TASK-BASED, LEARNER-CENTERED LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION:
EDUCATIONAL INNOVATION IN AN ADULT FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAM

by

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Dedication

This work is dedicated is to my father, Dave, who proofed every paper and read every article and book I sent him, no matter how esoteric. He is as deserving of this degree as anyone I know.

Acknowledgments

Many thanks to my family, friends, cohort, and committee for their support throughout this whole process.

I would also like to recognize the University of South Carolina Campus Police for the parking ticket I earned (and framed with pride) while defending my proposal—a Wardlaw rite of passage.

Abstract

This study involved educational innovation and implementation of a task‑based, learner‑centered curriculum within a foreign language program. The concerns‑based assessment model (originally proposed by Hall et al., 1973, and further developed by Hall & Hord, 1987; 2011) was used to investigate the degree to which language instructors adopted the innovation. An adapted form of the concerns‑based assessment model's levels of use focused interviews and instructional artifacts were used to measure the level of implementation of the task‑based approach. Analysis of the data identified categorical changes as instructors implemented the new curriculum. The category of sharing revealed higher levels of use due to extensive collaboration among instructors and between administration and instructors. This is promising for the field, as there is little research regarding the innovation of task‑based, learner‑centered curriculum within an adult foreign language program.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study examines how language instructors implemented an innovation: a task-based, learner-centered, foreign language curriculum for adult learners at an instructional facility for military personnel. In task-based, learner-centered innovations, the focus is on the needs of the learners (Long, 2018). This innovation was designed to meet the deployment needs of active-duty Navy personnel through instruction in foreign languages. It was developed because the language curriculum being used was too general. Our data showed the Navy personnel needed language for special purposes geared toward the military. The need for change was evident to all stakeholders, and the change was agreed upon. Language instructors were contracted to teach the new task-based, learner-centered foreign language curriculum, and this study examines how the language instructors used the new curriculum. A levels of use protocol, interviews, and educational artifacts were used to determine the instructors' levels of use.

In task-based, learner-centered instruction, students engage in tasks that reflect real life situations and student interests (Ellis, 2018). This is different from approaches and methods that focus on covering content, such as structural approaches, in which grammar and syntax are presented in a predetermined sequence. Conversely, in task-based, learner-centered instruction, lessons are designed around the language required to perform a specific task (Willis & Willis, 1996). Here, the instructor must be skilled enough to motivate students and confident enough with the task-based approach to adequately support them (Van Avermaet, et al., 2006).

Instructors must attend to pre-task, during-task, and post-task actions and decisions (Van Avermaet et al., 2006; Van den Branden, 2006) during the instructional planning stage. Prior to a class activity, instructors must determine what students must accomplish mentally and physically. Instructors must motivate students to interact during the activity and evaluate whether and how well objectives were met after an activity. Throughout the process, students and instructor are negotiating meaning and reacting to variance in proficiency and motivation levels, knowledge of the content area, and number of students participating in the activity. Instructors must consider all these factors when considering task-based curricula. Although there is a growing trend of research on task-based instruction, little research exists on language teachers' implementation of task-based instruction. The present study of instructors' levels of use will provide important insights into how learner-centered education is implemented among adult learners and how curriculum implementation can be assessed using a levels of use protocol.

Statement of the Problem

This study arose due to my interest as a manager of a military foreign language program that was engaged in the institutional adoption and implementation of a task-based, learner-centered, foreign language curriculum for adult learners. Although task-based and learner centered instruction are increasingly popular (Butler, 2011; Hashem, 2020; Meri Yilan, 2020; Prabhu, 1984; Ulla & Perales, 2021; Van den Branden, 2006; Vieira, 2017), there is limited information on institutional implementation at the instructor level.

Kim (2008) addressed this concern in his analysis of teachers' English instruction in South Korea at the 6th and 7th grade levels. He reported that implementation of task-

2

based learning failed despite extensive training organized by the Ministry of Education. Kim argued that this occurred because many of the teachers could not reconcile or integrate their formerly held personal beliefs of language learning with the new communicative language teaching methodologies. Internationally, many language teachers' previous experiences with schooling were centered on the idea that the teacher transmits knowledge to students. Lecture, repetition, and memorization are attributes of a transmission approaches to teaching and learning. Learner-centered curriculum runs counter to transmission models of teaching (Vieira, 2017). Within institutional implementation of task-based instruction, this dichotomy between teachers' culture of teaching and the learner-centered approach continues to exist. In the present study, language instructors were hired because they held expertise in a language, yet the culture of teaching that undergirded their practices were not learner centered. The present study responds to this problem through investigating how language instructors implemented a task-based learner-centered curriculum.

