

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE



#### 2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to design and then evaluate the task-based approach to teaching missionary monks. It is, therefore, necessary to include in the review these three main topics: ESP syllabus design, task-based approach, and course evaluation.

#### 2.2 ESP Syllabus Design

It is the nature of good teachers that they always want to maintain the quality of their teaching. Once a course is designed and implemented, it should be assessed to access whether the course was worth implementing. Graves (2000) proposed the course development cycle in four stages: the first stage was planning the course, then the next stage was teaching the course, the third stage was ongoing assessment and decision making, and the last stage was reteaching the course. Other experts in curriculum development also agree about evaluating the course (Richards, 2001; Hutchinson and Waters, 1993; and Jordan, 1997). Since English for Buddhist Missionary Monks is considered an English for Specific Purposes course, theories and research in ESP were reviewed. Strevens (1988) claimed that ESP focuses on the learner's needs and does not waste time. It is relevant to the learner and successful in imparting learning. Lastly, it is more cost-effective than 'General English'. Robinson (1991) said ESP is normally goal directed. Students study English not because they like the language but they need English for study or work purposes. Johns and Price-Machado (2001) mentioned four absolute characteristics. First, it is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners. Second, it is related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities. Third, it is centered on language use in those activities. Fourth, it is in contrast with 'General English'. They also suggested two variable characteristics, that is, it may be restricted to the learning skills to be learned, and it may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) similarly defined ESP absolute characteristics but with minor

differences, in that it makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves, and is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners. Also, it is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, registers,) skills discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. They proposed more variable characteristics. For instance, it may be related to or designed for specific disciplines; also it may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English. In most cases it is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation, and it is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners. Brown (2003) explained that to develop a curriculum the 'Who? What? And How?' needed to be specified. 'Who?' mean the stakeholders, such as students, teachers, administrators, and parents that are involved in the curriculum. 'What?' is the component to be considered systematically when developing the curriculum. Those components are: needs analyses, goals and objectives, testing, materials, teaching and program evaluation. 'How?' means the logistics or the steps to take in order to accomplish curriculum development (Brown, 2003). Likewise, Graves stated the importance of defining the context before designing a language course. She mentioned that the following factors needed to be taken into consideration: people, time, physical setting, teaching resources and nature of the course, and institution (Graves, 2000). In a similar vein, Smoak (2003: 27) concluded that

ESP is English instruction based on actual and immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real-life tasks unrelated to merely passing an English class or exam; or in short, ESP is needs based and task oriented.

Practitioners in ESP today accept that a current concept of needs analysis includes various aspects about professional and personal information about learners, learners' lacks, learners' needs, language learning needs, language information about target situations, and how to communicate in the target situation (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). Since the students in this course are monks and have the same goal to work as missionary monks abroad, the types of needs in focus in this study are target situation analysis and language learners needs.

### 2.2.1 Target Situation Analysis

Chambers (1980 cited in Robinson 1991:8) stated that, “a needs analysis, which focuses on students’ needs at the end of a language course, can be called a target situation analysis”. Richards (2001) emphasized that need analysis and situation analysis are to be considered before planning goals and learning outcomes. His situation analysis shares some factors with what Graves (2000) called ‘context’. The six factors are as follows. The first one, societal factors, means the impact of groups in the community or society towards the language teaching if the course is developed, such as policy makers in government, educational officials, employers, parents, citizens, students, and so on. Second, project factors refer to the team that develops the course. Each member has different experiences and backgrounds. When they work in team, their individual differences should be managed well. The other factors concerning project work are time, budget, resources, goals, objectives, management, and responsibilities of the team. The third which refers to institutional factors means the school or the institution that runs the language program. Each place has its own policy, role, problems, resources, facilities, and personnel, which can influence the success or failure of the course. Teacher is considered the fourth factor which is also important because each individual has different language proficiency levels, teaching experience, skills and expertise, training and qualifications, morale and motivation, teaching style, belief and principles. Therefore, when developing a course, the course developer should anticipate this issue. In the same way, learner factors are the key participants. Their past learning experiences, motivations, expectations, goals and learning styles can affect the outcomes of the course. And the last one, adoption factors, means the way teachers adopt the new curriculum, syllabus or materials to their teaching. The innovation should be comprehensible and practical (Richards, 2001). A good evidence of this principle was found in Smoak (2003) who shared her experience in writing an ESP course for medical students in Egypt where she found that needs analysis should include observations of the language use in context. However, Robinson (1991: 8) mentioned that ‘the best known framework for target situation analysis was formulated by Munby (1978)’. Munby mentioned that all issues involved the learner, such as purpose of the course, setting, interaction, instruments, dialect, target level, and communicative event. To ensure that this study has based its

quality on the best framework, his model was used when planning the course. The detail of the study is based on each of the points he suggested.

### 2.2.2 Needs Analysis

Needs analysis is a prerequisite in developing any course, not just a language training program. However, for ESP, needs analysis is more important because it can lead to a focused course (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Brindley (1984) stated the importance of subjective needs, which include *want, desire, and expectations* of the learners, and objective needs, which is how the teacher diagnoses the needs of the learners. This is close to what Robinson (1991) suggested, as she mentioned considering of constraints concerned with students' attitudes and expectations, especially ones operating within a learner-centered framework. Hutchinson and Waters added that those two kinds of needs can also be viewed as *necessities, lacks, and wants* (Hutchinson and Waters, 1993). Graves stated that needs assessments are cyclical in nature, which start from deciding what information to gather and why, then deciding when, how and who to gather from, next gathering them, interpreting the findings, acting on the results, evaluating the effect and effectiveness of the action before starting to decide on further or new information to gather again (Graves, 2000). However, Brown proposed a framework of a systematic approach to designing and maintaining language curriculum, beginning with needs analysis followed by creating the objectives, testing, creating or gathering materials, teaching and finally evaluating. Moreover, evaluation should be operated all through the process to make sure that each step is done most effectively (Brown, 2001). Richards suggested that needs analysis in language teaching can lead to a number of purposes, such as to determine what language skills are necessary for students, to collect information about students' experience and problems in learning English, and so on (Richards, 2001).

There are several ways to collect information about needs, such as questionnaire distribution, interviewing, on-going classroom observation, testing, in-class discussion, and student-teacher conference (Graves, 2000; Brown, 2001; and Richards, 2001). The results can be used to improve the lessons on a day-to-day basis. Basturkmen (2003) pointed out that there are three types of ESP course design: the first one is narrow-angled type which comes from analysis of needs in a particular



target group, such as English for pilots and air traffic controllers; the second type is wide- angled type which comes from analysis of common needs across target groups, such as English for health professionals; and the last type is another wide-angled type which comes from linguistic variety. This kind of course design is for students at institutions, such as those that teach Business English or Academic English. She commented that “when students are fairly homogenous in relation to their target needs, then a narrow- angled course design is not only feasible, but likely to result” (Basturkmen, 2003: 61). According to Trim (1977), a course designer, when planning a course, should not focus only on the learners’ needs, but should also consider the needs of the learners’ society, their institutions, and the social institution that provide the resources. Moreover, all relevant characteristics involved in the learning process should be established, such as age, intelligence, experience, motivations, expectations, and learning styles. Among the mentioned topics, only the learning styles will be discussed in the following section.

### **2.2.3 Learning Styles**

Learning styles are defined by several experts. Some educators (Ellis and Johnson, 1994; and Jordan, 1997) define learning styles as an approach which a student or individual uses to acquire or learn new skills or information, while others suggested that they are internally based characteristics for the intake and comprehension of new information (Reid, 1998), or a term that refers to consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual student (Brown, 2000). Reid (1998) classified learning styles into six categories according to perceptual preferences: the first category is visual: a person who learns more effectively through seeing; the second is auditory: a person who learns more effectively through hearing; the third is tactile: a person who learns more effectively through hands-on; the fourth is kinesthetic: a person who learns more effectively through complete body experience; the fifth is group: a person who learns more effectively through working with others; and the last category is individual: a person who learns more effectively through working alone. In her research with many ethnic groups around the world, she found that most Thai learners are kinesthetic and tactile, some are visual, auditory, and individual, but they have negative feeling towards group work (Reid, 1998).

Besides perceptual learning styles, there are more aspects of learning styles depending on how to look at ways a person learns. For example, Tyacke (1998) proposes four styles of learners based on how learners selected and reacted to reading materials. She mentioned Style A, the studier, likes structure, rules, and seeks confirmation for accuracy from a teacher than peers; Style B, the diverger, seeks advice when needed and works out his/her own rules; Style C, the explorer, actively practices with peers rather than learning rules; and the last one Style D, the absorber, does not consciously practice or learn rules, but seems to absorb language patterns. Sanchez (1998) argues that it is the brain process that affects a person's learning styles and learning process. While Christison (1998) and Smith (2002) promotes Gardner's Multiple Intelligence (MI) framework. Gardner (1983) proposed a list of seven intelligences which he claimed human beings have a unique blend of (Gardner, 1999). Out of the seven intelligences, the first two, linguistic intelligence and logical-mathematical are considered valuable in school; the next three, musical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, and spatial intelligence concern the arts; and the final two, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence deal with the capacity that a person interacts with society and manages his or her life effectively. Each person may have more than one intelligence and it affects how to arrange education to match their preferences. With more than seventy monks from different places in a class, the teacher for this course should be prepared to deal with mixed ability, mixed learning styles and mixed intelligences.

