

Chapter 11

Afterword: Future Directions for Technology-Mediated Tasks

Gary Motteram and Michael Thomas

[A] The future and the past

Trying to predict the future is a rather dangerous pastime. This has always been true where the future of technology is concerned. In 1943 the chairman of IBM predicted that it was unlikely that the world market could sustain more than five computers. Three decades later in 1977, the CEO of a prominent digital technology company predicted that it was unlikely that anyone would ever need a computer in their own home. Being unable to predict the future, even when major transformations are only a short time away, is equally true of language education, where methodologies rarely seem to fulfil their potential or live up to their advocates' ambitions in precisely the ways they once envisaged. TBLT is currently being advocated as the replacement for communicative language teaching. As the chapters in this book indicate, however, advocates must be careful not to overestimate its potential and adopt a flexible rather than exclusive approach that is open to other research traditions – one that in emphasising the negotiation of meaning does not exclude linguistic input, or in emphasising authentic tasks does not neglect the way ICTs are reshaping patterns of communicative activity.

In considering the future of technology-mediated tasks, previous research on TBLT and CALL appears to have been rather limited. At first glance, this seems rather anomalous, as there is an obvious link between learning technologies and the use of tasks. Indeed, Levy and Stockwell (2006) identified 'task' as the seventh most

frequently used keyword identifier in their corpus of major CALL research between 1999 and 2005. As this statistic suggests, in our increasingly networked world, technology provides significant opportunities for learners to engage in exactly the kinds of authentic task-based activities focused on developing communicative fluency, accuracy and complexity that are so often missing from conventional language curricula.

Teachers who use technology have not just discovered TBLT then; it is perhaps more accurate to argue that their work with tasks has not fallen within the specific parameters of the ‘stronger’ version of TBLT suggested by Norris, Bygate and Van den Branden (2009) and described in chapter 1. As there have been few examples of extensive TBLT-designed programmes, there are fewer if any CALL-based curricula that adhere to a rigorous TBLT foundation. This tendency has been conditioned by a number of factors, not least by the way CALL researchers frame their teaching practice, principally because they have an interest in the eclectic array of disciplines that have influenced computer-assisted language learning since its formal beginnings in 1983 (Chapelle, 2001). As Levy (1997) pointed out over ten years ago, CALL research draws on a mixed array of disciplinary and interdisciplinary influences from Human-Computer Interaction, Psychology, Instructional Technology and Design, Applied Linguistics, Computational Linguistics and Artificial Intelligence. However, if we take the ‘weaker’ definition of TBLT suggested by Thomas and Reinders in chapter 1, it is possible to identify an already existing and developing body of CALL research relating to task design, sequencing and implementation, to name but three areas of concern, which will be valuable signposts for the future.

Chapelle (2001, p. 41), for example, utilising a similar set of influences to Levy, examined how CALL and a task-based framework might be established. She presented a series of questions through which she asked readers to consider how a future research agenda might be conducted in the area of task-based CALL. The questions that Chapelle asked almost a decade ago, particularly the first four, are still relevant to a number of ideas and issues that are raised by contributors in this book vis-à-vis L2 ability. In Chapelle's first question the emphasis is on asking how computers can be used to enhance communicative development. In the second question Chapelle focuses on how collaborative CALL activities can be used to develop communication. The third question is concerned with how AI and ICALL applications can foster communicative competence and improve assessment. In the fourth question we are asked about the role of software that recognises and produces language. All of Chapelle's questions have been addressed in this book and while Chapelle and Levy are not necessarily using the same terminology, their concerns and the concerns of other users of technology in language classrooms are very similar. As far as tasks and CALL are concerned then, the past is not another country; tasks have been an integral and structural component of CALL research for over two decades (Levy & Stockwell, 2006). While the future remains difficult to predict, that leaves us with the present state of task-based learning and the potential of CALL.

[A] The present

The world of language learning and teaching has entered a phase that Johnson (2006, p. 235) has called the 'sociocultural turn'. Sociocultural theory is also referred to by Rod Ellis in the Foreword to this volume and has been a key feature of a number of the chapters on computer-mediated communication. The particular aspect of

sociocultural theory that has been presented most overtly in this book is Activity Theory (AT), most notably in chapter 2 by Müller-Hartmann and Schocker-v. Ditfurth, but also in other chapters through references to Lantolf and Thorne, or Vygotsky.

