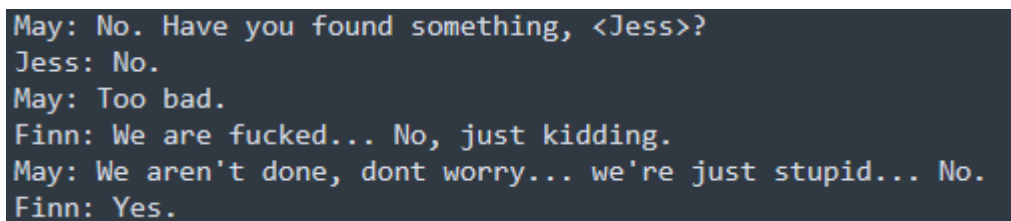


Figure 10 (Self-reported motivational scores)

Surprisingly, the self-reported motivational scores do not seem to be representative of how the groups encountered the tasks. Groups 3 and 4 that struggled greatly and had lacklustre L2 productions in the traditional task segment also rated them the highest of all groups. Conversely, group 2, which performed the best overall, gave both task segments the lowest ratings of all the groups. Initially this might seem counter-intuitive, as the groups which had unenjoyable experiences also rated them quite highly.



```
May: No. Have you found something, <Jess>?  
Jess: No.  
May: Too bad.  
Finn: We are fucked... No, just kidding.  
May: We aren't done, dont worry... we're just stupid... No.  
Finn: Yes.
```

Figure 11: Excerpt 6: (Group 3 struggled with the traditional tasks yet rated them highly.)

However, the answer can simply be attributed to groups 3 and 4 being neither critical nor conscious of their task experience. Group 2 on the other hand may have been conscious of their learning process, and as such probably gave scores which were more in line with their actual experiences. This finding is in line with the observation made by Kormos & Dörnyei that participants may be active in engaging a task despite not being motivated by it if there are other motivating factors (2004, p. 12). As a result, the exact measurements of the scores can largely be disregarded, as they have little value in a cross analysis between the groups stemming from a lack of consistency. However, what may be valuable is a comparative analysis internally in the groups of which task segment each group rated the higher of the two, and from that extrapolate it to mean that they found it more engaging to solve, as most groups rated one in relation to the other. In this aspect, TBLT was universally favoured as the more motivating task-context.

These findings regarding the motivating nature of TBLT tasks run counter to the findings made by Poupore (2013). I suspect that his diverging data, illustrating that TBLT is not motivating as a result of the decreased task-motivation in the face of cognitive, emotional, social, and task-structure factors (Poupore, 2013, p. 112), is the result of a different interpretation of task-design in TBLT. Rather than focusing on the specific *needs* that learners have for the target language, Poupore followed a general syllabus regarding world-wide sociocultural issues, such as 9/11 and world peace (Poupore, 2013, p. 98). Such an approach is not too far removed from post-reading tasks featured in my traditional tasks. Furthermore,

his interpretation of *task* does not emphasise the importance of basing the task on the pre-existing knowledge of the learners, as per Ellis' 3rd criteria for a *task* (2009, p. 223). Rather, his syllabus seems to be quite devoid of being task-based at all. While precious little information is provided the contents of the year-long course and only two tasks are explained in detail, from his limited descriptions I suspect that his research was more so about motivation in *task-supported* LT than actual *task-based* LT.

A key factor which might explain why the TBLT was more motivating than the traditional tasks – and to some degree the tasks in Poupore's study –, and thus quantitatively elicited more production, is the fact that these tasks were specifically designed for the participants with regard to their needs for the English language. The primary purpose of conducting a needs analysis is, as already established, to discover target tasks which can make up a task syllabus (Long, 1985, p. 91). For this study, the target task types (Long, 2016, p. 7) involved in the TBLT tasks were a musical analysis and song design. However, there is an indirect second purpose of a needs analysis which comes as a consequence, which is *relevance*. By the task-design having the common vocational background of the participants as its focal point, the tasks in turn have a great degree of relevance to their specialised education, which subsequently draws upon their cross-curricular skills. Anecdotally, one participant read through the TBLT tasks (despite being instructed not to) just prior to the start of the recordings and exclaimed with a degree of excitement that *these* tasks they knew how to solve, and that it was *their* kind of tasks. In contrast, the traditional tasks did not have any specific relevance to the participants, as these tasks were wholly based upon a linguistic syllabus. Additionally, the task-based segment was based on the knowledge and experience that the pupils had prior to the testing segment, as opposed to being taken from a commercial textbook. This could potentially help to explain why the TBLT tasks universally were reported to be more motivating and facilitated the most L2 tokens.

4.2 Research question 2: Negotiation for meaning

4.2.1 L1 usage in a negotiation process

The predominant L1 usage present in the corpus occurred when the participants were solving traditional tasks. It should be noted that only the groups that had a noteworthy amount of L1

usage were included in this analysis. All groups had L1 production to some extent when solving the tasks, but the L1 production in groups 2 and 3 was minimal in comparison to the L1 production made by groups 1 and 4 in the traditional task segment. For group 4 in particular, having 65 L1 tokens is quite staggering when considering that their total L2 token count amounts to 166 in the traditional context. However, both of these groups had a drastic decrease in the quantity of L1 production when solving the TBLT tasks. Group 1 manages to completely avoid using their L1, and group 4 limits their L1 usage to only 18 tokens.

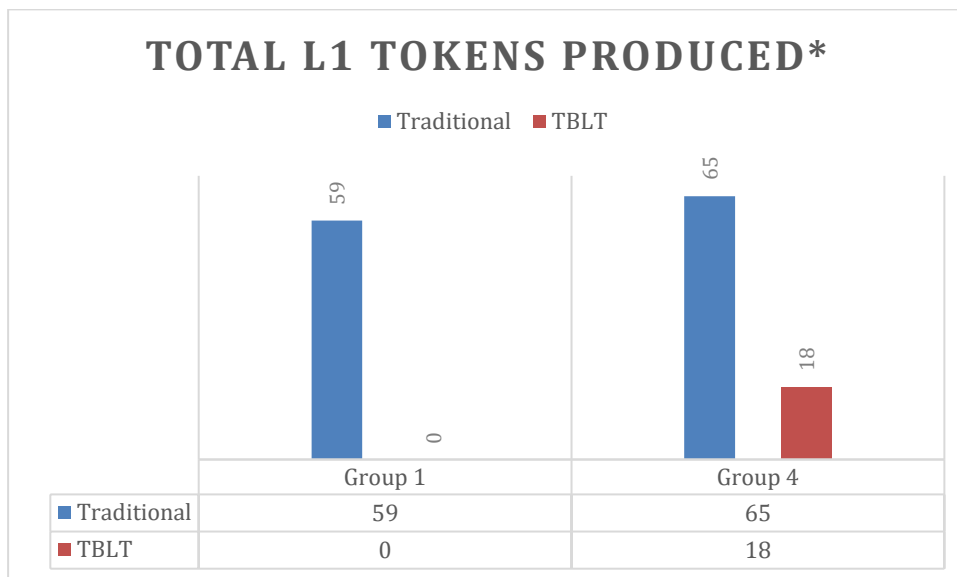


Figure 12 (Total L1 tokens produced. *Only the groups with a noteworthy amount of L1 production was included.)

While the results that L1 use was almost completely omitted in the TBLT tasks might seem advantageous at first glance, an analysis of the occurrences of L1 usage in the traditional tasks illustrate a role for the L1 in adapting a learner’s interlanguage.

```
Linn: Task two. <Reading: Use the internet to find the origin of the following English Words.> Zombie
Linn: <L1: Så, skal vi søke?>
Linn: Origin, is that <L1: definisjon?>
Linn: Hope so... Zombie... Origin
Linn: <L1: Åja, er det hvor det er fra?>
John: I dont know, maybe.
Linn: <L1 [To researcher]: Kan vi spørre deg om det? Hva er> origin.
Linn: <L1: Hvor det er fra?>
Cath: <L1: Det originale ordet. For eksempel> Pyjamas <L1: var vel> garment <L1: eller noe slikt.>
Linn: Ok.
```

Figure 13: Excerpt 7 (L1 usage in group 4 in relation to negotiation.)