Purpose of the Study

Expanding on studies of task-based language instruction, the purpose of this study was to determine levels of use as instructors implement a task-based curriculum, in terms of knowledge and acquiring information, assessing and planning, and sharing knowledge. This was assessed through oral interviews of instructors through a rating scale. The level of use rating scale was also used to assess the instructional environment and learner outcomes. In addition, this study aimed to develop recommendations for institutions interested in implementing learner-centered language curricula with adult learners of foreign languages.

Significance of the Study

This study fills the void regarding task-based, learner-centered, foreign language curriculum for adult learners as a curricular innovation. Curricular change is challenging at both the instructor and policy levels. Instructors are accustomed to teaching content, and policy makers are looking for metrics specifically aligned with the coverage of that content. Capturing and analyzing language instructors' acceptance and use of a new foreign language program provides insights into how instructors move from a transmission model of language instruction to a learner-centered model.

Research Questions

In this descriptive study, I sought to know to what level instructors would adopt task-based, learner centered curriculum. Because instructors have had experiences that are not generally learner centered, it was important to understand how well they understood task-based instruction. However, knowledge is only a starting point in learning and using a new curriculum. It was necessary to delve further into the instructors' use of the curriculum. I sought to find out what information they needed, how information was shared, how they approached assessment of their students' language, and how they planned instruction. The following research questions guided this study:

1. In the process of adopting a new, task-based, learner-centered foreign language program, to what level of use will instructors adopt the innovation?

2. To what levels of use will instructors engage in: (a) Knowledge and Acquiring Information, (b) Assessing and Planning, and (c) Sharing?

Theoretical Framework

Relevant theories related to innovation within this study are commercial, educational, and curriculum innovation. Additionally, this study uses the Concerns Based Adoption Model building upon Hall & Hord's (2012) change theory (i.e., change as an event accomplished by an individual through developmental growth) by providing a conceptual lens and methodology for assessing the adoption of a task-based, learner centered curriculum. Thus, these theories all provide insights for understanding the Navy foreign language program, which was the context of the present study.

Commercial Innovation in Education

Curriculum is often marketed as a commercial product, but task-based, learner-centered language instruction does not lend itself to commercialization. Even so, understanding commercial innovation in education offers insight into the difficulties involved in the implementation of a task-based curriculum. Porter (1990) defined innovation from an economic perspective as (1) a process that uses new knowledge and, (2) the processes used to create or improve products themselves. In this sense, innovation includes the creative process and the application of those results. In Porter's economic framework, the commercialization of a new idea transforms the idea from a thought to a product or service. In education, the innovative product might be an off-the-shelf, one-box solution that educators examine when considering a new curriculum, or an entirely new approach requiring a needs analysis and a certain amount of customization. Some curriculum adoptions are more innovative than others and it is important to determine the level of newness. In Cagnazzo et al.'s (2008) review of innovation management tools, the researchers noted that the level of newness was a primary characteristic in most

definitions of innovation. Angle and Van de Ven (2000) had previously noted that the novelty of an innovation was relative. For example, innovation, as an idea or product, could be new to an individual, to the level of an entire organization, or, as often seen in the realm of technology, to the whole world. Thus, within the realm of education, an approach considered as practice in the field of nursing, such as scenario and simulation exercises, might be brand new to language instructors, and therefore an innovation in the field of language instruction. Task-based language curriculum in a military language program is an example of relative novelty. In fact, the foreign language program had undergone a number of changes to standardize the curriculum across its smaller components, so moving away from standardized curriculum was a completely new approach.