Another factor that should not be overlooked is that all the students in the present study are considered adult with an average age of 34 (ranging from 25 to 54). Therefore, adults learning styles should be taken into account. Knowles is regarded as a pioneer in the field of adult learners (Lieb, 1991). He states that adult learners are autonomous, self-directed, goal-oriented and relevancy-oriented. They are full of life experiences and knowledge. They are also practical and need respect. Lieb (1991) proposes that instructors who want to be effective in teaching adults should ensure that they add motivation, reinforcement, retention and transference in their instructions. Smith (2003) discusses five distinct patterns in teaching adults. Pattern one was that the adult learners tend to expect the teacher-led instruction because they have been taught in this traditional way in schools in the past. They believe that it is the teacher's and the faculty's responsibilities to prepare everything. Their duty is to

attend the class and absorb knowledge. Pattern two is the opposite of the first pattern in the sense that the adult learners feel that they have a lot of responsibilities. Thus, faced with limited time, pattern two learners will take on projects on their own or take training courses, rather than educational courses. In short, they learn with the purpose of solving problem immediately, and not for the sake of learning. Pattern three, the adult learners' motivation is to respond to their authorities' commands or for professional growth in their respective careers. Hence, the higher the professions, the newer the subjects they want to learn. For pattern four, the adult learners tend to depend on classmates who are good in that field. These learners sometimes end up with disappointment when the learning experiences turn out to be different from what they expect. And for pattern five, the adult learners thrive when they learn in a class where their contributions are significant and accepted by the whole group.

Task-based instruction was proposed as an ideal method that can respond to all the patterns together with the learning style and the multiple intelligences. The reasons for this are that the monk students in all patterns can meet the requirements of their learning motivations through this method of instruction. For instance, the students in pattern one would appreciate the fact that the teacher prepares everything concerning tasks together with the instructions, ready for them to explore and learn. The pattern two and three students would appreciate the training which comes with task-based instruction which also enables them to manage to solve problem and benefit their professional careers in the future. The students of pattern four and five would enjoy working in groups and share their ideas or opinions in order to accomplish success together.

#### **2.2.4 Constructivism**

Before moving to task-based instruction, two more issues to be described briefly are constructivism and learner autonomy.

Constructivism is a theory about learning that emphasizes the learner's role to construct knowledge for himself. Piaget, a psychologist whose idea led to the formalization of constructivism, suggested that a learner learned through processes of accommodation and assimilation (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia). Scholars in the present decade (Bencze, 2005; and Epstein, 2002) claimed that constructivist learning theory emphasized that learners have their prior experience and come to class with

ideas about what teacher expects them to learn. Moreover, learners' ideas are often different from the teachers'. Learners' ideas lead them to go through procedure of self-fulfilling using scientific skills, such as observing, classifying, measuring, hypothesizing, predicting, controlling, analyzing, and drawing conclusion. Learners need others, for their experiences alone are not enough, they need to view from other aspects. Anyway, they like their ideas and they also see what they want to see. Thus, they need to learn how to learn or process learning. They may not discover experts' conclusion, but they deserve the right to determine their beliefs (Bencze, 2005; and Riegler, 2005). There are two types of constructivism, the first type is cognitive constructivism and the second type is social constructivism. The first believes that learners build their knowledge through experience (Epstein, 2002). "Cognitive prospective theories focus on both what students learn and the process by which they do so" (Fosnot, 1996, cited in Epstein, 2002). Social constructivism, on the other hand, believes in the same thing but emphasizes the importance of culture and understanding the social context; and then knowledge can be constructed based on the understanding (Derry, 1999; and McMahon, 1997, cited in Kim 2001). As this study focuses more on social constructivism, the detail of this issue is described as follows.

#### 2.2.4.1 Social Constructivism

For the social interactionist, a child is born into a social world, and he learns by interacting with other people. How he learns a language is through using it to interact meaningfully with other people (Williams and Burden, 1997). Social constructivists view four key sets of factors which influence the teaching-learning process as the model illustrates below.

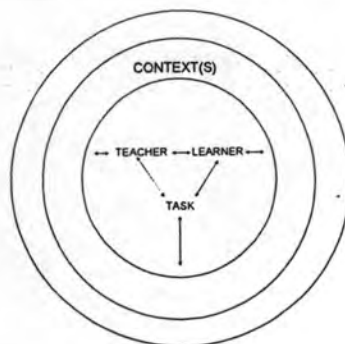


Figure 2.1 A social constructivist model of the teaching-learning process (Williams & Burden, 1997: 43)



All these factors interact as part of a dynamic, ongoing process. The teacher arranges tasks according to his belief about teaching and learning. The individual learners interpret tasks in the ways that are meaningful and personal to them. The task is the interface between the teacher and learners. The teacher and learners also interact with each other in class according to their value, belief and background. What the teacher does affects each learner, and vice versa. These three elements; teacher, task, and learners are in this way in a dynamic equilibrium. At the same time; context, which includes the classroom, emotional environment, and cultural setting will also play a significant role to shape what happens within it. (Williams and Burden, 1997)

Two scholars regarded as significant social constructivists whose theories are relevant to language teaching and this study are Vygotsky and Feuerstein.

Vygotsky's approach focuses on holistic learning. He rejected the teaching of discrete points and skills in isolation. He argued that meaning of study should be presented in all its complexity naturally. As for language teaching, his assumptions lead to the idea that interaction belongs to the very nature of language because language is socially based. Content is important, but interaction is more important; learners cannot reach true linguistic achievements if opportunities for interaction are not presented (Sanchez, 2004). The famous concept introduced by Vygotsky was the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), wherein he suggested that a learner could learn well by himself in certain layers of knowledge, but interaction with other people who could help shape his learning experience could make him extend his potential to the layer beyond what he could do alone. The ZPD was the term he used to call the layer mentioned, and the person who helped the learner to go through his next layer of knowledge was called a mediator (Williams and Burden, 1997). In teaching a class for missionary monks in this study, according to his approach, each monk is an individual learner who can learn and achieve to a certain layer of knowledge personally, but the teacher who is the mediator can arrange activities or tasks to get students to interact and help one another learn more and achieve a higher than personal potential of each individual so that they all can go through and beyond their layer of knowledge. His approach is believed to be suitable for the intensive English course where there are a lot of mixed levels of students such as in the class in this study. However, another scholar's theory is also useful.

Feuerstein, an Israeli psychologist and educator, believed that anyone could become a fully effective learner. He mentioned that people's cognitive structures are

infinitely modifiable, so all learners can continue to develop their cognitive capacity throughout their lives (Williams and Burden, 1997). Like Vygotsky, Feuerstein considered the role of mediator as a key factor in effective learning. He mentioned that mediation was concerned with empowering learners, helping them to acquire the knowledge, skills, and strategies to learn more; to solve problems, to be able to think through for themselves, to take control of their own learning, and to become autonomous. Mediation in his view also involved interaction between mediator and learner, and the learner was an active participant in the process. The learner was ready and willing to be involved in *reciprocation*, which meant he accepted and complied to carry out the task presented, and that there was an agreement as to what should be done and why. Also, the mediator needed to help the learners to interact with the materials until they could be self-directed. (Williams and Burden, 1997) Moreover, Feuerstein identified twelve features of mediation; the first three were essential for all learning tasks, and the rest could be used in various situations depending on the learning. Those features were as follows: significance, purpose beyond the here and now, shared intention, a sense of competence, control of own behavior, goal-setting, challenge, awareness of change, a belief in positive outcomes, sharing, individuality, and a sense of belonging. Among the first three that are essential is *significance* which the mediator or teacher has to point out to the learners to make sure they understand the value and are aware of the significance of the learning task in a broader cultural context. In addition, the learners should be aware that the learning experience arranges aims for their benefit in the future too, not just achievement in class at that time. This is what Feuerstein called *Purpose beyond the here and now*. For the last necessary feature, *shared intention* refers to a clear intention about the task presented to the learners, and that they understand and reciprocate with the teacher. The nine remaining features which he mentioned which are not necessary to occur in every task but should be enhanced are *a sense of competence* in which teacher should make learners feel that they can manage to succeed in task they are to work on; *control of own behavior*, which refers to the ability to control and regulate their own learning, thinking and actions; *goal-setting*, the learners' ability to aim for goals realistically and to manage ways to achieve them; *challenge*, which refers to the learners' internal needs to react to challenges and to keep searching for new challenges in life; *awareness of change*, which refers to the acceptance that learners have that everything in human life can change and that they should know how to cope with it; *belief in*

*positive outcomes* when facing an unexpected problem or tough situation, they should be sure that there is a possible solution; *sharing*, which refers to the feel that the learners can work co-operatively to solve problems; on the other hand, each learner recognizes his own *individuality* and uniqueness; and the last one, *a sense of belonging*, which refers to a feeling that they belong in a social group and a culture.