Excerpt 7 illustrates an exchange where group 4 struggles to process the lexical item “origin”, and as a result default to using their L1 to fill this gap of understanding. Through the learners in group 4 being exposed to the lexical item “origin”, which was both unknown to them and

essential for solving the task, they were forced to consciously surmise the meaning of the item. As a result, they revert to using their L1, which ultimately results in a common understanding regarding the meaning of this item. Thus, L1 usage becomes an intrinsic part of a negotiation process. Subsequently, one can hypothesise that the L1 use being omitted in the TBLT task might be indicative of missing negotiation-work where the learners have to use the L1 as a means of interlanguage adaptation.

4.2.2 Negotiations, or lack thereof

Overall, the findings in this study seem to corroborate the findings made by Foster (1998), as the negotiation-work in the TBLT tasks seems to be all but missing save for a few instances. Surprisingly, the increased levels of interactivity and L2 production, which has been established in research question 1, has had no effect whatsoever in facilitating negotiation for meaning. When looking for instances of negotiation-work, it is key to locate interactions where learners either signal misunderstanding or has it brought to their attention, which in turn provokes adjustments to their speech to restore mutual intelligibility (Long, 1996, p. 418). There are only a few such instances in the TBLT segment where participants actively attempt a negotiation process, of which the following instance is the most exemplary.

```
Jen: The beat is at two and four, <L1: Etterslag>, in Norwegian.  
I don't know if you know what that means. Yeah.  
Pete: Afterbeat?  
Tom: Afterbeat.  
Jen: Afterbeat. The beat is at one, two, three, four.
```

Figure 14: Excerpt 8 (Negotiation for meaning occurring in group 2 during a TBLT task.)

The excerpt clearly illustrates a simplistic negotiation-process occurring from the Jen being unaware of the lexeme “afterbeat”. Pete and Tom provide a correction to Jen’s knowledge gap, and she adapts her interlanguage by repeating the word. However, only having a few negotiations to analyse in the TBLT tasks is quite damning given that this study includes roughly 24 minutes of conversations and over 1600 spoken words for this task segment. The vast majority of these interactions seem to be void of negotiations to an even greater degree than Foster details in her study. Needless to say, there are key differences between these two studies, for instance the dyad structure which served as a prominent as a facilitator of negotiations (Foster, 1998, p. 17-18), which does account for the slightly diverging results.

However, the key finding remains the same for both my and Foster's study; in a classroom context, learners seemingly avoid negotiation processes even in interaction rich environments.

Contrary to my initial prediction, the number of negotiations seem to be roughly equal between the traditional tasks and the TBLT tasks. The handful of occurrences in which miscommunications force negotiations in the traditional task segment is related to the complex lexical items which the participants had to know in order to complete the tasks. In this regard, the traditional tasks differed greatly from the TBLT ones, as knowledge of the task-vocabulary was paramount. For instance, one cannot provide a definition for a word that one does not know, and likewise it is difficult to find a word's origin without knowledge of what 'origin' means. Difficulties surrounding task-vocabulary is something which both forced negotiations and L1 use in order for the interlanguages of the participants to be altered to the point where solving the traditional tasks became feasible.

```
Cath: Pyjamas  
John: What is pyjamas?  
Cath: Was garments before became pyjamas or something.  
Linn: <Nonsense word>: Scarmitts?  
Cath: <L1: Nei.> Garments.  
John: Garments.  
Linn: Ok.
```

Figure 15: Excerpt 9 (Negotiation for meaning occurring in group 4 during a traditional task.)

In this excerpt, the participants have been asked to find the etymology of the lexeme 'pyjamas'. A string of misunderstandings occur as Cath attempts to use another lexeme, 'garments', to explain the word to John. Linn tries to replicate 'garments' and produces the erroneous form 'Scarmitts'. Cath provides negative evidence by correcting Linn with the correct form, 'garments', once more. The other two group members affirm the correction: John through repeating the word, and Linn through a confirmation word. As such, there is evidence of the task-vocabulary forcing the participants to engage in a negotiation process. However, as with the TBLT tasks, such a process occurs very infrequently when considering the total production and are quite superficial in nature.

Even the limited instances of negotiation which does occur in this study have a questionable value in terms of acquisition. The problem of assessing whether negotiations actually further language learning is certainly not unique to this study (Gass, 1997/2011, p. 126). The lasting impact of interlanguage change as a result of modifications is very difficult

to ascertain without long-lasting studies (Pica, 1992, p. 226-227). However, given the quite superficial nature of the occurrences of negotiation for meaning in my study, it is even more questionable that there were acquisitions from on them. Not all negotiation processes are equally facilitative of learners reformulating their utterances in a process of adapting their interlanguage and “pushing” their output (Long, 1996 p. 449). For instance, should a learner merely provide a confirmation word to a miscommunication as can be seen in excerpt 9, where ‘Linn’ fails to produce the lexeme “garments”, then no actual modification has occurred, and the exchange is quite unlikely that to have led to acquisition. The key principle behind the interaction hypothesis is that modified input provided by a competent speaker should be tailored to aid a less competent speaker in being conscious of the forms and functions of a language (Long, 1996, p. 451-452). However, there is a complete lack of modified input made by the interlocutors in this study. When faced with the simple miscomputations, the interlocutors opt to repeat what they said, as in excerpt 9, rather than modify it. A factor which highlights this dubious acquisitional value can be exemplified by the fact that the lexemes which are negotiated for in this study never re-occurs. For instance, Linn never uses the word “garments” and Jen never uses the word “afterbeat” after they both completed their superficial negotiation processes. While this is not a definite proof that these two participants did not acquire these lexemes as a result of the negotiations, it does further place doubt regarding the value of the few superficial negotiations which does take place in the corpus.

Instances of more comprehensive, and presumably more acquisition rich, negotiation-work, which could have been expected to be present in these tasks, can be found in relevant literature. To highlight how simplistic the examples of negotiations are in my results, I will provide an excerpt from research which has been previously conducted on this subject.

NS	NNS
With a small pat of butter on it and above the plate above yeah	Hm hmm what is buvdaplate? above the plate

Table 2 (adapted from Pica, 1992, p. 225)

Firstly, in the figure provided by Pica there is a genuine breakdown in communications which *has* to be restored in order to convey meaning. Not knowing the lexeme “afterbeat” as in excerpt 8, for instance, is not equally vital for the transfer of meaning; it did not actually cause disruption of communication. Secondly, the non-native speaker in this excerpt modifies their output upon receiving a correction. Linn in excerpt 9 merely uses a confirmation word upon being corrected. This is not a modification of her output, but rather just an acknowledgement of error. As such, it is clear that the instances of negotiation in my study are superficial at best, and useless for the purpose of language acquisition at worst.

4.2.3 Why did so few negotiations occur?

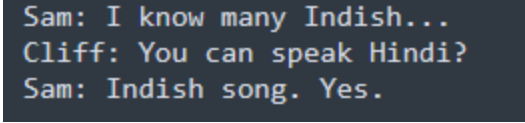
Naturally the question arises why negotiations in this study were absent in the interaction rich environment fostered by TBI. The findings as presented here seem to run counter to the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996, p. 451-452) and the notion that pushed output will lead to negotiations (Swain, 1985, p. 248-249). Thus, we will establish some factors that may have served to limit the overall negotiations and propose methods in which task-design can be accommodated to facilitate negotiations in an instructional setting based on the observations made in this study.