At the same time as sociocultural theory and the web have emerged, TBLT has become one of the most potentially significant methodological discourses following criticisms of ‘communicative’ language teaching. Indeed, it would not be difficult to reframe Chappelle’s original questions with similar ones about TBLT. One other development in the field of language teaching is the use of case studies (Edge & Richards, 1998) to reflect on the ‘situated’ nature of teaching and learning (Slaouti, Motteram & Onat-Stelma, in press). The idea that language educators should theorise from and about their practice has been well rehearsed by Kumaravadivelu (2001) in his references to the *particular*, ‘based on a true understanding of local linguistic, social, cultural, and political particularities’ (p. 544); the *practical* ‘which encourages teachers to theorize from their practice and to practice what they theorize’ (p. 545); and the *possible* which emphasises the relationship between language learning and sociocultural reality, and the need to recognise the social needs and identities that come with each individual learner. Indeed, in this volume we have seen a series of cases that in applying a task-based framework do precisely that. At this point, two vignettes can be used to illustrate how many of the concerns of TBLT identified in the preceding chapters can be used to create synergies with CALL research on tasks.

[A] Two vignettes

[B] Vignette 1: Language teaching in virtual classrooms or via Skype

The LANCELOT project¹, funded by the European Commission, is concerned with the growth of desktop video conferencing (DTVC) to deliver language learning across the world. A second project, AVALON, focuses on twenty-first century Multi-User Virtual Environments (MUVES), in particular Second Life, as a site for task-based language learning. These two technology-mediated learning environments offer the possibility of synchronous audio communication, in the first case with video and in the second case as an avatar interacting within a virtual world that can be made to appear and act like the real world, if this is what is required. These environments are both described by various contributors to this volume as technology-mediated multimodal spaces (e.g. Hauck, chapter 10).

Synchronous communication has come a long way in the last few years, particularly with developments in audio communication, but increasingly video is also a distinct possibility. However, we need to use such tools with caution as Stockwell reminds us in chapter 5, which compares synchronous and asynchronous text-based tools, and to understand how learners respond to task-based learning in these online mediated contexts. We can easily find ourselves in what is often termed a virtual classroom (see Hiltz, 1994 for some seminal discussion of these tools) many of which are now freely available on the web. In fact, a good deal of online teaching via synchronous audio communication tools is conducted via Skype with a number of articles starting to appear from 2005 (Godwin-Jones, 2005; Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008; Telles & Vassallo, 2006). What does this trend reflect?

For the teachers who are creating these lessons this technology has been normalised; this is increasingly the case for their learners too. People are becoming more familiar

with Voice over Internet Protocol (VOIP) tools like Skype, and are using them in their everyday lives; they are also increasingly possible in education institutions. However, it is often the case that many of these lessons are being conducted by people who have set up and run their own internet-based businesses. One example is provided by English Lab (<http://www.englishlab.net>) run by Anastasia Andros who uses a combination of web-based technologies (Moodle, Skype and WizIQ) for her distance-based teaching. Her choice is partly conditioned by her circumstances, but also relates to the needs of her students. Anastasia's learners are mainly interested in gaining qualifications that enable them to study abroad. This leads her to make certain choices in the tasks that she asks her students to engage in. One of her assignments from the MA in Educational Technology and TESOL completed at the University of Manchester in the UK was to produce some web pages that were built around a *WordPress* blog being used as a Content Management System (CMS). She chose to design pages that focused on developing her students' skills on Part 2 of the IELTS speaking test (a short talk). Her decision-making process was based on an analysis of her students' needs. This can be seen in Activity Theory terms as represented in Figure 11.1.

[Insert Figure 11.1 about here]

We can see that Anastasia is engaging in the first of Long and Norris' (2000) six-step process. In AT terms she is performing an action (see the discussion of Level II by Müller-Hartmann and Schocker-v. Ditfurth in chapter 2). Anastasia is doing this in order to inform herself about the choices she needs to make to provide her learners with effective tasks. The action of engaging in a needs analysis helps her to make

decisions about what she should do with her learners, but not necessarily about the tools. She may well have certain beliefs about the tools herself (Slaouti, Motteram & Onat-Stelma, in press); however, in this case she makes use of a blog to achieve her ends, partly as the result of the assignment that she was expected to produce. What this illustrates is that she is engaged in two actions as a teacher. The first is concerned with someone who is making a choice about which technology to use in order to mediate this particular task. In the second she addresses what the task will need to be like in order for it to achieve its aims, and how the particular task design will mediate the process.

In chapter 10 Hauck describes how a particular set of tasks being used to develop e-literacy skills were negotiated in a team of tutors and how much work this might take. Hauck's chapter invokes Halliday's socio-semiotic framework to discuss this particular task and it would be possible to frame what Anastasia is doing in a similar way. Anastasia is helped in that she is working on her own with a group of learners and the choices that she makes are not being dictated by a particular organisation or by other people. They are clearly mediated by her desire to meet the needs of her students and the beliefs that she has about methodology that could be described as task-based. Hauck is working with a team of tutors in different pedagogical contexts who have to reach agreement about how to construct a task – a process that proves to be much more difficult than was originally envisaged. The local conditions, the sociocultural reality, dictate the construction of tasks in both cases. Moreover, Collentine (chapter 6) also provides an example of the complexity associated with constructing TBLT in a synchronous task environment.