The work involved in turning the innovative idea into a curriculum was made more difficult by a culture of standardization prevalent within the military institution. To understand the work entailed during innovation, Cagnazzo et al. (2008) described the management of milestones involved in this process. Based on their analysis, the authors fit process milestones into three categories: idea generation, acquisition of full knowledge, and complete product/process implementation and monitoring (p. 320). In curricular terms, these milestones equate to analysis, design/development, and implementation/evaluation. As with most systematic processes, individual elements are interdependent and require sufficient management to ensure success. These milestones generally relate to the military institution, but Eveleens' (2010) framework linked more directly with the military foreign language context.

6

Eveleens (2010) reviewed 25 years of innovation management literature and based on type and context, categorized managerial routines that can increase success of an innovation. Similar to Cagnazzo et al.'s (2008) process milestones, Eveleens' (2010) grouped these routines into four stages: idea generation, selection, developing and testing, and implementation and launch (Eveleens, 2010, p. 10). Tasks within these routines included brainstorming, surveys, rapid prototyping, and benchmarking. At each stage, the routines become more practical. In terms of curriculum development, these stages map to lesson creation, activity development and trialing. It was important to rapidly build, trial, and provide data to all stakeholders as the foreign language project progressed to provide continuous evidence that task-based instruction was the correct solution.

Eveleens (2010) noted that, despite the risk of failure, an organization must innovate to remain relevant, improve, and/or grow. The need for innovation is imperative and holds true for businesses that must compete for market share or profit, for public organizations that need to improve their services, and for schools to improve their curriculum. As Cooper (2005) stated, "It's war: Innovate or die" (p. 1). In the case of the Navy foreign language program, innovation was essential because the deployment objectives for each given area of operations was unique to the country and local context. The Navy foreign language program implemented task-based instruction because the previous curriculum did not meet the learners' needs. Task-based language instruction would offer the flexibility needed for meeting the goals of each language learner deploying to various countries. The current study investigated the implementation of a task-based curriculum to meet specific language learning goals.

If not managed properly, innovation can be problematic. Tidd and Bessant (2018) warned of "the propensity to follow and fit research and publications into contemporary fads, rather than to ground the work in more fundamental themes and challenges" (p. 10). This important caveat regarding fads is relevant, regardless of discipline. The allure of an easy fix, not backed by thorough research and analysis, is an innovation dead end—a situation in which curricular selection committees can find themselves.

Educational Innovation

Regarding educational innovation, Cohen and Ball (2007) noted that, prior to the year 2000, there was a preference for the term "reform" or the more neutral "change." Their analysis also noted that most researchers of the time appeared to "believe that none of these reforms were implemented at scale—i.e., widely and well" (p. 2). Moreover, except for three studies (Berman & McLaughlin, 1979; Fullan, 1982; Rogers, 2003), Cohen and Ball concluded that their "scrutiny of the literature revealed no discussions of what might reasonably be expected from innovation in education" (2007, p. 2).

Fullan (1982) has been credited with providing the most comprehensive treatment of innovation under the umbrella of reform and adoption. In *The New Meaning of Educational Change, 4th ed.*, Fullan (2007) explained the "adoption era" of reform: "The goal was to get innovations out there, as if flooding the system with external ideas would bring about desired improvements" (p. 5). Examples of the surge in adoptions would be the federal educational reforms of the 1950s and 1960s, such as *Physical Science Study Committee Physics, Biological Sciences Curriculum Biology*, and *Man: A Course of Study Social Studies.* However, by the early 1970s, it became evident that such massive investments yielded only sporadic, isolated success. Not long after these federal

educational reforms, Fullan and Pomfret (1977) documented how "the term *implementation* (or more accurately *failed implementation*) came into the vocabulary of reform" (p. 5; emphasis in original).

As Fullan (2007) so bluntly stated, it is possible "to be crystal clear about what one wants, and totally inept at achieving it" (p. 8). The root of past failures for reform is in the failure to understand the meaning of change. Success hinges on understanding both aspects of innovation—the "what" and the "how" of change. Although there may be pressure from above to innovate, organizations often lack the personnel, expertise, or funding to put the idea into practice. The top-down approach often fails because it does not "garner ownership, commitment, or even clarity about the nature of the reforms" (Fullan, 2007, p. 11). Effective innovation management comes through establishing and nurturing shared meaning, thus ensuring that all stakeholders come to understand "what it is that should change, and how it can be best accomplished, while realizing that the "what" and "how" constantly interact with and reshape each other" (p. 9).