In order for negotiation-work to be conducted, it is paramount that learners are willing to recognise and provided negative feedback to erroneous speech. Whether there is a failure in noticing or an aversion to pointing out errors in peer-to-peer conversations is difficult to determine. A lack of noticing can often simply stem from learners focusing solely on deciphering meaning, rather than paying attention to the form of interlocutor’s speech.

Often individuals are so absorbed by the goal of extracting meaning from what another is saying that they can put no time or effort into the form of the conversation. That is, the conversational trouble is glossed over rather quickly and serves only the immediate function of interpreting another’s intention (Gass, 1997/2011, p. 115).

Another effect which yields the same result is the desire to avoid conflict by indirectly providing negative feedback. There are numerous instances of wrong lingual forms being used by participants in the TBLT tasks, but these receive indirect negative feedback, which is not processed by the interlocutor, are ignored by the interlocutor for one reason or another, or

simply goes unnoticed. A telling instance of indirect feedback which is not processed can be illustrated by the exchange between Cliff and Sam regarding the Hindi language.



```
Sam: I know many Indish...  
Cliff: You can speak Hindi?  
Sam: Indish song. Yes.
```

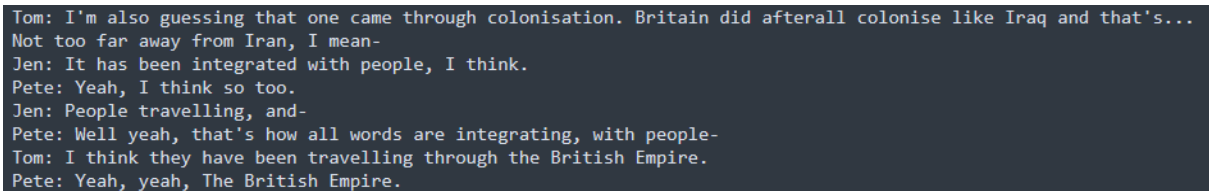
Figure 16: Excerpt 10 (Cliff and Sam use different lexemes to refer to the same language.)

When Sam uses the incorrect word ‘Indish’, Cliff is aware that an error has been committed as he responds with the correct form ‘Hindi’ as a form of indirect negative feedback. However, no attempt is made to make Sam directly aware of his error, which thus manifests as Sam repeating the incorrect word once more as opposed to the correction made by Cliff. As a consequence, the premise of negotiation-work is not present, and the opportunity for Sam adapting his interlanguage is lost. On the whole, if TBLT, or any teaching approach, is unable to ensure that interlocutors in a classroom environment provide negative evidence, then the premise of the interaction hypothesis seems to be uncertain.

The surprising lack of negotiation for meaning in TBLT tasks might stem from the task-design allowing the participants to avoid troublesome linguistic features. In hindsight it might have been hubris to assume that interactivity alone might be sufficient in facilitating instances of miscommunications leading to negotiation. As has been stated, some instances of negotiation found in the traditional tasks stem from the difficult lexical items which the participants were pushed to decipher as part of the tasks. There was no way in avoiding using these lexical items in the traditional tasks. It is possible that avoidance served as a key factor in the lack of negotiation-work in the TBLT segment. The free structure of these tasks, which was largely based on arriving at a consensus, allowed the participants to freely choose which linguistic L2 items to use, and which to abstain from. There may be a correlation to the factor of avoidance represented in the comparison between the total and unique token count; the growth in total tokens did not correlate with an equal growth in unique tokens. The suggestion is thus that the free structure of the tasks might have served to lessen the lexical complexity required to solve them.

Another factor which might have influenced the lack of negotiation stems from a number of pupils in this study having a good degree of L2 proficiency resulting in less miscommunications occurring, thus never triggering the need for negotiations. The

participants in study were by no means novice English-speakers. As they were all in their first year of upper-secondary school, these pupils had roughly 10 years of prior instructed English teaching. Tom and Pete are examples of pupils who had a particularly good grasp of English; even bordering on native-like performance.



Tom: I'm also guessing that one came through colonisation. Britain did afterall colonise like Iraq and that's...
Not too far away from Iran, I mean-
Jen: It has been integrated with people, I think.
Pete: Yeah, I think so too.
Jen: People travelling, and-
Pete: Well yeah, that's how all words are integrating, with people-
Tom: I think they have been travelling through the British Empire.
Pete: Yeah, yeah, The British Empire.

Figure 17: Excerpt 11 (Group 2 consisted of proficient English speakers.)

The lack of negotiation-work amongst pupils like Tom and Pete may be attributed to their proficiency preventing any miscommunications from occurring in the first place. Such an explanation would be in line with observations made by Pica: “Frequently, topics and referents are so mutually familiar that learners and interlocutors are confronted with few communication breakdowns in their discourse” (1992, p. 203).

However, a quite opposite factor might stem from less proficient pupils simply attempting to circumvent the need for negotiation by not attempting to fully understand what the interlocutors were saying in the first place. Contrary to a dyad structure, having groups of 3 participants allows for some participants to remain silent. In an environment like a classroom where youths may have uncertain relationships to each other, signifying one’s lack of understanding might be a great hurdle (Gass 1997/2011, p. 123). It is not at all unthinkable that the dominant action when faced with misunderstandings was inaction; withdrawing from the conversation until the problem is solved. A similar proposal is made by Foster as an explanation for the lack of negotiation-work: “The fact that in the data for this study there were so few signals of problems of understanding (...) indicates that the students may have been predisposed to adopt the strategy of 'pretend and hope', rather than the strategy of 'check and clarify'” (1998, p. 18-19). It can be hypothesised that a dyad structure as opposed to having 3 person groups would have made a ‘pretending and hope’ or silence strategies more difficult to engage in for the participants in my study. As a result, the participants not bringing their knowledge gap forth in a conversation bypasses the entire need for negotiations if the task-design does not have innate mechanisms to test for it.

A more significant factor still regarding the absence of negotiation in the TBLT segment, is that these tasks were not designed specifically to facilitate instances of negotiation for meaning. As this study illustrates, there is no guarantee that TBLT will push learners to initiate negotiation-work, regardless of interaction. Foster makes the following observation, which runs slightly counter to my findings: “We have noted that it is difficult for a student to remain quiet when in a dyad, and when the task design imposes an obligation to transfer and obtain information it may be hard to avoid negotiation” (1998, p. 14). Although the task design did require the participants in my study to transfer information, there is a need to be conscious of exactly *what* the task-design requires the participants to transfer, and to be aware of the mechanisms that have to be in place in order for this transfer to take place. For task 1 - the musical analysis - there was no innate mechanism to cause a mismatch if the participants gave incorrect answers. The participants were not pushed to give a correct, and complete, answers to the task if they felt content with their answers. The state of being content with whatever solution or answer that is presented (which was a rampant occurrence across all tasks) is a sign of aversion to engage in a negotiation process.

4.3 Pedagogic implications

The key findings which are of probable interest for a language instructor is that tasks within a task-based framework can better motivate pupils to speak in the target language than traditional tasks. As my results illustrate, the participating pupils in the study universally found this task-design to be more motivating, spoke in total far more when solving them, and had a tangentially slightly more diverse vocabulary. Unlike the criticism leveraged by Seedhouse (1999, p. 153-154), there is little to no evidence in the corpus that ‘pidginised’ language occurs when learners are faced with TBLT tasks. If anything, there are less instances of such language in the TBLT tasks than in the traditional ones, as they were not tied to the context of a linguistic syllabus. While a myriad of factors may contribute to both motivation and production in TBLT, there are some points which are worth mentioning when discussing the positive data presented here. These tasks were designed on the basis of the needs that the music pupils had for the English language, in line with Long’s proposal (1985, 2005), and it was based on their pre-existing knowledge on the field, which is tied to Ellis’ 3rd criteria for a *task* (2009, p. 223). It is probable that this aspect of TBLT was highly motivating for the pupils, and thus enabled more L2 speech. The different results presented by Poupore (2013)

can to some degree be explained by these considerations in the task-design for my tasks. Adopting such an interpretation of task-design is something which ought to be emulated by language instructors if they desire to best facilitate output and interaction in their classroom.