One important thing for a language teacher teaching the class is that he or she should have positive thinking about the learners no matter how difficult it is for some learners to achieve the goal. How teacher feels affects his class; so as long as the teacher believes that his learners are capable of succeeding, they will continue to seek effective ways of helping to bring this about (Williams and Burden, 1997). For the social constructivist, the way to help students achieve their goals is scaffolding. Helping students to be able to learn best and go through their highest potential is very similar to constructing a building. A teacher or a mediator has to build a structure to support students in the first place while they are still new in the field and need some help to guide them or help them out when they do not understand something. When the students get used to the tasks, have enough skills, and are able to work on their own, the scaffolding can be gradually withdrawn so that the students can become self-regulated, independent learners.

#### **2.2.4.2 Scaffolding**

The term 'scaffolding' is used to describe the type of assistance a teacher or peer who acts as a mediator provides to support learning. In the process of scaffolding, the teacher helps the students master a task or concept that the students are unable to comprehend independently at first. Usually, the teacher lets the students complete as much of the task as possible by themselves. The teacher only helps the students with tasks that are just beyond their current capability. Students may make mistakes; but with teacher's feedback and prompting, the students should be able to achieve the task or goal. When the teacher sees that the students can take responsibility for or master the task by themselves, the teacher can fade out or remove the scaffolding gradually and then allow the students to work independently (Lipscomb et al., 2004).

Characteristics of educational scaffolding, according to some scholars, are varied. Here are some examples. Applebee and Langer (1983), as cited by Zhao and







the learners' success in acquiring language or skills needed. However, according to Lipscomb et al. (2004), scaffolding may have both challenges and benefits. As for challenges, scaffolding may take a long time. There may not be enough personnel to be the mediators; and even when there are enough people, they need to be properly trained to be able to work sufficiently. Examples of how to scaffold are usually not found in the teacher's edition of textbooks. Also, it is sometimes not easy to consider an individual's needs when they are working in group or in class. Errors may occur when judging the zone of proximal development for each student, and the misinterpretation may cause wrong decisions. The teacher will lose control over the class when it is time for withdrawing. Thus, what the teacher should encourage in improving students' learning behavior is learner autonomy.

### 2.2.5 Learner autonomy

The learner who is able to construct knowledge by his own interpretation and understanding, then links it with his own experience should have what is called 'learner autonomy'. Holec (1981) defined autonomy as the learner's willingness and capacity to control or oversee his own learning. Later, Little (1991:4) added that "it is the matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning, it concerns his capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action". Thanasoulas linked the significant words to explain its meaning that, "Autonomy can be thought of in terms of a departure from education as a social process, as well as in terms of redistribution of power attending the construction of knowledge and the role of the participants in the learning process." (Thanasoulas, 2002: 4) He also emphasized that constructivist approaches encourage and promote self-directed learning as a necessary condition for learner autonomy". In his conclusion he suggested that, "Learner autonomy consists in becoming aware of, and identifying, one's strategies, needs and goals as a learner, and having the opportunity to reconsider and refashion approaches and procedures for optimal learning." (Thanasoulas, 2002). Benson (1997) (Cited in Palfreyman, 2003) proposed that there are three broad ways of talking about learner autonomy in language education: first, a technical perspective, which emphasizes skills or strategies for learning, with kinds of activities or processes such as the metacognitive, cognitive, social and other strategies; second, a psychological perspective, which emphasizes broader attitudes and cognitive abilities which enable the learner to take responsibility

for his/her own learning; and third, a political perspective, which emphasizes empowerment or emancipation of learners by giving them control over the content and process of their learning. As the monk students have the mission abroad, they have motivation to come back to school to attend this training program, and they are expected to be able to manage their own knowledge construction during and after the course. Therefore, they should be able to cope with all the three perspectives mentioned.

From all the features mentioned above involving ESP characteristics, and other aspects concerning how to make the most appropriate instruction for this group of monk students, such as social constructivism, scaffolding, and learner autonomy, it can be said that all of them point to the approach that seems to include all of the desired features; the task-based approach.

### **2.3 Task-Based Approach**

The task-based approach began to interest educators when Prabhu (1987) developed his syllabus 'through communication' rather than 'for communication' in 1980s. People started to see the importance of process or how to achieve acquisition using communication. More and more research studies have been done on the use of the task-based approach. Ellis (2003) concluded that task-based syllabuses have been promoted by second language acquisition researchers and educators as an alternative to the linguistic syllabus because the task-based syllabus is more effective in promoting acquisition as it conforms to acquisition processes.

As Candlin (2001: 233) mentioned, "the task-based approach provides learners with opportunities to explore both spoken and written language through activities designed to engage learners in authentic and purposeful tasks". It is, therefore, selected as the main method of this study because it is believed that it can respond to the needs of the monks as adult learners because TBI aims for the learners who learn with purposes. All the monk students have the same purpose, that is to be able to use English in their work on their mission abroad. They need to prepare themselves to the new environment in foreign countries. The more they can be exposed to the real materials, the better prepared they will be. The other reason why TBI might be

suitable for this group of students is that they are adult learners, so they have a lot of opportunities to share their experience and knowledge when working in groups. By sharing opinions and ideas, the monk students should be able to construct knowledge by themselves. Moreover, TBI fits several learning styles, no matter what kind of learner they are or what type of intelligence they have, they can learn to share and gear their ideas towards the group accomplishment. In addition, it enhances learner's autonomy and provides chances for students to contribute to the group's success.

However, Ellis (2003:336) suggested that, "there is a need for more evaluation of task-based program". He mentioned four reasons why there is not much research on this. First, in the applied linguists' view, task-based teaching offers too limited language for the learners. Second, task-based teaching is perceived as an Anglo-American invention, so it is not suitable for learners in other cultural context. Third, tasks do not enhance natural communication in the classroom. And fourth, task-based teaching is an innovation that is too difficult to implement.

### **2.3.1 Defining Task**

In language learning many people have defined the term 'task' differently. Some state that a task is a piece of work (Long, 1985; Crookes, 1986; and Nunan, 1989). Some identify it as a set of workplans that involves learners and teachers with some key words such as 'with purposes or goals' (Breen, 1987; and Ellis, 2003). Some associate it with classroom activities that are controlled by the teacher to require students to exchange meaning through some process (Prabhu, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Carrol, 1993; Willis, 1996; and Skehan, 1998). Moreover, some refer to tasks more specifically as 'instructional tasks, pedagogic task' (Wright, 1987; and Nunan, 1989). Recently, Littlewood (2004) suggested that it is easier to use the everyday, non-specialist definition of 'task' that appears in the dictionary, that is a task is 'a piece of work to be done, especially one done regularly, unwillingly or with difficulty'. He mentioned two dimensions that are crucial to understanding tasks. The first dimension is the continuum from focus on forms to focus on meaning. The second is the learners' active personal involvement with the task, and, since the task-based approach is believed to be development within the communicative approach, even when they use a form-focused procedure they are always 'oriented' towards communication, so he labeled it 'communication-oriented language teaching'

(Littlewood, 2004). On the contrary, Oxford (2006) proposed various concepts of task. She mentioned task as an imposed task, duty, or piece of work; as a job responsibility, as a general activity or exercise for L2 learners, as an outcome-oriented L2 instructional segment, as a behavioral framework for research; and the last one, as a behavioral framework for classroom learning. For this study, tasks are defined as activities in the class arranged by the teacher to prepare the students so that they are able to manage certain endeavors that they are supposed to accomplish when assuming the missionary monk profession. Moreover, while students are working on these activities, they are supposed to use English for communicative purposes in order to achieve an outcome; which is the same idea as that of Willis (1996).

From the many definitions above, it is necessary to look at the key features of the task-based approach. Candlin (1987) proposed that the following features are required: input or any data that is selected or presented by the teacher or learners to use so that the task can be accomplished; roles or the specific duties of each participant or what each person is supposed to do in order to accomplish the task; settings or the classroom arrangement and, if possible, the link with out-of-class activity, actions or the procedure to follow in order to comprehend and finish the task; monitoring: the selection of the features mentioned above of what is needed and how to use it to complete the task; outcomes or what is expected by the end of the task; and feedback or the evaluation of the task. Nunan (1989) presented some similar features in categorizing tasks. They are goals, input, activities, teacher role, learner role, and settings. Samuda (2001) argued that the task-based approach must have three main parts. The first part is the input data, the second is operations on data, and the last part is outcomes.