The source of funding can also lead to mismanaged educational innovation. In a review of 21st century educational innovation in modern higher education, Mykhailyshyn et al. (2018) noted that public funding and competition play a fundamental role in the decision-making process. The researchers also found that the call for change was increasingly coming from consumers of educational products and services. Relative to kinds of change, Mykhailyshyn et al. (2018) argued that there had been a subtle change from change for change's sake, to top-down change "aimed at improving the efficiency of functioning and the development of organization in a competitive environment" (p. 12). In the Navy, the change to a task-based language curriculum was necessary for the

functioning of personnel who required language skills that are unique to their deployment objective.

In addition to addressing top-down change and rationale to innovate, Mykhailyshyn et al.'s (2018) review of prevailing approaches identified several components of a modern approach to educational innovation, several of which are relevant to the Navy language program: more student-centered, improved organizational and management processes, and increased staff potential and qualifications. The authors further noted that including relevant stakeholders in the innovation increases buy-in and improves the chances of successful implementation. Not only does innovation provide opportunities for students to develop knowledge, skills, and abilities, it can also be a source of "motivation for development and self-development" (p. 11). When managed holistically, innovation can benefit the organization, staff, and student.

Curriculum Innovation

Curriculum innovation "is the starting point of a long process towards educational change" (Mata, 2012, p. 214). Such innovation is a daunting endeavor due to the complex and multifaceted nature of the teaching and learning processes (Wagner, 1988; White, 1988). Practical elements like infrastructure, technology, funding sources and duration, and student ratios must be considered and factored into the decision-making process.

One factor that leads to successful curriculum innovation is the professional development of teachers in the use of new approaches (Mata, 2012). Successful professional development programs help teachers adapt to external values and norms that meet local reality (Mata, 2012). Managers must consider current levels of education, training, and certification of instructors and carefully evaluate whether new requirements

will exceed local faculty resources and support structures. For example, changes involving technology, such as requiring faculty to learn management systems, manage tablets, and use online portals all involve training and/or certification and often necessitate additional staffing. Professional development of instructors is essential in curricular innovation.

Historically, professional development programs have failed to focus on teachers as the center for implementing innovative classroom practices (Markee, 1997). This also happened in previous Navy language programming—e.g., when programs were implemented without any input from the language teachers. It is important that instructors are included from the beginning of the change process. This avoids creating a gap between instructor knowledge and new program implementation (Iemjinda, 2011).

Professional development is essential when instructors are reluctant to adopt an innovation because of mismatches between proposed changes and the beliefs and established routines that they currently hold (Larsen–Freeman & Anderson, 2013). They may also fear that proposed changes will threaten their performance and the perceived quality of their work as measured by observations and performance reports. These are all hurdles to the successful implementation of task-based curriculum. However, if instructors are included in making bottom-up adaptions, the results are positive; it "create[s] the possibility for teachers to assert their own beliefs in the interpretation of the policy into classroom practice" (Wallace & Priestly, 2011). This is important to the current study because the Navy language instructors are regularly assessed through observation of their classes and learner outcomes.

Implementation of curricular change is about transforming ideas into practice (Brown, 2007; Katz & Sullivan, 2008; Markee, 1997; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). Ideally, change is implemented by focusing on practical procedures that address documented needs and operationalize new constructs. Clearly articulated needs assessments, conceptual frameworks, and published studies or whitepapers should be made readily available to instructors, discussed in staff meetings and brownbag lunch conversations, and distributed in information packets. To mitigate fear of the unknown, innovators must respond at both empirical and pedagogical levels to present a clear and transparent framework.

The framework must include important milestones, including focus groups, informational seminars, development opportunities, and training events. Although research (Carless, 1998; Larsen–Freeman & Anderson, 2013) has expanded with new ideas on how to best prepare instructors to continue to blossom, Byram (2012) noted that joining theory and practice remains problematic. Including instructors in the change process allows instructors to assimilate new theories and methodologies.