Teachers who took part in the LANCELOT project also established a small business to teach languages online using various Web 2.0 tools, but particularly focused around different forms of DTVC. The course they took made them reflect on how tasks might relate to technology. A heuristic called the Hexagon model was used in the course to help them do this. In Figure 11.2 we can see how this worked.

[Insert Figure 11.2 about here]

This model, constructed by Armellini, McLoughlin and Motteram (2006) as a part of the LANCELOT project, used different elements that a teacher needs to consider when making choices about how to design a technology-mediated task. It was used as a course tool to get the teachers to manage task construction in a complex multimodal space. When you look at the model you need to start from the centre and make choices according to the characteristics of the lesson. As you move from the centre, it becomes more difficult to manage the tasks. For example, working with an advanced learner, one-to-one, with text-based exchanges where you are focusing on access and familiarisation, produces an easier working environment. So if you are a novice teacher you may start from this point, and as you add complexity (see Collentine, chapter 6), the tasks become increasingly more difficult both for learners and teachers.

[B] Vignette 2: Language learning in Second Life

In the second European project (AVALON), researchers have been making use of Second Life as an exemplar for a MUVE. Second Life is a complex learning space, but as Reeder points out in chapter 9, learners will be increasingly expected to

develop appropriate tasks in these technology-mediated environments in the future. At the moment, AVALON project members are working with a team of people who are doing a variety of teaching in Second Life. Two of the courses include Debating and Business English. There is even more of a need in a MUVE to prepare learners for the technological infrastructure needed to function in the environment (Dudeney & Ramsey, 2009). Throughout any teaching period there is a good chance that technological problems may arise, despite the fact that both teachers and learners are becoming increasingly familiar with technology in the classroom. The use of technology-mediated tasks in instructed environments must also acknowledge the potential for technical problems such as lag-time when using the web; if such issues become a major concern, the focus on tasks may be obscured.

Although the Hexagon model was established for use in the DTVC world, we can see that it is applicable for the use of tasks in Second Life as well. In Second Life it is difficult to start simply with text, as from the very beginning instructors need to be able to negotiate their way around the environment. However, if the students are finding access to the virtual environment problematic, they can be supported with more familiar tools, such as Skype for example. Teachers and learners could still meet one-to-one and deliver a course; however, the affordances of Second Life would encourage them to move away from these more basic tasks quite quickly. These are some of the challenges that teachers and learners face as they move into more complex technology-mediated digital environments to conduct task-based language learning and teaching.

In a document constructed for the AVALON project wiki, Deutschmann (2009) points out that it is necessary to have a decision-making process that starts at an appropriate time before teachers begin integrating tasks in the classroom (see Figure 11.3). This understanding reinforces the notion that TBLT has to be prepared for well in advance and that teacher training is an essential component of the process (see Raith & Hegelheimer, chapter 8).

[Insert Figure 11.3 about here]

Deutschmann's model implies that in order to make effective decisions instructors need to start from an appropriate philosophical standpoint; they need to be tuned in to the needs of TBLT as well as those of the learners. In a paper with Molka-Danielsen (2009), Deutschmann describes the realisation of his ideas in relation to a Debating course. He discusses in detail the nature of his learner group and how he adjusts his curriculum to suit the tasks that he asks them to do in Second Life. He factors in different learning outcomes to satisfy the needs of the diverse student groups on the course because, as he shows in his data, the learners orient themselves differently to the learning outcomes for the course. Deutschmann also makes use of activity theory to support teachers' understanding of what is going on in this context. In any activity system it is never clear whether the different parts of the community have the same idea about the anticipated outcomes. In this context, Deutschmann is emphasising that teachers need to be more aware of the *different* expectations of the learners in the group in order to achieve appropriate learning outcomes arising from the task.

In adjusting tasks for computer-mediated communication contexts, as Deutschmann suggests, teachers will become increasingly aware of the ‘situated’ nature of tasks, particularly in relation to different curricula and types of learner, as well as different institutional and cultural assumptions. The integration of tasks in CMC therefore can be used to shed fresh light on criticisms that have emerged about task-based approaches, reinforcing that while TBLT has much to recommend it, there is no ‘one’ single best method of language learning and teaching.

[A] Three current criticisms of TBLT

Although tasks have been advanced as a way of producing learning conditions conducive for second language acquisition, three main critiques of the task-based approach have emerged over the last decade, as Ellis (2003, pp. 328-327) suggests:

1. The focus on tasks leads to a too restrictive and functional approach;
2. The argument that TBLT is an Anglo-American methodology;
3. The impossibility of using a task-based approach to develop communicative competence.