### **2.3.2 The Methodology of Task-Based Instruction**

Oxford (2006) mentioned that task goals usually fall into three main groups. The main task goals are focus on meaning, focus on form, and focus on forms. The first goal, focus on meaning, is like its name; to focus on meaning. There is no explanation about rules, or grammar structure. The students work on the task to accomplish what their lesson is; if they can induce rules by themselves that is fine. If they cannot induce any rule, but can accomplish task by using the target language to



communicate, that is also fine. They are supposed to acquire the rules or grammar naturally. Therefore, there is no discussion on forms at all. The second goal, focus on form, is to focus on conveying meaning too; but the form of grammar or rule can be discussed and explained when needed. The teacher can preselect the forms related to the task and let them work on the task. The students will use the forms in communicating with one another meaningfully while trying to accomplish task. Then either the teacher or students can raise questions about the particular form and discuss it. In the last goal, focus on forms, the teacher will plan in advance about what forms will be used during the task cycle and teaches those sentences in order to provide the students with language to use during the task cycle to negotiate meaning. She then will add two more possible goals that TBA may focus on. The first goal is learning how to learn, and the second goal may be to focus on content. As for this study, the second goal was selected because the researcher wanted to make sure that the students could benefit most during the short time of study by accomplishing the tasks they were supposed to do, and they also learned how to use English to use in those certain situations in their real lives. The main methodology to be used is Willis's framework which has something in common with Prabhu, the first scholar who made the task-based syllabus well-known. Both Prabhu (1987) and Willis (1996) proposed the same designs for a task-based syllabus. That is, it consists of three phases. Prabhu (1987) called it pre-task, task and the 3<sup>rd</sup> component. Pre-task is meant to prepare students to be aware of what they will do, such as the purpose, a small rehearsal, and what is available if needed. This phase is under the teacher's guidance and control. The task allows students to work individually, in pairs, or in groups, and as for the 3<sup>rd</sup> component the teacher checks students' performance and gives feedback. With more elaborated details Willis (1996: 38) suggested that, "the pre-task is the phase to introduce the topic and task to students and provide them with useful words and phrases, as well as task instructions. The task cycle is the phase during which students work on the task, prepare to report, and report the result. The language focus is the phase where students examine and discuss specific features of the text or transcript, and the teacher conducts practice of new words, phrases and pattern occurring in the data either during or after the analysis."

This model is used for several reasons. First, it is not only to convey meaning but also to focus on the English language. The monk students come from various levels of English proficiency background, so it is better to make sure that they all have

a chance to discuss the language learned every time the task is accomplished so that they have reinforcement and the same understanding of what they have studied each time. Second, it is useful to provide the chance for students to ask or discuss the questions about language they used in the lesson to make sure they have a clear idea about the usage of the sentences learned. Third, since the students are adult learners, they need reinforcement and transference in the learning process (Lieb, 1991). The third phase in Willis's model can respond to these needs. Fourth, while working on a task, all students in the group with various kinds of multiple intelligences can brainstorm and cooperate using each person's capacity to share for the group's success. At this point, the fast students can help the slow students and all students can learn from peer interaction. They not only learn to work in their immediate groups but also learn and practice the skills to live and work in real society when they have to work abroad. What they learn will teach them to have courageous to ask questions when they do not know and ask for clarification when they are not sure. Lastly, Willis's model provides clear instruction and framework that is not too difficult or too easy to adapt for this group of students according to their learning styles. Therefore, Willis's model and the task-based approach are used for this study.

Ellis (2003) concluded that task-based methodology creates opportunities for language learning and skill development through collaborative knowledge building. The teacher should ensure an appropriate level of task difficulty and establish clear goals for each task-based lesson. The teacher must develop an appropriate orientation to performing the task in the students, and ensure that students adopt an active role in task-based lessons, encourage students to take risks, ensure that students are primarily focused on meaning when they perform a task. The teacher should also provide opportunities for focusing on form, and require students to evaluate the performance and progress.

There are various types of tasks arranged for communicative instruction, for example, problem-solving; decision-making; opinion-gap or opinion exchange; information-gap; comprehension-based; sharing personal experiences, attitudes and feeling; basic cognitive processes, such as comparing or matching, listing, and ordering/ sorting; language analysis; narrative; reasoning-gap; question-and-answer; structured and semi-structured dialogues; role-play and simulations; picture stories; puzzles and games; interviews; discussions and debates; everyday functions, such as telephone conversations and service encounters. Task types also encompass practice

with communication/ conversation strategies, or other learning strategies. Some task types involve multiple skills and subskills, such as reading a passage for comprehension and then using the information read to answer questions, discuss a situation, express one's feeling, solve a problem, or make a decision. (Willis, 1996; Nunan, 1989; Bygate et al., 2001; and Oxford, 2006),

### **2.3.3 Designing the TBI Course**

Ellis (2003) proposed four principles to classify tasks. Firstly, a pedagogic classification requires learners to list, order and sort, compare, solve problems, share personal experience, and perform creative tasks. Secondly, a rhetorical classification focuses on different discourse domains in terms of their structure and linguistic properties, such as narratives, instructions, descriptions, and reports. The advantage of this classification is that it responds to specific learner needs. Thirdly, a cognitive classification is based on the different types of operation, such as an information gap activity, a reasoning-gap activity, an opinion-gap activity (Prabhu, 1987). Finally, a psycholinguistic classification is based on interactional categories that help learners comprehend input, obtain feedback, and modify their own output. Ellis also criticized the above classifications as follows. The first category is interactant relationship which concerns the duties of each participant in the group, 'who does what'; it can be a one-way or two-way task. When there is a mutual relationship of request and suppliance, negotiation of meaning will occur. Second, an interaction requirement requires participants to interact with one another for information. Research shows that the negotiation of meaning works well when all members participate in a task. Third, goal orientation concerns whether the group will agree or disagree on a single outcome. The tasks that require collaboration is more meaningful than those assigned for independence. Lastly, outcome options refer to the scope of task outcomes. It is more effective when outcomes are 'closed' or have a particular solution than when they are 'open' or permit several possibilities (Ellis, 2003: 211-215). For all the classifications, Ellis (2003) also provided a general framework to design task feature which he claimed is narrowly delineated in terms of the dimensions compared with Willis (1996). The feature consists of 1) input: the nature of the input provided in the task; 2) condition: the way in which the information is presented to the learners and the way in which it is to be used; 3) processes: the nature of the cognitive operations

and the discourse the task requires; and 4) outcomes: the nature of the product that results from performing the task. Furthermore, Ellis (2003) suggested four steps in constructing a task-based syllabus. First, determine the goal of the course, then make a broad choice of task types and specify the themes. After that, specify the tasks in detail, and finally, sequence the tasks according to its complexity.

### **2.3.4 Materials Development**

Many experts in task-based lessons described the importance of tasks and focused their attention on the tasks in various aspects, such as defining, selecting, and sequencing, or on the process and outcome (Candlin, 1987; Breen, 1987; Wright, 1987; Estaire and Zanon, 1994; Willis, 1996; and Ellis, 2003). They did not elaborate much about materials. Prabhu (1987) asserted that: 'In task-based teaching lessons in the classroom are not acts of text, or language presentation, but rather context for discourse creation.' He mentioned that 'loosely structured' teaching materials can be easily adapted to a particular classroom and the teacher should determine how to simplify, add to or adjust them to make them useful to their students. Materials as learning resources can vary from one learner to another within the same class (Prabhu, 1987). On the contrary, Robinson (1991) emphasized the importance of authentic materials in ESP. She mentioned that the material can be anything that is available to the language teacher, but it must not be the one produced for language-teaching purposes. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the teacher to select or develop materials of their own. Jolly and Bolitho (1998) outlined a framework for materials writing that starts from identification of a need to fulfill or a problem to solve by the creation of materials. The next step is exploration of language in terms of meaning, function, and skills. The third step is contextual realization of the proposed new materials by finding suitable ideas, contexts with which to work. The fourth step is pedagogical realization of materials by finding appropriate exercises and activities and writing appropriate instructions for use. The fifth step is physical production of materials, involving consideration of layout, type size, visuals, reproduction, tape length, and so on. The sixth step is usage of the materials in class, and finally evaluation of materials against agreed objectives. They concluded that materials' writing is most effective when it matches the learners' needs. The teacher understands



the learners best so all teachers need grounding in materials writing to create the most appropriate materials for the students. Also, trialing and evaluation are vital to the success of any materials.

### 2.3.5 Lesson Planning

Lesson plans are systematic records of a teacher's thoughts about what will be covered during a lesson (Farrell, 2002). Tyler's (1949) rational-linear framework is one of the classic models of how to plan a lesson. Four steps are proposed in the model respectively: 1) specify objectives; 2) select learning activities; 3) organize learning activities; and 4) specify method of evaluation. Farrell (2002) added that in the classroom the following lesson plan phases usually occur. First, the teacher elicits what students have learned in previous lessons. This phase is called perspective or an opening. Then the teacher prepares students for a new activity, and this phase is called stimulation. Next is the instruction/ participation phase where the teacher presents an activity, checks students' understanding and encourages involvement. After that, the teacher asks what students have learned or previews future lessons; this phase is called closure. Finally, the teacher presents other activities to reinforce the same concepts or presents opportunities for interaction; this phase is called follow-up. On a different dimension, Estaire and Zanon (1984) suggested a framework for planning units of work for the teacher to follow. It consists of six stages: 1) determining theme or interest area; 2) planning final task or series of tasks to be done at the end of the unit; 3) determining unit objectives; 4) specifying contents which are necessary/ desirable to carry out final task(s); 5) planning the process, such as determining communication and enabling tasks which will lead to final task(s), select/ apply/ produce appropriate materials for them, structure the tasks and sequence them to fit into class hours; and 6) planning instruments and procedures for evaluation of process and product. Experts in the task-based approach pay more attention to planning tasks rather than planning the lesson (Willis, 1996; Nunan, 1989; and Ellis, 2003) because the task is the key feature of the approach. Therefore, sequencing tasks becomes one of the important parts of the lesson. The traditional presentation-practice-production (PPP) teaching was once accepted in the same way as the L2 task sequence (Oxford, 2006). However, Willis (1996) did not agree with the idea. She proposed that in language learning, there are three essential conditions plus a desirable condition; those

conditions are first, to let students be exposed to the language, and then to use it in the natural environment; and then finally, the teacher motivates them to process and use the exposure. The last condition is instruction; even though it is not essential, it makes the learning complete. Willis's conditions for language learning are shown in figure 2.2.