Clarke (2003) provided the encouraging view that when instructors are clear where they stand methodologically, they can choose to teach differently from the way they were taught. Larsen–Freeman and Anderson (2013) expanded upon this view, stating that a discussion of different language teaching methods:

need not lead to the de‑skilling of teachers but rather can serve a variety of useful functions when used appropriately in teacher education. Studying methods can help teachers articulate and perhaps transform their understanding of the teaching–learning process. It can strengthen their confidence in challenging authorities who mandate

unacceptable educational policies. Methods can serve as models of the integration of theory and practice. (p. 14)

The Concerns Based Adoption Model

Well-suited to innovation theories, the Concerns Based Adoption Model has been extensively used to explore educational change since it was developed at the University of Texas at Austin in the early 1980s. This development included studies of adult contexts (Saunders, 2012). According to this model, individuals navigate affective stages of concern and progress through levels of use (Hall & Hord, 1987, 2006). As people begin considering and implementing an innovation, their questions evolve. People begin with questions related to themselves. How will this change affect me? They also ask questions about the innovation. What is it? Eventually they will ask questions about the impact of the innovation. How will this affect students? (Loucks-Horsley, 1996).

The Concerns-Based Adoption Model is predicated on the notion that everyone is affected by change. Within an educational setting, administrators, teachers, and students will be impacted by the change and must be supported through the change process. Support is necessary for changes to become common practice. There are some questions which need answers to ensure all relationships are appropriately considered: Which participants act as resources within the innovation? Who are the change facilitators? And who are the users of the innovation? Figure 1.1 shows a relationship model of the innovation system, whereby the change facilitator and the instructors (both non-users and users) are embedded and interact by way of a series of interviews, observations, and interventions. As Program Manager, I served as change facilitator and as part of the

resource system. The students were one part of the user system, and the nine foreign

language instructors were also part of the user system.
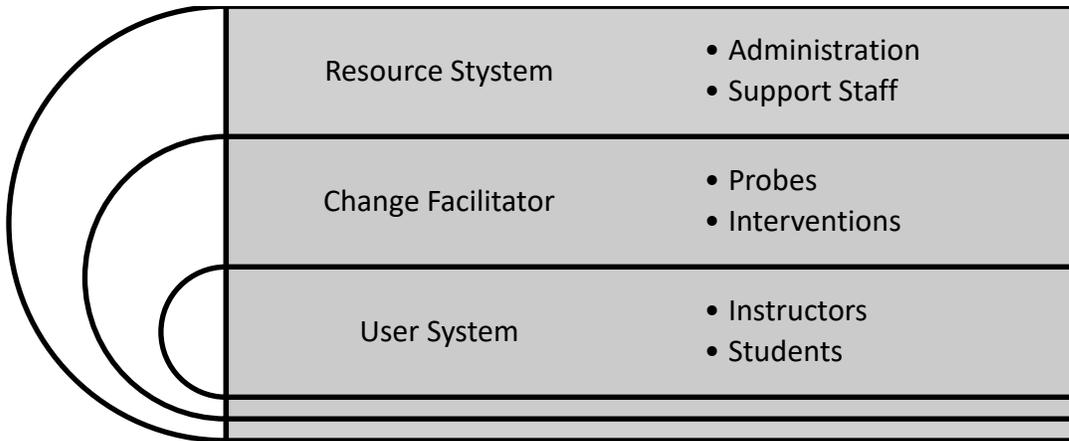
Figure 1.1. Concerns‑Based Adoption Model Relationship Diagram *Note.* Adapted
from Hall (n.d.)

The system of relationships, resource system, user system, and change facilitator,

and are useful for exploring how each individual contributes to the implementation of an

innovation. The Concerns-Based Assessment Model provided for probes that were used

to ascertain the degree to which individuals are using the innovation. As the current study

focused on curricular innovation and adoption, my primary focus was on the instructors. I

used levels of use interviews to probe instructors for information on the adoption process.

As change facilitator, I then acted as an interface between the administration and

instructors, to formulate and provide necessary interventions and material support. As the

adoption progressed, a cycle of programmatic evaluation continued.