However, as the lack of negotiation for meaning in the corpus illustrates, interactivity alone is not a sufficient prerequisite for negotiation to occur. My findings corroborate those made by Foster (1998) that getting pupils to negotiate in a classroom environment is difficult. Even when miscommunications, gaps in knowledge, or glaring errors in morphosyntax occur in an interactive environment, there is an overall tendency for pupils to be hesitant to directly intervene and engage in negotiation-work. As Pica notes: "Negotiation is not inevitable when learners and interlocutors engage in social interaction" (1992, p. 203). As Sam and Cliff's encounter with the nomenclature of Indian languages exemplifies, the threshold to point out errors in the speech of a fellow pupil might be quite high. Despite the findings that negotiations were absent or superficial, it would be too hasty in my view to dismiss the interaction hypothesis and the benefits of modified speech on the basis of my results. While the tasks were interactive, they primarily relied on achieving a consensus, and were not designed to facilitate negotiation-work. As a consequence, a language teacher has to be aware that merely having pupils speak to each other and interact in a natural way is not necessarily sufficient if the task-design itself does not have mechanisms to ensure a negotiation-process.

If a language teacher wishes to enable negotiation for meaning during peer-to-peer interaction, the task-design itself must be tailored to do so. I will propose three means in which a teacher can better design tasks to trigger negotiation-work based on my findings. 1) The task itself must be centred around a negotiation process. Information gap tasks, for instance, may be especially suited for this, as the correct exchange of information is necessary to complete the task. This differs from a consensus task, where the pupils themselves are freer to decide which answer is apt and may thus circumvent the need for negotiation. 2) There are mechanisms which cause a mismatch should a task be solved superficially. A mismatch is an intuitive way of providing negative evidence to learners, which in turn may trigger a negotiation-process. Mechanisms that cause mismatches can include a direct intervention from the instructor, in other words that pupils report their answers to the teacher for feedback. They can also be given a form after solving a task which contains elements that their answers should have contained, and if any are omitted, the pupils have to revise their answer. 3) A dyad structure will be better suited for negotiations, as the structure of having two pupils

interact will not allow for anyone to ‘disappear’ in a conversation as a result of a desire to avoid problematic linguistic functions or to show that one has a gap in information.

4.4 Limitations and further research

A key factor which limits the applicability of this research is that it was solely concerned with task-design, as opposed to comparatively analysing and evaluating the effectiveness of a course designed around a traditional synthetic linguistic syllabus and an analytic task-based syllabus. In essence, this study consists solely of two 10–12-minute sessions over two days and just tested how the pupils solved a handful of tasks in order to see their interaction and output. The amount of pre-task work was very limited, and I had close to no control over the pre-existing knowledge that the participants had before starting the tasks. Ideally, future researchers will be able to make up for the shortcomings in this study by running two entire courses, spanning a few weeks each at least, in a task-based and traditional fashion. The task segment – based on the research conducted here – ought thus to be a culmination of each course. This would allow for a larger comparative analysis of the effectiveness of TBLT and traditional teaching approaches by examining the results with similar parameters as those in my methodology.

Another limiting factor to this study is that it did not properly account for the different types of motivation which may have affected the levels of production. The discussion regarding the first research question has culminated with the finding that the task-design of TBLT is facilitative of quantity of output and also quality to a lesser degree. However, it is worth noting that my findings that TBLT facilitates quantity but not necessarily quality of output, coincide with the findings made by Kormos & Dörnyei (2004) regarding the role of motivation in communicative tasks. Should the task-based segment have been more motivating for reasons other than merely being task-based, then the data at hand may be wrongly interpreted. For instance, the increase in motivation for production in the second task sequence might not at all have been conducive of *task attitude*, but rather an increase in *course attitude* as a result of the participants becoming familiar with the testing environment, to their fellow group members, and to me as the researcher. The self-reported motivation asked the participants to rate the task, but it is very doubtful that they would have been able to make the conscious distinction between task and course attitude; they might not have

distinguished the task from the context of the task. As a consequence, the increase in quantitative production may not necessarily be attributed to the task attitude being better in the encounter with the TBLT tasks as opposed to the traditional tasks. Further research will be needed to affirm the motivational aspect of TBLT which goes beyond merely investigating task-design, but also encompasses course-design. If the former proposal for further research is adhered to, one would be able to have the participants rate both the course as a whole, and the individual tasks to better catalogue their motivation for L2 production.

4.5 Final thoughts

While the methodological choices were by and large well-grounded in my study, and mostly succeeded in acquiring the expected data, there are a few changes that could have yielded more interesting results. Investigating the effects of two different task-designs and how they influence motivation to speak, interact, and negotiate for meaning through a corpus analysis was productive and by and large conducive to what I wanted to test for. Conducting both a quantitative token analysis and qualitatively analysing excerpts from the corpus which supported the quantitative data, allowed for in-depth research on this topic and yielded results close to expectations. There are however some small details which could have been better accounted for by changes in group compositions and times of testing. In hindsight, it would have been of interest to see how the results from groups with 3 participants would have compared to results from an equal number of dyads with the same parameters as the groups in the study. In addition, while being a far greater undertaking, having another set of 4 groups go through the exact same testing, but with the TBLT tasks as the first segment, and the traditional tasks as the second segment, would have made it possible to account for changes in course attitude as well, and thus make my findings more reliable. The order of testing will remain a methodological problem for this study

For an aspiring researcher, attempting to tackle psycholinguistics through cataloguing and analysing voice recording has certainly been no easy feat. It is however my belief that through the trials and tribulations endured, the task-design of TBLT has gained a degree of greater empirical support and has been shown to have definite use in instructed teaching. If the aim is to get pupils to speak the target language to a greater extent in an instructed setting,

then I have illustrated that a task-based approach is facilitative of just this. This was my initial motivation for conducting this study, and it has remained as such throughout.

5 Summary

There are several key observations which can be extrapolated from this study which has key implications for the application of TBLT in a classroom context. Firstly, TBLT can be used to motivate pupils to speak more but may not necessarily make them produce a greater degree of lexical complexity. Secondly, TBLT is overall facilitative of pupil interaction. Thirdly, pupils find TBLT motivating if the tasks are relevant from a needs analysis perspective and if it relies on their prior knowledge to be solved. Fourthly, an increase in interaction and L2 production does not correlate with a greater degree of negotiation for meaning occurring. Should a language teacher desire to facilitate negotiation-work, the task-design itself must be specifically tailored for this. This comparative analysis of the performance of tasks within a traditional and task-based methodology has served to provide TBLT with a greater degree of empirical support, whilst also problematising certain aspects of its theoretical grounding, such as the interaction hypothesis. It is a hope of mine that this study will provide instructors with some key observations from which to better inform their pedagogic choices, which in turn might make it slightly easier to get pupils to speak the target language when solving tasks.

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Appendix

5.1 Traditional task segment

Task 1:

Find verbs in the paragraph on colonisation that have the same meaning as:

- a. Grow, become larger
- b. Come, set foot
- c. Do away with
- d. Make it, not die
- e. Do well, have success

In your group, make definitions for the following words without using the internet:

Discover, trade, settle, influence, lingua franca

Task 2:

Use the internet to find the origin of the following English words:

zombie, pyjamas, moose

How do you think that these words from cultures across the globe have been integrated into the English language, and why?