[B] Criticism 1: A focus on tasks is restrictive

The focus of the first critique is the claim that by implementing a purely task-based approach, this restricts many of the creative features often associated with language education. Ellis (2003, p. 330) draws attention to Cook’s (2000) formulation of current pedagogical approaches (by which he means task-based learning) alongside ‘features of language play’. TBLT is identified with a functional emphasis on ‘information’, ‘exactitude’, ‘mundane subject matter’, ‘usefulness’ and ‘one-off activities’ rather than creativity, ‘indeterminate meanings’, and ‘pleasure’.

Such an emphasis on functional rather than creative task-based activities is at odds with the much-vaunted ‘digital natives’ – a new generation of learners who are typically identified with the need to move to new types of creative pedagogy. There have been various attempts to categorise this new generation of learners, and in addition to Prensky’s term (2001), some of the prominent labels include ‘cyberkids’ (Holloway & Valentine, 2003), and ‘net generation’ (Oxford & Oxford, 2009; Tapscott, 1998). All of these labels attempt to define a new generation of young people, predominantly in terms of age, who have grown up with the World Wide Web and the everyday use of computer-mediated communication, both inside and perhaps more importantly outside of formal learning contexts. It is a common assumption of this concept that there is a resultant ‘digital divide’ between this generation of net-savvy students and their parents and teachers, the so-called ‘digital immigrants’, who speak the language of digital technologies with a ‘thicker accent’. According to this argument, in addition to being strongly influenced by Web-based technologies for communicating, this ‘generation’ is developing multi-tasking and creative higher order critical thinking skills based on easier access to information via search engines and the on-demand video and photo-sharing offered by today’s networked based society.

The effects of out-of-class electronic literacies are also impacting in a significant fashion on their in-class skills and expectations. Tapscott’s (1998) discussion of the net generation, argued that they bring with them a truly transformative power to supplant the transmission model of pedagogy with one based on more interactivity and collaboration. The transmission model of pedagogy is predicated on a ‘one size fits all’ mentality, in which knowledge can be disseminated to all learners regardless

of individual differences or learning styles. Pre-empting a significant amount of later research connected with social constructivism, Taspcott (1998, 2009) outlined the proximity between the digital natives and the principles of an interactionist pedagogy closely aligned with the opportunities afforded to learners by digital technologies.

This interactionist type of pedagogy is identified with a movement from:

1. Linear to hypermedia learning
2. Instruction to construction and discovery
3. Teacher centred to learner centred education
4. Absorbing material to learning how to navigate and how to learn
5. School to lifelong learning
6. One-size fits all to customized or personalized learning
7. Learning as torture to learning as fun
8. The teacher as transmitter to the teacher as facilitator.

Tapscott's work on interactivity also looks forward to the recent interest in the use of digital games for learning, viewing them more as an opportunity for today's net generation to experiment with interactivity and associated skills rather than as a threat due to their popular image of violence and distraction (Gee, 2003).

Based on these principles of learning, the net generation exhibits ten clear criteria which distinguish them from previous generations. The net generation demonstrates a strong propensity for independence, being able to search for and access information that is required by them. Through the use of blogs and other communication tools, they demonstrate an emotional and intellectual openness to others. This spirit of openness is reflected in the net generation's focus on social inclusion evident in their interest in online communities. In addition they demonstrate 'free expression and

strong views', 'innovation', and in contrast to the 'baby boomer' generation, net generation members emphasize their mature attitude to life and learning. Unlike their predecessors they are 'investigators' by nature, and enjoy exploring the myriad of opportunities available on the Web. An investigative spirit is coupled with a great sense of 'immediacy' and the need to do everything at a high speed.

While recent research suggests that the discourse of 'digital natives' is an overly simplistic picture, in that the ability to use digital technologies is mediated by a range of variables including race, socioeconomic class, gender, as well as location (Bayne & Ross, 2007; Bennett, Maton & Kervin, 2008; Pegrum, 2009), it is nevertheless valuable in identifying the importance of new forms of digital literacy. In deconstructing the binary oppositions Cook (2000) established between TBLT and creative approaches to language pedagogy, the development of technology-mediated tasks in language education will have to remain cognisant of the changing patterns of communicative competence used by today's learners.

[B] Criticism 2: Cultural relativity

From the 'critical pedagogy' perspective, task-based approaches may also conceal a number of attitudes that far from being naturalised assumptions merely reflect those of the western educators involved (Pennycook, 1994). This can relate to the content of task-based activities where assumptions about norms and values can influence the underlying socio-political message of a task. Secondly, and perhaps more importantly, it can also relate to the inherent methodological assumptions underpinning the task-based approach itself. These include TBL's emphasis on an anti-hierarchical and

flexible relationship between teachers and students; its conversational methods; and its focus on learner collaboration and participation.