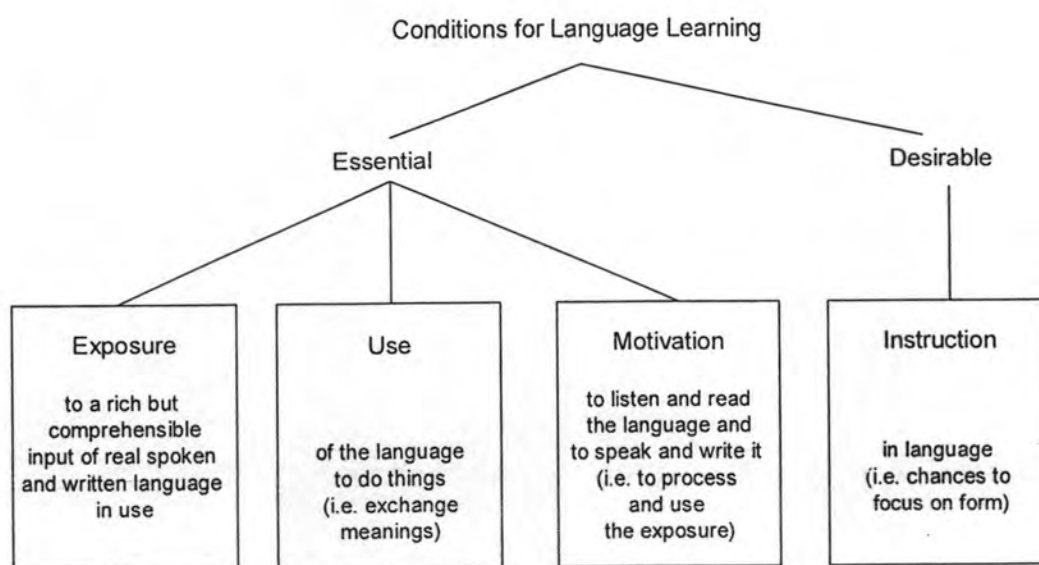


Figure 2.2 Conditions of Language Learning (Willis, 1996: 11)

### 2.3.5.1 Willis's framework

Willis (1996) proposed her framework in three phases called pre-task, task cycle, and language focus.

The pre-task is the phase where a teacher makes an introduction to the students. The teacher may introduce the topic, clarify its area, identify words or phrases that will be useful during the task or outside the classroom; and then s/he can give task instructions and allow preparation time for students. The important thing when planning this phase is managing learner talk. The teacher should decide how to get student interaction, whether in pairs or in groups or with the whole class.

Especially in a mixed level or a big class, the teacher should find a way to ensure they all speak the target language by making an agreement in the very beginning that they may speak their mother tongue only in necessary cases, such as asking some question that they cannot explain in L2, comparing target language with mother-tongue use, or doing tasks involving translation or summary of a target language text.

The task-cycle consists of three stages. The first stage is for students to do the task individually, in pair, or in groups. At this point, the teacher acts as a monitor. The role of the teacher is to make sure that all pairs or groups are doing the right tasks and are clear about the objectives. The teacher may encourage all students, even the weakest ones, to take part in the task. What the teacher can do is to just walk around observing and helping the students when required. Another role for the teacher in this stage is to be a time keeper. Students may have to use their schema plus the language they have heard during the pre-task stage to work on task. The teacher has to let them do it on their own; the errors they may make can be noted and discussed in the last stage when it is time to focus on form. This is the time when the students use the language in a meaningful way. After they finish working on a task, the next stage is to plan the report to the class. At this point, the students will have to select the most appropriate person to be a representative of the group. The teacher must make sure that students know they should take turns sending different people to present each time. They are likely to check their language to make sure that they have the right sentences with the correct grammar to present to the public. If they have to present in writing, handwriting on the transparency should be easy to read and the text should be error-free. They may need to rehearse in case they have to present a role play or a skit. This can occur naturally as no one wants to lose face in front of the class. The last stage in this phase is the report in which each group will take turns sending its representative to present the result of the task. The teacher's role is to be the chairperson, introducing the presentations, sitting for the purpose for listening, nominating who presents next, and summing up at the end. During the report, the teacher should observe carefully and take notes so that she can give comment and feedback to each group and react to all the performance thoroughly. The feedback should be given tactfully and positively to encourage and motivate students to develop themselves. The teacher should mention the strong points of each group and also acknowledge the effort students put into the presentations.

The last phase is language focus, which consists of two stages: analysis and practice. Willis suggested that the starting point should begin with either one of these: semantic concepts (themes, notions, functions); words or parts of words; categories of meaning and use; or phonology (intonation, stress and sounds). The teacher can then pick one of the following to use as practice activities: repetition of useful phrases, or dialogue reading; listening and completing; gapped examples; progressive deletion; unpacking a sentence; repacking a sentence; memory challenge; concordances for common words; dictionary exercises; personal recordings; or computer games.

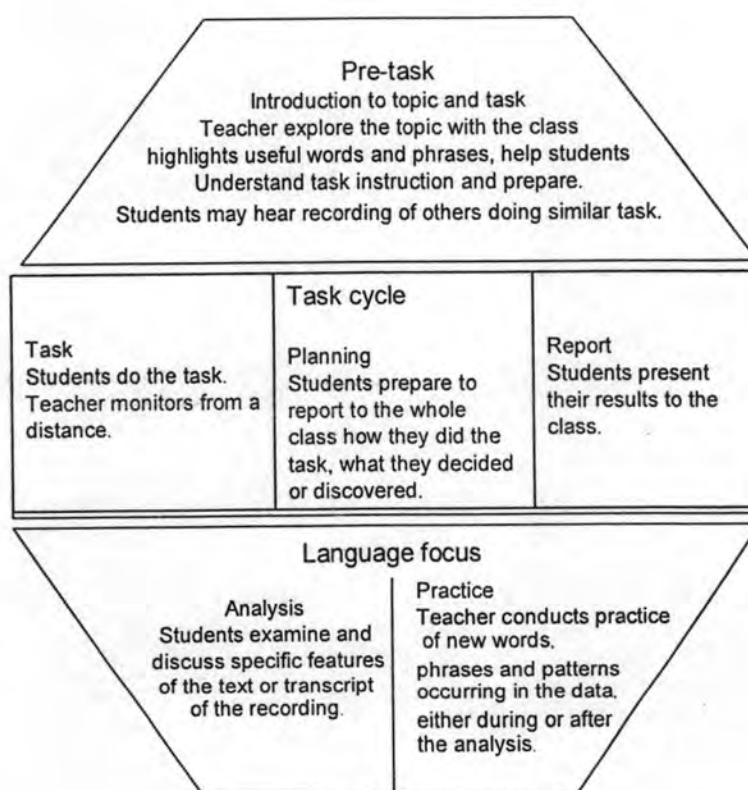


Figure 2.3 Components of the TBI Framework (Willis, 1996: 38)

The lesson plan of this study has been developed using Willis's framework (1996) as illustrated in the figure 2.3. But the activities used during task cycle are based mainly on problem solving, making decision, and creating conversation and role play (Ellis, 2003). The entire situations focus on tasks monks need to perform either in their daily routine or work-related requirements. And the last phase after the task cycle is the language focus. In this present study, the focus on form (Oxford,



2006) is chosen. The teacher discusses with students the grammar structures that emerged and provides them with some pronunciation practice.

### 2.3.6 Course Evaluation

A very important step in implementing any course is to evaluate it. Generally, course designers suggested an outline to evaluate the course that stakeholders, such as teachers, students, or the institution, are to evaluate the course with regard to the goals and objectives, the course content, the way the course is organized, the materials and methods, the learning assessment plan, and the course evaluation plan (Graves, 2000:). Brown (2003) mentioned that program evaluation is an ongoing needs analysis, but it makes use of all the information gathered in the process of developing objectives: writing and using the test; adopting, adapting and creating materials; and supporting teaching (Brown, 2003). Richards (2001) suggested three different purposes of evaluation. The first one is formative evaluation focusing on ongoing development and improvement of the program. Second is illuminative evaluation which refers to evaluation that seeks to provide a deeper understanding of the process of teaching and learning that occurs in the program without seeking to change the course. The last type of evaluation is summative evaluation, which concerns the effectiveness of the whole program. As for ESP courses, Hutchinson & Waters (1993) proposed two levels of evaluation: a learner assessment which is a need to assess student performance at strategic points in the course and course evaluation which assesses whether the course objectives are met, whether there is any problem with the syllabus, the materials, the teaching and learning techniques, the testing procedures, logistical/ administrative arrangements, or the course evaluation system (Hutchinson & Waters, 1993). Ellis (2003) mentioned a lack of empirical information about complete task-based courses. He proposed two approaches to evaluation: micro-evaluation, which focuses on a single task, and macro-evaluation, which aims to evaluate the entire task-based course. The micro-evaluation of a task can be used to investigate whether a task 'worked' for a particular group of learners. It can also identify the weakness in the design. There are three types of evaluation. Firstly, a student-based evaluation is aimed at identifying the students' attitudes towards and opinions about the task. The tools to be used are questionnaires or short interviews.