Come to a consensus in your group: On a scale from 1 to 10, how enjoyable was solving these tasks?

5.2 TBLT task segment

Task 1:

Listen to the first 50 seconds of the song “Three Little Birds” by Bob Marley on YouTube or Spotify. [This was done prior to starting the task]

Try to answer the following questions to the best of your ability.

- What genre of music do you think this song belongs to, and what country is the genre associated with?
- Using what you know about musical theory, what do you think are the most striking aspects of this song? – Is it typical of its genre?

Task 2:

Your city is hosting an international day which will consist of festivities from around the world. Your group has been tasked to arrange a musical show where you show off music from the English-speaking world.

Plan a song or two inspired by an English-speaking country (or several) which you want to represent in your show:

You can think about the following points to help you plan:

- What country should have their music presented in your show?
- What instruments will you need to play your song?
- What do you think would be typical to a song from your chosen country?
- Do you want to choose an existing song, or create your own?

Come to a consensus in your group: On a scale from 1 to 10, how enjoyable was solving these tasks?

5.3 Corpus

5.3.1 Traditional tasks

<Group 1: Cliff, Amy, and Sam>

Amy: <L1: Skal vi finne det ordet inni der?>

Cliff: Yeah, find the word.

Researcher: And try to use English.

Amy: Yeah.

Cliff: So grow, become larger, is just expand.

Amy: Yeah.

Cliff: Come...

Amy: Be...

Cliff: And... Come set foot.

Amy: <L1: det der eller?>

Cliff: Yeah...

Sam: Arrived. It says...

Cliff: Yeah, come set foot, arrived.

Amy: <L1: Hvor står det?>

Cliff: It says right with colonisers at the end.

Amy: See

Cliff: Do away with

Amy: Do away with?

Cliff: yeah.

Amy: Ok.

Cliff: Probably used <unintelligable>.

Amy: <L1: Kanskje du skal si det litt høyere så de hører>.

Cliff: Do away with.

Amy: Do away with?

Cliff: Yeah.

Amy: <L1: Og hva... hvordan av de var det?>

Cliff: I guess dispose.

Amy: Dispose.

Cliff: Disposed the primitives.

Amy: <L1: Ja.>

Amy: Make it, not die.

Cliff: Survive, it's...

Amy: Do well, have success.

Sam: Thrive.

Cliff: Thrive, yeah, that seems right.

Cliff: <Reading: Make definitions for the following words...>

Cliff: Discover, to find something that hasn't been found.

Amy: Yeah, or, yeah.

Amy: <L1: Må vi søke på internett?>

Cliff: Without using the internet.

Amy: <L1: Hæ?>

Cliff: It's without using the internet.

Amy: <L1: Å ja, trodde du sa> with.

Amy: Trade, to switch things.

Cliff: Yeah.

Amy: And borrow each other's things, maybe.

Cliff: Trade in equal feature of things, yeah.

Cliff: Settle... Like when you move you have to settle in at your new place.

Amy: Yeah, so move in maybe. Or settle down?

Cliff: You can use the environment around-

Amy: To relax.

Amy: Influence...

Cliff: Influence...

Amy: That is when someone gets affected-

Cliff: Yeah.

Amy: By others.

Cliff: Or something, yeah.

Amy: Yeah.

Amy: Lingua Franca- I don't know.

Cliff: Was it like... language of the world or something?

Amy: So-

Cliff: I... I don't know.

Amy: World language?

Cliff: I guess, yeah.

Cliff: Last lesson we had a...

Amy: <L1: Står veldig mye i teksten ja.>

<Transcription pauses>

Amy: <L1: Skal vi begynne på task 2?>

Cliff: <Reading: Use the internet to...>

Amy: Zombie. Origin.

Amy: <L1: Hva betyr det?>

Cliff: It's like where it's from.

Cliff: Ok, so it's from West Africa from the early 19th century. Yeah.

Amy: Pyjamas.

Cliff: Pyjamas...

Cliff: Yeah, from the... also from the early 19th century from Urdu or Persian, yeah.

Amy: Is that a country?

Cliff: No, it's the language.

Amy: <L1: Å ja.>

Cliff: It's like a middle eastern language, I think.

Cliff: Moose... Moose is from the 7th century from Eastern Abanaki.

Cliff: I don't know... where that is from.

Cliff: <Reading: How do you think that these words cultures across the globe have been integrated into English language, and why?>

Cliff: Probably because of the colonisation that we have just read about.

Amy: Yeah

Cliff: And why?

Amy: Because maybe they couldn't find another word, so they use another language.

Cliff: Yeah-

Amy: To say these things

Cliff: Yeah, other things that in England they didn't have... So they didn't have words for them

Cliff: Yeah...

<Group 2: Jen, Tom, and Pete>

Jen: <Reading: Find verbs in the paragraph on colonisation that have the same meaning as grow and become larger.>

Tom: Expand, means-

Jen: In the text, <Tom>.

Tom: Yes, expand is in the text.

Jen: Yes.

Tom: Where is it-

Jen: Expand-

Tom: There, expand it is in the text.

Tom: <Reading: Want to expand their power.>

Jen: Is there anymore?

Pete: Spread?

Tom: I guess.

Jen: How many is it supposed to be, <Researcher>?

<Researcher: It's just supposed to be one.>

Pete: Come set foot, the next one-

Jen: Then we are done with that one.

Pete: Ok.

Jen: Come, set foot, it's-

Tom: Is it like arrive or something somewhere?

Pete: <unintelligible>

Pete: Arrived, it's says... arrive, it's there.

Jen: Yeah, arrived, and then-

Tom/Pete: Yes.

Jen: Do away with.

Pete: Do away with? Probably the people they sent to Australia. Dispose!

Tom: Make it, not die.

Pete: Make it, not die.

Tom: Survive, maybe it says survive somewhere.

Pete: Right yeah, like we're making it, yeah, yeah, yeah. To survive anew, yes. And where was survive again?

Jen: Do well and have success.

Pete: Prosperity?

Tom: Yeah, that's pretty similar.

Pete: Yeah.

Tom: Yeah.

Jen: <Reading: In your group, make definition for the following words without using the internet.>

Jen: Discover.

Pete: To see something new.

Tom: Yeah, basically.

Jen: Yeah. Trade to-

Tom: That would be to-

Jen: Switch.

Tom: Exchange items or currency.

Jen: Give to each other.

Tom: Give to each other for the wealth of both parties.

Pete: Settle-

Tom: According to the parties at least.

Tom: To settle would be to, to go and, and basically inhabit an area, so that, let's say like I go and build a house somewhere, then I guess I am settling that area, if I am doing that in the countryside where no one lives.

Jen: Influence.

Pete: To have an effect on something-

Jen: Yes-

Pete: To, to change something, or to make a difference there.

Pete: Lingua Franca! It is the primary-

Tom: Yeah.

Pete Language.

Tom: The common language which is just usually a second language for people.

<Transcription pauses>

Jen: <Reading: Use internet to find the origin of the following->

Pete: Should we do task two as well?

<Researcher: Yeah>

Pete: Ok.

Jen: Zombie.

Pete: Oh my God.

Pete: It's from Brazil by the <unintelligible>...

Pete: <Reading: Afro-Brazilian rebel leader made Zombie and the etymology of the, of his name in Nazambi>

Jen: That is not what I thought it would be.

Pete: <Reading: Afro-Brazilian rebel leader...>

Pete: Yeah ok, of his name in Nazambi?

Jen: <Reading: And why, how has these word->

Tom: We also have to do pyjamas and moose.

Pete: Yeah, pyjamas.

Jen: <Reading: How has it been integrated into the English language.>

Tom: I'm guessing it comes from like India or something.