Resistances also occur in contexts in which the L2 is being taught as a ‘second language’ and as a ‘foreign language’. In a foreign language situation, for example, such as Japanese learners of English in Japan, learners have less time exposure to the language both inside and outside of the class. Due to a lack of perceived classroom time, resistance to TBL’s emphasis on ‘a slow, gradual process requiring extensive opportunities for using the language’ may occur (Ellis, 2003, p. 333). Moreover, whereas in ESL contexts instructors are likely to be native speakers, in EFL teachers are likely to be non-native speakers and therefore perhaps less confident about implementing a new methodology in the language classroom. Moreover, when viewed as an innovative and new methodology in an EFL context, task-based learning will require a large-scale change by classroom teachers in different cultures.

As Hauck has argued (chapter 10), the use of technology-mediated tasks within a telecollaborative frameworks can help to alleviate some of these claims by promoting close links between learners and educators in different cultural contexts. Digital technologies can also be used to great effect, as Raith and Hegelheimer contend (chapter 8), to improve teacher education in relation to TBLT by fostering improved access to training and professional development.

[B] Criticism 3: The impossibility of communication

The third and perhaps most serious critique focuses on the inability of tasks to be the most effective method for encouraging second language acquisition in classroom

environments. The typical prevalence of meaning focused as opposed to form focused tasks leads to the criticism that learners do not have sufficient opportunities or motivation to develop their interlanguage adequately (Breen, 2001) such that fossilisation may occur (Skehan, 1998).

A second aspect of this critique examines the central claim that TBL can create truly authentic situations for learners in instructed classroom contexts. The notion that TBL can create authentic environments raises questions about the protocols that govern the way classrooms function, in that while they provide opportunities for communication they cannot be said to reflect real-world communicative interaction (Widdowson, 2001).

Ellis (2003) mounts a response to this argument, suggesting that Widdowson overstates the issue: ‘The central claim is that, through tasks, we can engage learners in the kinds of *cognitive processes* that arise in communication outside the classroom’ (2003, p. 336). Tasks in a classroom environment thus encourage learners to engage in processes such as ‘top-down and bottom-up processing, noticing, negotiating meaning, lexicalized and rule-based production, scaffolded production, private speech, and negotiating form’ (ibid). Such processes can be encouraged, as we saw with Reeder’s discussion of the virtual world of *Edubba* (chapter 9) and Collentine (chapter 6) and Stockwell’s (chapter 5) discussion of multimodal online discourse, by using CMC to present learners with increased access to truly authentic L2 communicative opportunities with native speakers, whether they are inside or outside the classroom.

[A] Back to the future

The increasing prominence of task-based approaches in language education over the last ten to fifteen years has occurred at the same time as the emergence of digital technologies. Like task-based learning, digital technologies have been advocated as inherently ‘innovative’ and ‘transformative’, particularly in the sphere of educational practice and classroom methodology (Thomas, 2009). The application of digital technologies in education has been most closely identified with a social constructivist approach to learning, a methodology that has clear parallels with task-based learning. If TBLT is to move from theory to practice it has to become more cognisant of the ways that technology is increasingly mediating many forms of L1 and L2 communication, as well as of the significance of changing pedagogy both within and outside of classrooms. Few studies to date have explored the pedagogical challenges accompanying the integration of technology-mediated task-based learning in non-western contexts, where resistances and obstacles to new pedagogies are likely to occur, and this is surely one rich vein of research to pursue in the future.

In Japan, to identify one example, task-based language teaching is still a relatively new approach, and until recently communicative language teaching has been central to government policymaking in the area of English language education (MEXT, 1989, 2003; Stewart, 2009). In Japan as elsewhere, however, and regardless of its name, communicative language teaching has been seen as too restrictively focused on form during the ‘present’ and ‘practice’ phases of the traditional PPP cycle, therefore limiting actual learner communication during ‘production’. In the recently revised curriculum guidelines produced by the Japanese government’s Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the focus is on moving away from

the grammar-translation method which has typically characterised English language education in Japan, and towards communication and higher order thinking skills (MEXT, 2008); a move that provides fresh opportunities for TBLT in non-western contexts. As Stewart (2009) argues in this respect:

This change aligns the new curriculum guidelines with the current trend ... *towards using tasks requiring an integrated skills approach* Underlying the new MEXT curriculum is the belief that grammatical knowledge is not the ultimate goal of language study. ... In other words, structure cannot be separated from meaningful usage. (p. 11; italics added)