Secondly, a response-based evaluation examines the actual outcomes of the task whether they match the predicted outcome or not. Thirdly, a learning-based evaluation is to establish whether the task has resulted in language learning. Ellis (2003) also suggested that there is a need for more evaluations of task-based programs. In the ESP field, Robinson (1991) stated that the basic tools to evaluate an ESP course are those that can be used for needs analysis; namely, questionnaire, checklist, rating scales, interviews, observation, records, and assessment. She also emphasized a cross-checking of results using triangulation, which means targeting the same point by means of two or more techniques of evaluation. Kennedy (1985) mentioned that the most illuminating feedback comes from students' comments on the success and failure of each unit. These comments often reveal the real problems that occur and if they are not resolved on time, they may cause the failure of the course. The present study can respond to what Ellis and Kennedy pointed out in the sense that the students' attitudes are put to account. The results of pre-test and post-test together with the opinions of both teacher and students can show the actual outcome of tasks and identify whether the task has resulted in language learning.

In summary, the steps of ESP course development can be found in many resources. It was very similar to general English syllabus design but more variables are to be taken into account. Those variables are the target situation analysis, needs analysis, and learners' characteristics. And the most important characteristic of ESP is that it is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners in order to prepare them for their occupation in the future (Johns and Price-Machado, 2001; and Smoak, 2003). In this study, the learners are monks aged between 25 and 54 years old, so another factor to be taken into consideration is the fact that they are adult learners. They have prior knowledge and experiences. The monk students in this group have the same purpose to prepare themselves to go for their mission abroad. They seem like a homogeneous group, but actually they are very different especially in the level of their English education background.

Social Constructivism is also taken into consideration when planning the present study. Constructivists believe that learners (especially adults who have prior experiences and knowledge like the monks in this study) can co-construct their knowledge through social interaction in class. In addition, learner autonomy is reinforced during the class activities in light that the monk students will go on

searching for knowledge for themselves after the training when they need to adjust to the new society abroad. Once the variables are put into consideration, an approach that can respond to all requirements as well as fit the limited time is task-based instruction. Therefore, tasks are defined, different frameworks of TBI are reviewed (Ellis, 2006) and Willis's (1996) are selected. Material development and lesson planning are touched upon and finally, course evaluation is discussed.

## **2.4 Previous research concerning TBL**

The task-based approach has been used in teaching English for about two decades. Prabhu (1987) applied it to some classes in primary and secondary schools in southern India in 1979. The results showed that students learned more vocabulary than expected in the syllabus and they could express their ideas naturally. Coleman (1987) used it at the university level in Indonesia and found that it worked well even in a large class of 110 students. Somerville-Ryan (1987) presented task prototypes and a teaching procedure developed in the LEAP Language Arts program in Singapore. He proposed that the role of the teacher is more than a facilitator and organizer of situation and activities; his guidance and monitoring are virtual if skill areas are to develop. He mentioned that if teachers are not part of the solution for slow learners, they are part of the problem. Samuda (2001) used it with ESL students who planned to study in US colleges. The result showed that the students experienced greater difficulty with form than with meaning. Yuan (2001) investigated the effects of pre-task and on-line planning on second language oral and written production in terms of fluency, complexity, and accuracy of 42 fourth year university students in China. The study suggested that both pre-task planning and on-line planning can influence language use, but in different areas and to different extents. Fluency can be best enhanced if learners are given opportunities to do both types of planning. Pre-task planning can improve complex language use and on-line planning can result in greater accuracy. Lee (2002) studied the effects of task complexity on the complexity and accuracy of oral production in L2 of 82 Korean students. The experiment claimed that more complex tasks would elicit less fluent but more accurate as well as more complex language in L2 oral production. Hunter (2005) used task support with graphics and varied processing with second year Japanese engineering students and it worked for both beginners and advanced students.

The task-based approach is also popular for ESP courses. Sawkins (1996) developed a course using a task-based syllabus design for advanced ESL for Tourism and Customer Relations at Vancouver Community College. He suggested that teacher reflection, as case-study research, is a valuable tool for learning about complex issues. Hussin (2002) used task-based learning as one part of her teaching modes in an ESP program for migrant students of Nursing in Flinders University, Australia. She suggested that ESP practitioners need more knowledge in the three areas of speech act shifts, implicitness, and assertion in order to extend students' sociolinguistic repertoire and develop their sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and strategic competence. Orsi and Orsi (2002) developed an ESP program for professionals in the beer industry in Argentina to prepare them for an overseas seminar in which English would be used almost exclusively in the Netherlands. They used authentic, appealing materials in the workplace and created some when necessary. Instructors balanced content and language and employed effective classroom strategies. Their outcomes were so successful that the materials designed for this ESP program have become an important part of the brewery's library.

In the Thai context, Sumate (1996) developed her activating English language skills curriculum using task-based approach for fifth and sixth grade students in private schools in Thailand. She developed a curriculum that consisted of all key elements and used task as the unit of analysis. After teaching she found that the experimental group achieved higher mean scores than the control group. Vadhanamara (1996) studied the effects of using task-based activities on English language communicative ability of second year students at the Royal Thai Air Force Academy. She also found that the integrated skills and each skill of the students developed by using task-based activities were better than those of the students taught by using the activities in the instructor's textbook adopted by the English Language Center, Defense Language Institute, USA. Une-Aree (2002) developed an English course for the School of Fine and Applied Arts at Bangkok University using the task-based learning approach and found that the approach increased motivation and created a sense of achievement in students. Similarly, Ratanawong (2005) studied sixth grade students in Ayuthaya province and also found that task-based instruction promoted her students' learning both cognitively and affectively because the students enjoyed studying and developed their learning skills consecutively. All these studies found the



task-based approach successful in their educational contexts. However, no research has been conducted with an intensive ESP course in Thailand. Therefore, it is a challenge to investigate whether it can work well in an intensive course for Buddhist missionary monks.

There are a lot of research studies concerning Buddhist monks in Thailand, but few studies focus on missionary monks with overseas duties. Pitakmahaketu (1991) constructed teaching materials to teach spoken English to graduate monk students at Mahachulalongkornrajawittayalaya, a monk university, using cassette tapes and a lot of frequently asked questions (FAQ). From the evaluation of the test results by three evaluators, the sampling group (18 monks) had a significant development in oral English. Chimroylarp (1998) surveyed the needs of English from the missionary monks working in the United States and proposed the topics to be taught to monks in the training program. This program then was studied and evaluated by Pongpatthana (2002), who reported many aspects of the program including English teaching. He suggested that English is needed not only to teach Dhamma and communicate with USA residents, but also to teach meditation. Moreover, in that part of the training program concerning monastery administration for public utility, they should be taught US construction laws in order to request permission to construct a building in their temples. He also suggested that a longer program is preferred and meditation as well as English discussion in classes should be added to the course. The present study is conducted to fulfill the need of the training program using the task-based approach. It is hoped that the study will help provide guidelines and suggestions on how to implement a good language program for Buddhist missionary monks who are going to work abroad.

Apparently there has been a great deal of research with successful results using task-based syllabus design around the world (Prabhu, 1987; Coleman, 1987; Carless and Gordon, 1997; Samuda, 2001; Yuan, 2001; Lee, 2002; Hunter, 2005; Duckett, 2005; and Jeon & Hahn, 2006). In Thailand, several educators have found they worked well in different kinds of classes (Sumate, 1996; Vadhanamara, 1996; Une-Aree, 2002; Rattanawong, 2005). However, not any of them involves missionary monks, even though this group of learners has been trained and sent to work abroad consecutively for years. And most of all, they represent Thai monks who carry the country's reputation with them to their destinations around the world. So, there is a

need to develop an effective syllabus for this group of learners so that they gain confidence to use English for their mission and daily life as well as have enough English proficiency to conduct their missions with high self-esteem.

## 2.5 The Present Study

The purpose of this study is to develop an ESP course for Buddhist missionary monks going abroad, therefore the target situations for the students were considered first. Munby's framework was widely used because it is carefully designed. Thus it is selected and adapted to be used in this study.