Pete: It came from-

Jen: No, the word Zombie, how did it integrate in English language, <Tom>?

Tom: How did it integrate? I'm not sure how it integrate, but I think it's through a long process of the word being used by people.

Jen: Zombie, we are not done with the Zombie yet. We didn't answer the task.

Tom: No, but we're not done with Pyjamas and Moose <unintelligible>.

Jen: We have to do it.

Tom: Ok.

Jen: <Reading: The word is to be believed of West-African origin and was brought to Haiti by slaves from that region.>

Tom: Yeah, I'm guessing it came through colonisation then to the language-

Jen: It came from the Voodoo religion.

Pete: Damn.

Tom: That's a religion?

Pete: Yeah.

Tom: Didn't know that. Kinda cool.

Pete: Pyjamas, that was like a Persian and Indian-

Jen: From Urdu and Persian.

Pete: Yeah.

Jen: From-

Tom: I'm guessing-

Jen: Pale leg clothing.

Tom: I'm also guessing that one came through colonisation. Britain did after all colonise like Iraq and that's...

Not too far away from Iran, I mean-

Jen: It has been integrated with people, I think.

Pete: Yeah, I think so too.

Jen: People travelling, and-

Pete: Well yeah, that's how all words are integrating, with people-

Tom: I think they have been travelling through the British Empire.

Pete: Yeah, yeah, The British Empire.

Tom: Because of colonisation. Meaning that if the British Empire didn't colonise this much, perhaps words such as Zombie and Pyjamas would not have been part of the English... English language.

<Group 3: Finn, May, and Jess>

May: <Reading: Find the verbs in the paragraph on colonisation that have the same meaning as grow, become larger>.

Jess: Do what?

May: Yes.

Jess: Yes?

May: Grow, become larger... Develop? I don't know.

Finn: Yeah... <unintelligible>.

Finn: Expanded.

May: Expanded, right.

Finn: <Reading: The speed in which the British Empire expanded was quite astonishing.>

May: How nice.

May: Ok, come, set foot.

Finn: It may be on the top text.

Jess: Probably.

<Transcription pauses>

May: Arrived, I don't know.

Jess: You found something?

Finn: No.

May: No.

Finn: We have no idea.

May: We have no clue, but can you use like <Reading: since they arrived with practically no clue how to survive in the New World.>

Finn: Yes. Did you hear that.

May: Did you hear it? I hope you heard it. Ok, that's great. Ok, do away with. Wait damn, what? Do away with?

Finn: Do away with.

May: Do away with.

Finn: Like, what would that be in Norwegian?

May: <L1: Gjøre om med, om på, null...>

May: Make it, not die, do well, have success. Ok, well, what? Survive...

Finn: Yes.

May: No. Have you found something, <Jess>?

Jess: No.

May: Too bad.

Finn: We are fucked... No, just kidding.

May: We aren't done, don't worry... we're just stupid... No.

Finn: Yes.

May: That is-

Finn: Yeah, just stupid.

<Transcription pauses>

May: Ok.

Finn: Make it, not die.

May: Like, to survive?

Finn: Yes.

May: Probably.

Finn: But where is that in the text?

May: Somewhere, I hope...

Finn: Maybe thrive?

May: Drive to survive.

Finn: Make it out.

May: Yeah, thrive, of course.

Finn: Yeah, thrive.

May: <Reading: The colonies were->

Finn: <Reading: The colonies were able to thrive.>

May: Yes, and then there is do well, have success. Global power... I don't know.

Finn: Yes.

May: Yes, yes.

Finn: Yes.

May: Ok, are we supposed to do task two?

<Researcher: Yes.>

Finn: Shit.

May: In six minutes! Oh my God.

Finn: We have used our six minutes.

May: It's fine. Ok, ok, wait, we should do this too. Discover, trade, settle, influence, Lingua Franca. No clue what that last one is.

Finn: Find the origin, fuck.

<Group 4: John, Cath, and Linn>

John: I don't understand.

Cath: <L1: Hva slags oppgave?>

Linn: <L1: Er det oppgaven, det her?>

Linn: <Reading: Find verbs in the paragraph on colonisation that have the same meaning as-

Linn: <L1: Å nei.>

Linn: Grow.

John: Overcrowded.

Cath: Expand.

Linn: Yeah, expand.

Linn: <L1: Og hva var neste ord?>

John: Come, set foot...

John: Establish.

Cath: Establish?

Linn: Do away with... Do away with-

Linn: <L1: Er neste.>

John: Is that independent?

Cath: Perhaps.

John: Yeah...

Linn: Make it, not die.

Cath: Survive.

Linn: Survive.

John: Survive.

Linn: Do well, have success. Succeed.

Cath: Thrive.

Linn: <L1: Nå leter vi ikke i teksten da.>

Cath: Thrive.

Linn: Thrive.<L1: ja.>

Linn: <Reading: In your group, make definitions for the following words.>

Linn: Ok, discover. To find something.

John: Yeah.

Cath: To find or learn something.

John: Trade, switch.

Linn: Yeah.

Cath: Yeah.

John: Settle-

Linn: Is to-

John: Establish.

Linn: Yeah. To- Yeah.

John: Influence.

Linn: To...

Cath: Convince someone.

Linn: Yeah or...

John: Yeah.

Linn: Say something that may... affect.

Cath: Their opinion.

Linn: Lingua Franc... Franca. Isn't that-

Cath: World language.

Linn: Yeah, world language. Okie dokie. Task <L1: to>.

Cath: Task <L1: to>

<Transcription pauses>

Linn: Task two. <Reading: Use the internet to find the origin of the following English Words.> Zombie

Linn: <L1: Så, skal vi søke?>

Linn: Origin, is that <L1: definisjon>?

Linn: Hope so... Zombie... Origin

Linn: <L1: Åja, er det hvor det er fra?>

John: I dont know, maybe.

Linn: <L1 [To researcher]: Kan vi spørre deg om det? Hva er> origin.

Linn: <L1: Hvor det er fra?>

Cath: <L1: Det originale ordet. For eksempel> Pyjamas <L1: var vel> garment <L1: eller noe slikt.>

Linn: Ok.

John: Moose.

Cath: Yeah.

John: What is moose?

Linn: Zombie... <unintelligible word>.

John: Eastern- <L1: Hva faen>, Eastern Abanaki, early 17th century, Moose.

Linn: It says, zombi, with an i. So ok, zombie, zombi.

Linn: Moose, what does it say?

John: Moss

Linn: Moss

Linn: And?

Cath: Pyjamas

John: What is pyjamas?

Cath: Was garments before became pyjamas or something.

Linn: <Nonsense word>: Scarmitts?

Cath: <L1: Nei.> Garments.

John: Garments.

Linn: Ok.

Linn: <Reading: How do you think these words from different cultures across the globe has been integrated into the English language, and why?>

Linn: Because they were much cooler words. I don't know.

Cath: Super swag.

Linn: Maybe more similar to other languages.

5.3.2 TBLT tasks

<Group 1: Cliff, Amy, and Sam>

Cliff: Ok

Cliff: <Reading: What genre of music do you think this sample of->

Sam: You speak too... too low.

Cliff: It's... it's reggae. Reggae music, isn't it, from Jamaica?

Cliff: The genre of this music from Bob Marley, isn't it reggae?

Sam: Jamaican pop.

Cliff: Jamaican pop, yeah.

Sam: <What country is the genre associated with?>

Sam: Africa... Jamaica.

Cliff: It's... Jamaican from the Caribbean.

Sam: Pirates.

Cliff: Pirates, do you think so?

Sam: <Reading: Using what you know about musical theory what you think are the most striking aspects of this song?>

Cliff: Striking aspects <unintelligible>.

Sam: The drums.

Cliff: Interesting rhythm.