While this trend may seem to present TBLT practitioners and researchers with an opportunity, a word of caution from the field of ICT is instructive. As the history of learning technologies indicates (Cuban, 1986), new methodologies and technologies frequently emerge and are tagged with the label, ‘revolutionary’ or ‘transformative’. Equally as frequently, these innovations stem from origins outside of a learning context, sometimes driven by commercial rather than pedagogical interests, and pass through a well-trodden cycle from excitement to disappointment, from anticipated use to underuse and abandonment, as the next ‘new’ learning technology emerges. Consequently, increasing access to technology in learning contexts has often done little to promote a fundamental change in classroom pedagogy (Cuban, 2001). As Kenning (2007) argues in this respect in relation to language learning, ‘while technological progress has affected the way in which languages are learnt and taught, it has not initiated paradigm shifts’ (p. 195). Laurillard (2008) also confirms this view, arguing that while now more than ever digital technologies provide the

opportunity to transform teaching, institutional factors resist the types of changes that are necessary. Laurillard lists five key factors concerning why educational institutions have not been able to incorporate the opportunities offered by learning technologies with greater success. To a certain extent these factors are also applicable to the types of resistance found towards new pedagogies such as task-based learning:

1. Education systems are essentially conservative networks that do not change or adapt quickly.
2. Educational leaders and administrators are often not knowledgeable about innovative advances in methodology or technology.
3. Being a national and international political area determined by government policy, education is therefore less open to the commercialism that drives successful innovation in other industries.
4. Due to this political context, the management structures of educational institutions tend to be more hierarchical, less entrepreneurial and less able to adapt to change.
5. Instructors are rarely in positions of authority vis-à-vis policy decisions and therefore less able to innovate transformations in the processes of teaching and learning demanded by new technologies and new methodologies. (pp. 323-324)

Given such a context, it is important that when confronted with choices about the future direction of technology-mediated tasks, teachers make choices that are based on the *particular*, the *practical* and the *possible* (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). As the chapters in this volume indicate, teachers are faced with increasingly complex decisions about the tasks they are expected to use in today's networked classrooms. The landscape of technology is constantly changing and it is important that as

language teaching professionals with particular interests in technology that we also take into consideration the methodological developments that are available to us and to explore them through our own lenses.

With the publication of this volume, it is no longer possible to see how the future of TBLT can proceed without greater consideration of technology-mediated tasks. At the same time CALL researchers also need to consider carefully the core characteristics of TBLT described in the Introduction and to ground their research in SLA. This volume has clearly shown that both fields have much to gain from the joint activity this dialogue assumes. As task-based language learning and teaching orients itself increasingly towards the importance of technology-mediated communication, the frameworks that have been proposed in this chapter and elsewhere in this volume, should provide a foundation for research in these combined fields in the future.

Notes

¹ The LANCELOT and AVALON projects have both been funded by the European Commission. This chapter reflects the views of the authors only, and has no relationship to those of the Commission or any other member of these projects.

[A] References

- Armellini, A., McLoughlin, A., & Motteram, G. (2006). Language teaching methodology in a live online environment: The hexagon model. LANCELOT Project Outcomes. Retrieved November 10, 2009 from http://lancelotschool.com/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=51&Itemid=71
- Bayne, S., & Ross, J. (2007, December). The 'digital native' and 'digital immigrant': A dangerous opposition. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE). Brighton, UK.
- Bennett, S., Maton, K., & Kervin, L. (2008). The 'digital natives' debate: A critical review of the evidence. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 39(5), 775-786.
- Breen, M. (2001). *Learner contributions to language learning*. Harlow: Longman.
- Chapelle, C. (2001). *Computer applications in second language acquisition: Foundations for teaching, testing and research*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cook, G. (2000). *Language play, language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cuban, L. (1986). *Teachers and machines: The classroom use of technology since*

1920. London & New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Cuban, L. (2001). *Oversold and underused: Computers in the classroom*. Cambridge, Mass. & London: Harvard University Press.
- Deutschmann, M. (2009). Communication and language learning models. Retrieved November 10, 2009, from <http://avalonlearning.pbworks.com/Communication-and-language-learning-models>
- Dudeny, G., & Ramsay, H. (2009). Overcoming the entry barriers to Second Life in higher education. In C. Wankel & J. Kingsley (Eds.), *Higher education in virtual worlds: Teaching and learning in Second Life*. Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Edge, J., & Richards, K. (1998). May I see your warrant, please?: Justifying outcomes in qualitative research. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(3), 334-356.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gee, J. P. (2003). *What video games have to teach us about learning and literacy*. London & New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Godwin-Jones, R. (2005). Emerging technologies: Skype and podcasting. *Language Learning and Technology*, 9(3), 9-12.
- Hiltz, S. R. (1994). *The virtual classroom: Learning without limits via computer networks*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Holloway, S., & Valentine, G. (2003). *Cyberkids: Youth identities and communities in an on-line world*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Johnson, K. E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 235-257.
- Kenning, M-M. (2007). *ICT and language learning: From print to the mobile phone*

- Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Shield, L. (2008). An overview of mobile assisted language learning: From content delivery to supported collaboration and interaction. *ReCALL*, 20(3), 271–289.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(4), 537-560.
- Laurillard, D. (2008). Open teaching: The key to sustainable and effective open education. In T. Iiyoshi & M. S. Vijay Kumar (Eds.), *Opening up education: The collective advancement of education through open technology, open content, and open knowledge* (pp. 319-335). Cambridge, Mass., & London: MIT Press.
- Levy, M. (1997). *Computer-assisted language learning: Context and conceptualization*. Oxford: Clarendon.
- Levy, M., & Stockwell, G. (2006). *CALL Dimensions: Options and issues in computer-assisted language learning*. Mahwah, NJ & London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Long, M. H., & Norris, J. M. (2000). Task-based teaching and assessment. In M. Byram (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language teaching* (pp. 597-603). London: Routledge.
- Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (MEXT) (1989). Issues and developments of policies in education, science and culture, Chapter 9.2. Internationalization of education, culture and sports: Upbringing of Japanese as a member of the international community. Retrieved July 1, 2009, from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/hakusho/html/hpae198901/hpae198901_2_103.html

- Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (MEXT) (2008). *Gengoryoku no ikusei housaku nit suite* [Policy for the development of language ability]. Retrieved November 1, 2009 from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chousa/036/shiryo/07081717/004.htm
- Molka-Danielsen, J., & Deutschmann, M. (2009). Examining the design of learning activities in Second Life through the lens of activity theory (pp. 1-12). *Nokobit Proceedings*. Trondheim: Tapir Akademisk Forlag.
- Norris, J., Bygate, M., & Van den Branden, K. V. (2009). Section 2. Curriculum, syllabus and task design. In K. Van den Branden, M. Bygate & J. M. Norris (Eds.), *Task-based language teaching: A reader*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Oxford, R., & Oxford, J. (Eds.) (2009). *Second language teaching and learning in the net generation*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i.
- Pegrum, M. (2009). *From blogs to bombs: The future of digital technologies in education*. Perth: University of Western Australia Press.
- Pennycook, R. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.
- Prensky, M. (2001). Digital natives, digital immigrants. *On the Horizon*, 9(5). Retrieved November 29, 2009, from <http://www.marcprensky.com/writing/Prensky%20-%20Digital%20Natives,%20Digital%20Immigrants%20-%20Part1.pdf>
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Slaouti, D., Motteram, G., & Onat-Stelma, Z. (in press). *Language teachers, technology and context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Stewart, T. (2009). Will the new English curriculum for 2013 work? *The Language Teacher*, 33(11), 9-13.
- Tapscott, D. (1998). *Growing up digital: The rise of the net generation*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Tapscott, D. (2009). *Grown up digital: How the net generation is changing your world*. London & New York: McGraw Hill.
- Telles, J. A., & Vassallo, M. L. (2006). Foreign language learning in-tandem: Teletandem as an alternative proposal in CALLT. *The ESPecialist*, 27(2), 189-212.
- Thomas, M. (Ed.) (2009). *Handbook of research on web 2.0 and second language learning*. Hershey, PA., & New York: IGI Global.
- Widdowson, H. (2001). Communicative language testing: The art of the possible. In C. Elder et al. (Eds.), *Studies in language testing II: Experimenting with uncertainty – essays in honour of Alan Davies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