In 1978 when John Munby published his *Communicative Syllabus Design*, he proposed that the following variables were to be considered as the communicative needs. 1) Purposive domain which means to specify what type of ESP the syllabus is supposed to be, an occupational or an educational purpose. 2) Setting which refers to physical setting, the place where the target language is to be used; and psychosocial settings which are seen as different environments in which the target language is to be used. 3) Interaction which refers to the person(s) that the target language is to be used with, what their role-set identity, role relationship and social relationship are. 4) Instrumentality which refers to medium (spoken or written or both), mode (monologue, spoken to be heard, dialogue, written to be read), and channel of communication (face-to-face, telephone, print). 5) Dialect which involves regional, social class, and temporal. 6) Target level which refers to the participant's target level of command that will guide the further processing. 7) Communicative event which concerns what the participant has to do using the target language. 8) Communicative key which concerns what and how one does the activities. They are divided into two categories: the first is what the participant needs to be able to produce (P); the second is what the participant needs to recognize and understand (R). Munby proposed an *attitudinal-tone index* as a set of words selected to describe the key. His approach was viewed as a landmark in the development of needs analysis and probably the best known framework for target-situation analysis (Jordan, 1997). In addition, Ha (2005) indicated that it was the most detailed, complex and informative, work about learners' needs because he considered every aspect concerning learners' needs. With all the strengths mentioned, when planning this study, Munby's framework is used as a guideline in designing the syllabus. The detailed information is presented in Table 2.1

Table 2.1 Communicative Needs Processor Variables Used in This Study

1. Purposive domain	Occupational purpose: Buddhist missionary monks with assignment outside of Thailand Educational purpose: N/A
2. Setting	Location: foreign countries, e.g., USA, UK, New Zealand, India, Singapore, Malaysia, Germany, Russia, Sweden Place of work: temples abroad Other places: the embassy, airport, airplane, Immigration office, on the street, on public transportation, in the doctor office Size of institution: large
3. Interaction	Role-set: the missionary monks in the temple abroad Age-group: mixed Sex: mixed Social relationships: monk-congregations, passenger-air crew, new arriver-immigration officer, patient-doctor, teacher-student, individual-society, neighbor-neighbor, learner-instructor
4. Instrumentality	medium: spoken (receptive and productive), written (receptive and productive) Mode: monologue-spoken to be heard, monologue-written to be read, dialogue - spoken to be heard, dialogue - written to be read Channel: face-to-face (bilateral and unilateral), telephone (bilateral and unilateral)
5. Dialect	Regional: N/A Dialect and accent: standard English Social class: N/A
6. Communicative events	Main: Interchange between monks and congregations Interchange between Thai teacher and foreign students Other: Interview with the Embassy officer Interchange between passenger and air crew Interchange between newly arrived visitors with the immigration officer Interchange between patient and doctor Interchange between individual in the community

	<p>Communicative activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Explaining Buddhism and its importance</li> <li>Teaching meditation</li> <li>Explaining monk's role and duties in Thai society</li> <li>Discussing the significance of daily chanting</li> <li>Listening to congregations' problems and answering base on Buddhist way of life</li> <li>Discussing Dhamma issues</li> <li>Talking about Thai culture and belief</li> <li>Asking and answering questions</li> <li>Filling forms and document required</li> <li>Listening to instructions or announcements and responding properly at the airport</li> <li>Listening to instructions or announcements and responding properly on the plane</li> <li>Requesting information and assistance</li> <li>Asking and answering questions at the immigration office</li> <li>Making an appointment on the phone</li> <li>Describing and answering questions about own illness</li> <li>Reporting problems or requesting assistance about health</li> <li>Reading instructions, schedule, signs and maps and Asking for directions when lost</li> <li>Listening and responding to the phone</li> </ul>
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With regard to the purposive domain, this syllabus is for an occupational purpose. The students are 77 Thai Buddhist monks aged 25-54 who plan to work as missionary monks abroad. A few monks have been abroad, but the majority never. Their educational backgrounds are varied, mostly graduated with a Bachelor's degree from a monk university. Some of the minority has higher education and some have less than secondary school certificates. They need English for their daily use and for their mission to teach Buddhism and maintain the monastery affair. In terms of setting, the monk students will have to use English in the temples outside of Thailand where they need to communicate with foreign people in and outside the temples. The



psychosocial setting that derives from the specification would be: culturally different, ethical and non-ethical, religious and secular, intellectual and non-intellectual, urban and rural, professional, private and public, familiar and unfamiliar physical, familiar and unfamiliar human, fairly quiet, demanding, unhurried, informal, entertaining and serious, harmonious, and sympathetic. Also, the monks may use English in various situations, for instance with their congregations as the host in their temples, as teachers of Buddhism or Thai language to students, as passengers to the air crews on the plane, as patients to the doctors when they are sick, etc. The monk will use English mostly as spoken receptive and productive medium, while written medium will be used when filling out some necessary forms. Generally they will use English for monologue, spoken to be heard, and written to be read; and dialogue, spoken to be heard, and written to be read. The channel of communication will be face-to-face and telephone.

Even though the majority of the monks will go to the United States of America, the dialect of English is not required by this group of students. Target level is not included in this study because it deals with scales of value whether a person needs English from very low to very high in size of utterance/ text, complexity of utterance, range of form, delicacy of form, speed of communication, and flexibility. Each individual will have different dimensions and conditions when using English in different places. It is not possible to arrange lessons to fit individual needs in the situation of training 77 monks at the same time, so the lesson assumes that the dimension and condition level of every aspect is middling. However, it is anticipated that main communicative events are mostly in the temples abroad; others may take place in the community near the temple. Samples of the activities are greeting and leave-taking, requesting assistance, asking for and following directions, and teaching Buddhism or Thai language. Communicative key as provided by Munby's attitudinal-tone index is too specific and for this course might not be necessary to emphasize, so this variable is also excluded from the study.

After the needs have been analyzed and translated to lesson outlines, the next step is to plan the whole lessons. The method that provides chances for students to construct their knowledge autonomously and, simultaneously, prepare students for their future missions is task-based instruction. Therefore, TBI is selected as the main method of this study. According to Oxford (2006), there are three possible task goals, namely, focus on meaning, focus on form, and focus on forms, and there may be other

potential additional task goals. To illustrate, for focus on meaning, learners are to communicate in L2 and work on tasks without any teaching of grammar structures or rules. It is assumed that they will naturally develop the grammar knowledge themselves. Focus on form stresses meaning in context but shifts to forms or usage occasionally as necessitated by demands of the tasks, and these forms are also discussed in the post-task phase. Finally, focus on forms refers to teaching the usage first so that the students can be familiar with grammatical structures and rules to be used when they need to negotiate meanings. The other potential additional task goals cover learning to learn, and understanding one's own learning style. In this study focus on form is more appropriate for the monk students because the objectives of the program are for the monks to be able to use English for communication in their daily life and for work requirements, so they are to use English to convey meaning. However, grammar and pronunciation will also be beneficial for the monks especially the ones with good background in English who expect to improve their language; therefore, the form can be discussed and taught in the last phase. A partial sample lesson plan based on Willis's framework of task-cycles is presented below. (Also see Appendix G for a complete lesson plan.)

## Unit 1

### Applying for visas

#### Unit objectives:

1. to have students practice filling out forms and documents required
2. to have students practice answering interview questions at the embassy

**Duration:** 180 minutes

**Expected outcomes:** Students will be able to

1. fill out forms and documents required
2. answer questions about themselves during the interview session at the embassy

#### Tasks

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##### Pre-task 1 (20 minutes)

1. Teacher elicits necessary words used for form filling such as first name, surname, address, place of birth, date of birth, nationality, issuance date, expiry date, etc. Then she posts all the cards with those words on the board (task sheet 1 part 1).

Teacher should also ask questions to check students' background knowledge on form filling. A blank form (task sheet 1 part 2) should be posted on the board after the students identify the meaning of each word posted. The language used as a medium of instruction is English and Thai or code switching.

2. Teacher asks for a volunteer who will be interviewed by the class to seek his personal information. Then students use the information to fill out the form on the board. Teacher facilitates the asking and answering questions process. Clarification and explanation may be given.
3. After the form on the board is completed, teacher tells students that the visa application forms will be distributed to the groups that aim to go to certain countries. So the students who are going to the USA sit together and work on the US visa, the students who are going to Europe sit together and work on EU visa. Each group should not have more than five people. All the group members will work together on the task assigned.

#### **Task cycle1 (50 minutes)**

1. An application (task sheet 2) is given to all students. They are to fill out the forms with their personal information. They are allowed to discuss in their group what to write. If there are any problems that the group cannot solve, they are supposed to make a list of the problems and prepare to report those problems after 30 minutes.
2. Each group sends a representative to report the problems they face in filling out the forms

#### **Language focus 1 (30 minutes)**

1. Teacher discusses with the whole class how to solve each problem reported and explains the language structures or phrases that could have caused the problems; for example, *if applicable, spouse's DOB, mobile/cell number, number of entries requested, civil partnership*, etc. Teacher should explain the meaning and the significance of sentences in the last part of the application before the applicant signs his name. Those sentences may use different wording but they require the applicant to guarantee that he signs the document with full understanding and acceptance of the rules of those destination countries. Those sentences are:

*I, ..... hereby undertake that I shall utilize my visit to India for the purpose for which the visa has been applied for and shall not, on arrival in India, try to obtain employment or set up business or extend my stay for any other purpose.*

*I declare that to the best of my knowledge all particulars supplied by me are correct and complete.*

*I hereby apply for an entry clearance to the United Kingdom. The information I have given is complete and true to the best of my knowledge.*

*I certify that I have read and understood all the questions set forth in this application and the answer I have furnished on this form are true and correct to the best of my knowledge and belief.*

2. After the whole class agrees with what to do, teacher asks some questions to check if they really understand, and then asks the students to finish their application forms.