Sam: The drums give us a location of the song.

Cliff: Is it just mostly drums, and singing?

Sam: Drums, singing and abstract noises.

Cliff: Abstract noises?

Sam: Make the African... song genre.

Cliff: Yeah, maybe. Ok.

Sam: Task two.

Cliff: Task two.

Sam: <Reading: My city is hosting an international day which will consist of festivities from around the world. My group has been tasked to arrange a musical show where you show off music from the English-speaking world.>

Cliff: Ok.

Sam: A song? Here's a little song I wrote...

Cliff: I mean... So like it's an English song?

Amy: English-speaking country.

Cliff: Yeah.

Amy: A song.

Cliff: A national anthem, or I don't know.

Sam: Jamaica speak English... So we can take <unintelligible name>-

Cliff: <unintelligible name>?

Sam: To present Jamaica.

Cliff: We could also take something from New Zealand, or Australia.

Sam: No they don't speak English, they speak Australian.

Cliff: Ok.

May: We could take England.

Cliff: Yeah.

Sam: They speak Englandish, not English... Jamaica.

Cliff: India.

Amy: But didn't they take Jamaica? Through the verse.

Sam: No, Bob Marley not Jamaican.

Amy: Yeah, but wasn't that what you said?

Cliff: What about India? Because they have-

Sam: Ok, India.

Cliff: English as an official language. But the song is in like Hindi.

Sam: Ok.

Amy: Yeah.

Sam: Then we take... <Tunak Tu>.

Cliff: <Tunak Tu>? Wait, what do you mean?

Sam: <Attempts to recreate song>.

Amy: Sure.

Sam: We present Indian, we will need drums.

Cliff: Drums?

Sam: To play the song.

Cliff: Some...

Amy: Drums.

Sam: It's an existing song.

Cliff: Which instruments? What instruments do we need to play this song?

Sam: If we just get them all, we can plan it out.

Cliff: Just anything?

Sam: Yes, that's what India is about.

Cliff: Typical to a song from this country. Some... Indian music.

Sam: Indian language is often used in... in Indian music.

Cliff: But it... Indian <unintelligible> have multiple languages. It is around like, 400 or something.

Sam: Not anymore.

Cliff: Not anymore?

Sam: We narrow it down.

Cliff: Ok.

Sam: Yeah, we plan to play the song from Indian... Indian song.

Amy: Yes.

Cliff: Then we should take another song already since we don't know what the Indian art-

Sam: I know many Indish...

Cliff: You can speak Hindi?

Sam: Indish song. Yes.

<Transcription pauses>

Cliff: Another... another country.

Sam: Spain?

Cliff: They, they have Spanish as their official language.

Sam: Mexico?

Cliff: Mexico?

Sam: They have a lot immigrants.

Cliff: Do they have English?

Sam: They are neighbouring to America.

Cliff: But is English an official language?

Sam: It should be.

Cliff: It should be?

Sam: Yeah, and Spain has a lot of English settlers, because it's so cheap they move.

Cliff: So which... songs from Spain do you like then?

<Group 2: Jen, Tom, and Pete>

Jen: Ok, the genre of music, it is Reggae.

Pete: Yes.

Jen: And that's just because we know what Reggae is.

Pete: Yes.

Jen: Yes.

Pete: What country is it-

Jen: <Reading: Using what you know->

Pete: Reggaeton belongs to-

Jen: The genre is associated with Jamaica.

Pete: Yes.

Tom: Yeah.

Jen: And other Africa... African music.

Jen: <Reading: Using what you know about musical theory, what do you think are the most striking aspects of this song? Is it typical of it's genre?>

Tom: Yeah-

Pete: I think it is.

Tom: It is pretty typical. It's got very like slower like beat.

Jen: Yeah, and-

Tom: Like most Reggae singulars.

Jen: The beat is at two and four, <L1: Etterslag>, in Norwegian.

I don't know if you know what that means. Yeah.

Pete: Afterbeat?

Tom: Afterbeat.

Jen: Afterbeat. The beat is at one, two, three, four.

Jen: Ok, task two. <Reading: Your city is hosting an international day which will consist of festivities from around the world. Your group has been tasked to arrange a musical show where you show off music from the English-speaking world. Plan a song inspired by an English-speaking country which you want to represent in your show. You can think of the following points to help you plan. What country would... should their music presented in your show? Country should have?>

Pete: <Reading: What country should have their music presented in your show? What instruments?>

Jen: I think Australia, or New Zealand because you can... You know Māori music.

Pete: Yeah.

Jen: And they dance, and they do things.

Pete: Yeah. Yeah, yeah, yeah. That's... and obviously like America.

Tom: Yeah.

Pete: They're huge.

Tom: I think they speak... I mean, generally just pick one from a really like area, maybe like either Britain or the US. And maybe like two, three countries from Africa, and like India, and like Australia plus New Zealand.

Jen: Ok, but if we have Māori, I want to use that one as an example because... it, fills a song.

Jen: <Reading: what instruments will you need to play your song.>

Jen: We will need drums.

Tom: Drums.

Jen: And our voice.

Tom: Yeah.

Jen: <Reading: What do you think would be the typical... typical to a song from your chosen country.>

Tom: A lot of like warrior screams.

Jen: Yeah, screams.

Pete: Yeah.

Jen: And drums.

Tom: Very rhythmical music.

Jen: Yeah.

Pete: Dancing.

Jen: And a lot of... what is <L1: dynamikk> in English?

Tom: Dynamic.

Jen: Dynamic, yeah.

Jen: <Reading: Do you want to choose an existing song, or create your own?>

Tom: I'd rather pick an existing one, honestly.

Jen: Yeah.

Pete: I don't know how to make, like, a-

Jen: Māori song.

Tom: Yeah.

Pete: Haka, or whatever it's called.

Jen: Yes. I think we would nail it.

Pete: Yeah.

Jen: That's it.

Pete: Easy.

<Transcription pauses>

Pete: Yeah, yeah, yeah. How about America?

Tom: America! I think-

Jen: America doesn't really...

Tom: If we're going to pick America, like we have to-

Pete: America has lots of music.

Tom: I think, I think sixties blues slash rock is the biggest contribution that they have made.

Jen: Or rap.

Tom: Rap as well. Those two are like the most... The two which have affected the rest of the world the most. Like blues and jazz and all of that, and rap.

Pete: Yeah.

Pete: <Reading: Which instruments would you need to play your song?>

Tom: Guitar, most likely.

Pete: Yeah, yeah, yeah, yeah, yeah.

Tom: Guitar and drums, or, and bass are guaranteed.

Pete: Contrabass, yeah. Piano?

Jen: Yeah, and...

Tom: Vocals.

Jen: But I feel like piano, like classical piano, that's more European.

Pete: Well, yeah, not, not classical piano.

Jen: No.

Pete: More like keyboards.

Jen: Keyboards.

Tom: Blues piano you might need if you're going to play blues for sure,

if you're playing hip-hop, you're definitely going to need like you said.

Jen: And of course-

Tom: And jazz as well.

Jen: Sing with an American accent.

Pete: <Reading: What do you think would be typical to a song from...> Yeah.

Jen: Boring rhythm.

Tom: I think you can't...

Pete: Yes.

Jen: Very boring.

Tom: Can you really say there's a typical, but I agree that-

Jen: It's just music, it's nothing new-

Tom: A lot of, a lot of, a lot of the US's songs have a tendency to be very boring.

Jen: American music is very boring, and...

Tom: You have a lot of interesting music from the US, like I'd say, like a lot of the music I listen to is from there, but I do believe there is also quite a lot of boring stuff. Rather both coming out really.

Pete: I refuse to respect American music.

Pete: <Reading: Choose an existing song or create your own.>

Tom: An existing song.