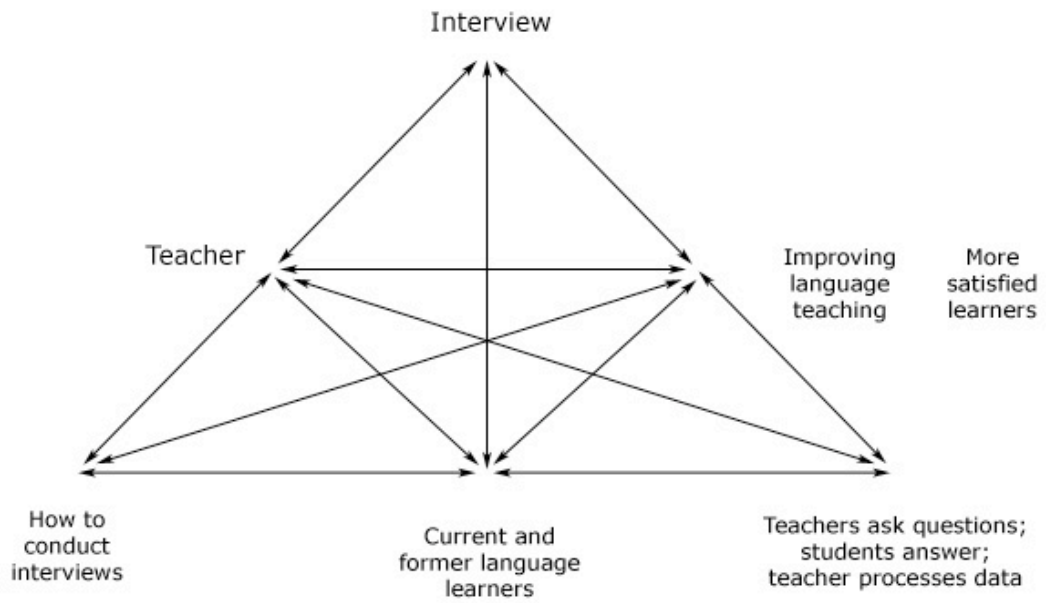


Figure 11.1 Needs analysis viewed through an Activity Theory lens

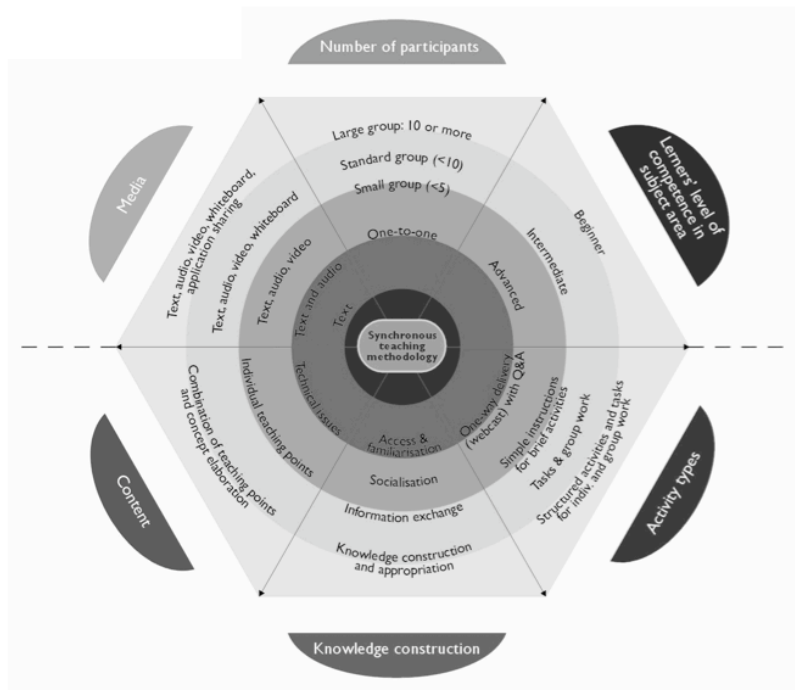


Figure 11.2. The Hexagon Model of Synchronous Teaching Methodology.

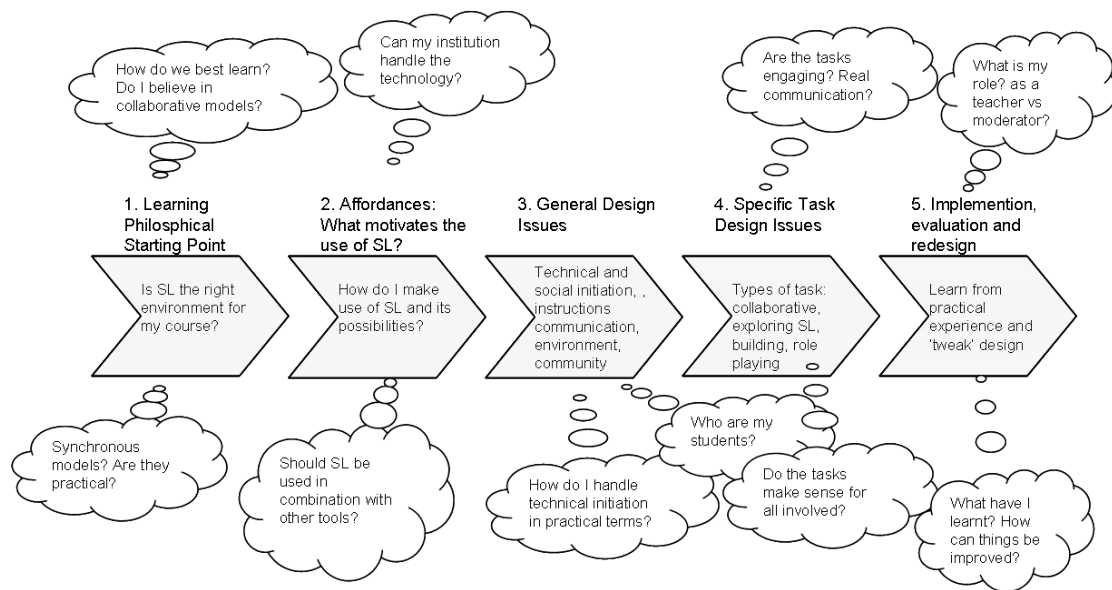


Figure 11.3. A model for implementing tasks in Second Life from Deutschmann (2009).