### Task sheet 1

#### Part 1

These words are in flashcards to be posted on the board during the pre-task stage.

First name	Surname	Date of birth	Nationality
Address	Place of birth	Passport number	Issuance date
Issuing country	Expiration date	National identification number	Occupation
Telephone number	Fax number	Sex	Marital status
Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed
Separated	Spouse	Purpose	Issued
Refused	Revoked	Immigrant	Citizen



**Part 2**

**Instruction:** All the class interviews a volunteer and fills out this form using the information from the interview.

Name .....	(Please print.)		
	first	last	
Age .....	Date of birth .....	Place of birth .....	
ID number .....	Issuance date .....	Expiry date .....	
Passport number .....	Issuance date .....	Expiry date .....	
Issuing country .....	Marital status .....	Sex .....	
Address .....	Occupation .....		

There are two tasks in this lesson. The first task is illustrated in figures 2.4- 2.6 based on Willis's framework.

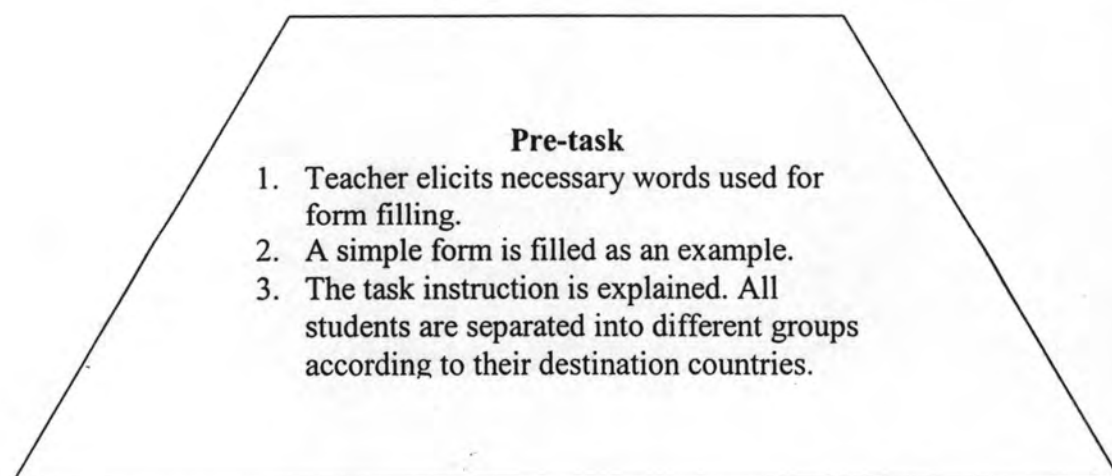


Figure 2.4 The Pre-Task Phase of a Sample Lesson Plan

The pre-task phase was supposed to be finished in twenty minutes. The teacher elicited necessary words from the students first. This was to review and recall the prior knowledge from their schema. Then the teacher asked for a volunteer to be the person whose personal information would be used to fill in a form so that all the

When this lesson was taught in the main study, many advanced students tried to present as many words as they could to show their prior knowledge of vocabulary. In a big class like this one, there were always those who liked to show off and those who liked to keep silent. The teacher could make use of the outspoken ones to help others when needed. And these people usually felt good to be able to take this kind of responsibility because they could contribute to the class, similar to what Smith (2003) mentioned about the adult learner pattern five who thrive when they learn in a class where their contributions are significant and accepted by the whole group. This group of adult learners could also help create relaxed the atmosphere of the class.

<b>Task cycle</b>		
<b>Task</b>	<b>Plan</b>	<b>Report</b>
Individual students work on their visa application, but they can discuss with other members in their group if they have problems.	Students are expected to select a representative to report the problems they face in filling out the visa application form.	A representative from each group takes turn reporting their problems. Teacher sums up all problems and discusses them with students.

Figure 2.5 The Task-Cycle Phase of the Sample Lesson Plan

Students have 30 minutes to finish this task and select a person to report. This task was quite difficult for the students who had never filled out this kind of form. They needed to use their own schema to accrete, tune, and restructure with the new information. As Driscoll (1994: 152) stated, "People bring to tasks imprecise, partial, and idiosyncratic understandings that evolve with experience". Thus different students came with different experience. Only some students could manage to fill out their forms. Actually, they were not really expected to finish it on time. On the other hand, they were expected to communicate with other members to try to figure out what to fill in as many blanks as possible. After twenty minutes, the teacher told them to start to plan and rehearse their presentation. Then the representatives took turns presenting the problem they faced during the task time. Teacher took notes and summed up all the problems and questions, then gave feedback and comments to all the groups. This

groups. This part of the task responded to almost every feature to help students construct their knowledge. First of all, the students had to do this task to serve their needs in real life. Each individual student had to do this by themselves and if they could not, they needed to communicate with others so that they could get some help. This represented the real society that they had to live in. The students who had experience in filling out the visa application could finish their own form and help other friends in the group. At this point they became the mediators who helped scaffold their peers. By helping one another or sharing information, they could learn from the members of their groups during peer interaction. They learned not only the language but also how to achieve the group goal. Many people could also learn some learning strategies from their peers. One remarkable characteristic of this group of students was that the missionary monks were usually very generous. They were kind to their friends. Even though some students were too slow or lacked knowledge in English, no one looked down on them. The majority of the class showed the willingness to help.

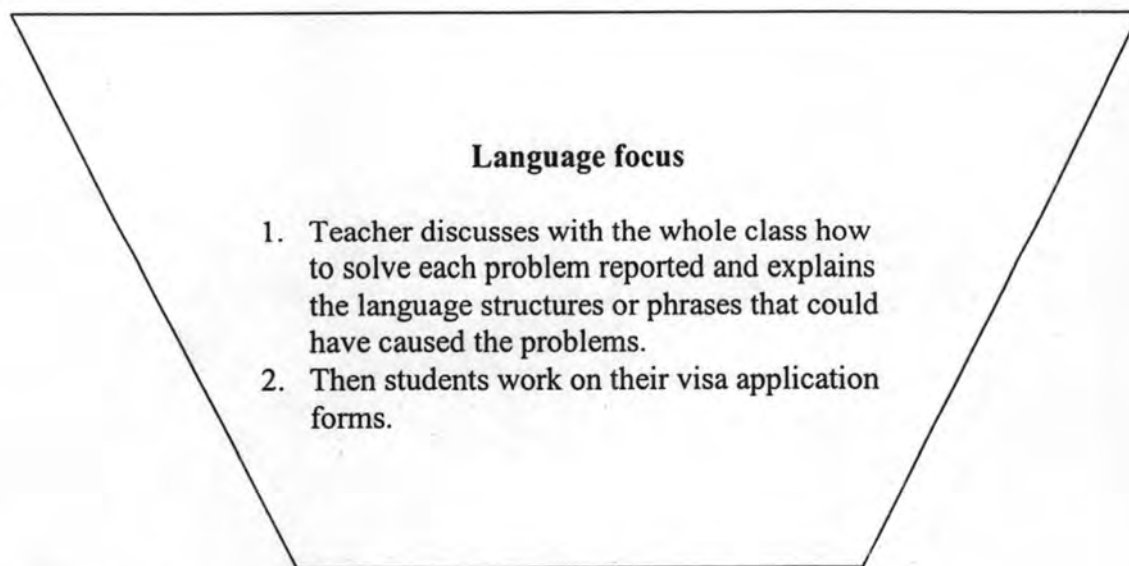


Figure 2.6 The Language Focus Phase of the Sample Lesson Plan

When it was the time for teacher to control the class, the students who loved the traditional way of teaching felt they got a chance to study, while the other students had a chance to listen to comments and feedback and learn from them. At this point, they could learn not only the language but also how to make constructive comment. The problems and the errors students made in the former phase would be discussed

and explained at this stage. Some students asked questions about other things that may or may not exactly involve visa application. The teacher had to listen carefully and react positively to all the questions asked to make sure that no one lost his face when making a comment or asking a question. As adult learners, this enhanced their self-confidence and self-esteem as they knew that the teacher took their questions seriously and that what they expressed were recognized. Some useful phrases or sentences could be further discussed and some words could be emphasized in terms of pronunciation if requested. After that the teacher could show one of the students' completed form as an example to the whole class and let the rest finish theirs.

## **2.6 Summary**

This chapter reviews ESP syllabus design, and other features concerning the learners, such as learning styles, the concept of constructivism focusing especially on social constructivism and scaffolding, and the most important issue: task-based instruction. The present study adopts Munby's framework (1978) and Willis (1996)'s task-based language approach as major frameworks in conducting needs analysis and designing the intensive course respectively. These two topics are reviewed in detail with samples of real information.

As can be seen, research studies on TBI conducted thus far have reported promising results as far as linguistic accuracy, fluency and learners' confidence are concerned. Since research on ESP for monks is still lacking, it may be worth investigating if TBI will be effective when applied to the intensive English course for monk students. If it were found to be successful, it could make significant contributions, both theoretical and pedagogical, to the field of English language teaching and ESP specifically.