Pete: An existing song would be too easy.

Jen: We don't create our own music so we would have to choose an existing song.

Pete: Exactly. Ok, are we done?

<Group 3: Finn, May, and Jess>

Finn: Yes.

May: <Reading: Listen to the first 50 seconds of the Three Little Birds to... by Bob Marley on YouTube or Spotify, try to answer the following questions to the best of your ability. What genre of music do you think this song belongs to, and what country is this genre associated with?

Finn: Reggae!

May: Reggae! Country...

Finn: What is it called? The, you know, the island when...

Jess: Jamaica.

Finn: Jamaica, yeah.

May: Jamaica, yeah.

Finn: Jamaica.

May: Yeah, I think it's that, right? Yeah.

Finn: Yeah.

Jess: Probably.

May: Ok.

Finn: Yeah. Yeah. Yeah.

May: <Reading: Using what you know about musical theory, what do you think are the most striking aspects of this song? Is it typical of it's genre?>

May: <L1: Ja>. Yes.

Finn: Yes. They are...

May: English.

Finn: They are behind the beat.

May: Yeah.

Finn: Yeah.

May: And like the drums.

Finn: It's Reggae.

May: It's Reggae.

May: But yeah, I mean the drums are pretty typical for it's genre, right? Yeah.

Finn: Yes, task two.

May: Task two.

Finn: Electric.

May: <Reading: Your city is hosting an international day which will consist of fest... festivities from around the world. Your group has been tasked to arrange a musical show where you show off music from the English-speaking world. Plan a song inspired by an English-speaking country which you want to represent in your show. You can think about the following points to help you plan. What country should have their music represented in your show, what instruments will you need to... to play your song, what do you would be typical to a song from your chosen country, do you want to chosen... do you want to choose an existing song or create your own.>

Finn: Well...

May: Well...

Finn: Shit.

May: Shit.

Finn: What country? What country?

May: English-speaking... to represent... Wait, I'm confused.

Finn: Yes.

May: Yes.

Finn: What do we think? About the <unintelligible>.

May: I don't know. We need... We need... We need...

Finn: What, what country?

May: Canada.

Finn: Yes.

Jess: Yes.

May: Ok.

Finn: What is typical for Canada? Justin Bieber.

May: Justin Bieber isn't from Canada.

Finn: Yes, he is from Canada.

May: He is? What? Ok.

Finn: Didn't you know that?

May: No.

Jess: Me neither.

Finn: What the fuck.

May: Ok, so Justin Bieber is playing on...

Finn: Yes. He is a difficult Canadian guy.

Jess: Ok, so, I haven't listened to his songs, what are the songs about?

May: No idea, don't know what it's about, but like, I know it's vocals.

Finn: Ok, so...

May: <Unintelligible>

Finn: I don't know.

May: I don't know.

Finn: I don't know.

Finn: Yes ok, so Justin Bieber is singing for us from Canada, and...

May: We need vocals, and then....

Finn: Some other Canadians are doing the rest.

May: Ok.

Finn: Countries, <Jess>. English-speaking countries.

<Transcription pauses>

Finn: What about you, <May>?

May: Not Canada.

Jess: Just say a country that speak English.

Finn: India!

Jess: Sure. India.

Finn: We have some sitar.

May: Sitar?

Finn: From India.

May: From India.

Jess: <L1: Ja.>

Finn: Yes, we have sitar. What else do you have from India? He said...

May: Like, wait are we talking about different instruments, or?

Finn: I don't know.

May: I don't know.

Finn: I don't know at this point.

May: I don't know at this point. I don't know any artists from India.

Finn: I... don't know either.

Jess: No.

Finn: Or, or, George Harrison was kind of influenced by India, isn't he kind of Indian then?

May: Yes. Yes.

Finn: At some point he became Indian

May: Ok, then we say he became some point Indian.

Finn: George Harrison in 1967, that's ok. He's the only Indian guy we can... He's not a... Yeah

May: It's like...

Finn: Yeah... What should we do now?

<Group 4: John, Cath, and Linn>

Linn: What- what-

John: The genre of the music is reggae.

Linn: Yeah, reggae.

John: And the country is Jamaican. Is it-

Linn: Jamaica.

John: Jamaica.

Linn: Yeah, it's, yeah reggae is associated with Jamaica.

John: Yeah.

Linn: The country Jamaica.

Linn: <Reading: Using what you know about musical theory...>

Linn: It's the rhythm.

John: Yeah, I really like the drums.

Cath: It's the text.

John: The drums and the vocals. Really strikes me, know what I'm saying?

Linn: It's like a type of African-

John: Yeah.

Cath: It's springy

Linn: Rhythm.

John: You can smoke plant while listen to this music.

Linn: Yeah

John: Alright, task two.

Linn: <Reading: Your city... design a song inspired by an English-speaking country.>

Linn: Just English-speaking.

John: Yeah, English.

Linn: United- US.? England?

John: England and USA.

Cath: Great Britain.

Linn: But are they like, thinking about India and...?

John: Nah.

Linn: No? Just like-

John: Yeah, just like Great Britain and-

Linn: Great Britain yeah.

John: And USA.

Linn: And UK- <L1: Nei> US, USA, yeah.

John: USA.

Cath: The US, yeah.

Linn: UK and USA.

John: <Reading: What instruments would you need to play your song?>

John: We have to need bass, drums, guitar, vocals...

Linn: Piano.

John: Piano, backing vocals.

Linn: All the boring normal instruments.

John: Yeah.

Linn: We didn't choose what country. If we take the-

Cath: USA

Linn: The USA then.

Cath: Country music.

Linn: Yeah.

John: Yeah, USA.

Cath: So we need a banjo under.

John: USA, we will be country music.

Linn: West Virginia-

John: And Great Britain will be trap music.

Cath: Or punk.

John: Yeah, or punk.

Linn: <Reading: Do you want to choose an exciting song or->

Cath: Existing.

John: Existing.

Linn: <Reading: Existing song, or create your own>

Cath: Existing.

John: Existing, for sure.

Linn: West Virginia.

Cath: Yeah, West Virginia.

John: <L1: Skal vi rate->

Linn: <L1: Heter den det?>

John: <L1: Skal vi rate den og?>

Cath: <L1: Tror det>

Linn: <L1: Er det navnet det?>

Linn: We will continue... We...

Cath: The UK.

Linn: The UK, yes.

John: Yeah.

Cath: <Reading: What country should have their music presented in your show?>

Cath: The UK. What instruments?

John: The UK.

Linn: The same.

Cath: The same?

John: The same as last time.

Cath: Except the, the... except the banjo.

Cath: <Reading: What do think would be typical for a song...>

Cath: I don't know.

Linn: They are the same.

John: Typical UK would be punk or trap music.

Cath: Or Riverdance from Ireland.

John: Yeah.

Linn: Yeah.

Cath: Then you need a sack- No that's Scotland. If you take Scotland, you need a sackpipe [erroneous direct translation of bagpipe from Norwegian].

Linn: Yeah, or if we gonna take more interesting country like...

an English-speaking African country.

John: If we take Sweden, we got ABBA.

Linn: They doesn't speak English.

John: Sure, but they speak Engli- that's true, my bad.

Linn: What about Nigeria or Jamaica? Jamaica.

John: Jamaica, they got Bob Marley.

Linn: They got Bob-

John: And he's a big guy. He was... he was a big guy,

before he smoked so much plant that he died from cancer.

Linn: What instrument, instruments? You have the bongo drums.

Cath: Yeah

John: Yeah, then we have a guitar and bass and vocals and backing vocals... yeah. And lot of... lots of smoking plants-

Linn: You have different string instuments-

John: Yes.

Linn: Than guitar. But I don't know the name of them. And flutes.

John: Yeah flutes.