Summary

This chapter addressed the tension between maintenance of the status quo and

innovation in education. In the context of this study, it was essential to understand

educational change under the broader framework of commercial innovation in education,

educational innovation, and more specifically curriculum innovation wherein ideas are

transformed into practice. Whether it be a misalignment of a bottom-up, top-down, or well-meaning, one-size-fits-all design approaches, implementations fail when people cannot reconcile or integrate formerly held personal beliefs with the new teaching methodologies. Theories of change provide a full understanding of implementation at the instructor level, The Concerns-Based Adoption Model describes the resource system, change facilitator, and user system as necessary to curricular innovation. Using this model, instructors' levels of use can be ascertained as they implement the new curriculum. The Concerns-Based Adoption Model compliments theories of innovation by providing a method of determining the levels of use of individuals who are implementing an innovation.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

To prepare for this study, I reviewed literature on communicative language teaching (Ellis, 2012; Krashen, 1982; Skehan, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2001), and task-based, learner-centered instruction (Blumberg, 2009; Mahn, 2013; Nunan, 1996; Weimer, 2013; Willis & Willis, 2013) because these were the concepts in language acquisition research that are related to the curriculum innovation under study. I specifically attended to the research on how communicative language and task-based instruction were couched within a larger framework of curriculum innovation. In this review, I will first describe a trajectory of language instruction to provide an overview of the field. Second, I will review the literature on communicative language teaching. Third, I will describe learner-centered instruction. Fourth, I will review the literature on task-based language instruction.

Trajectory of Language Instruction

In the latter part of the twentieth century, schools of thought in language acquisition moved away from a behaviorist view of learning in which language learning is seen as habit formation and structural linguistics in which grammatical structures are the starting point for learning a language (Richards & Rodgers, 2012). A cognitive view and generative linguistics became more dominant in language teaching. The cognitive view of linguistics explores concepts like universal grammar, deep structure, and the idea of competence (Brown, 2014). Universal grammar suggests that one universal logic forms the basis of all languages.

Deep structure involves the meaning rather than simply the ways that words are put together. Competence is important to language teaching because language is not merely memorized but is created from underlying knowledge of abstract rules (Richards & Rogers, 2012).

Two of the instructional methods that emerged from a cognitive view of language learning are the audiolingual method and total physical response. These methods were popular in the Department of Defense from the 1970s to the 1990s, as they touted quick results at the lower ranges of proficiency. The audiolingual method focused heavily on memorization of pre-determined dialogues and tightly controlled exposure to vocabulary and grammar, whereas total physical response followed a grammatical/structuralist approach, in which the students were considered actors and teachers functioned as "director[s] in a screen play" (Brown, 2007, p. 37). Within the total physical response method, students are primarily listeners and performers. Both audiolingual and total physical response methods focused on aural and oral modalities but fell short in terms of language use in naturalistic contexts, where learners must use their communicative competence in real situations.

In contrast to previous theories of language, the cognitive view of linguistics was embedded in constructivist learning. By the 1990s, concepts such as cooperative learning, interactive discourse, and inclusion of sociocultural variables began to drive methodologies and associated language syllabi. The communicative language teaching approach was developed during this time, providing alternative methods for language instruction that would develop communicative competence.

Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching involves the development of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) for real-life application, versus memorization of discrete knowledge points (Kim, 2008) or isolated rules (Krashen, 1982; Mahn, 2013). Of the available approaches to language instruction, communicative language teaching is probably the most widely accepted and adaptable (Brown, 2007; Ellis, 2012; Nunan, 1996; Richards & Rodgers, 2012). As Richards and Rodgers (2012) noted:

> Both American and British proponents now see [communicative language teaching] as an approach (and not a method) that aims to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills [reading, writing, listening, and speaking] that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. (p. 155)

One strength of the communicative language approach is that the learners' communicative requirements provide a framework for explicit goals regarding the target level of functional competence. The learner focuses on the "what" and the "why" of the communicative requirements. The student also wants to communicate the "how" which is functional competence. Additionally, the student wants to effectively communicate that message, using any combination of productive (speaking/writing) or receptive (listening/reading) modalities.

Although theories of language learning have moved away from behaviorism and structural linguistics, there is sometimes disconnect between theory and practice. Kim (2008) observed South Korean English teachers who were implementing a national mandate toward communicative language theory and found that a teacher's continued

focus on discrete elements of language resulted in students being unable to communicate effectively, as measured by assessments specifically developed to measure communicative growth. Because of this disconnect between language theory and practice, it is necessary to understand how language instructors make the transition from structural linguistics to communicative competence in their classroom practices.

Simply being able to create grammatically correct structures in a language does not necessarily enable a learner to use language to carry out various real-life tasks (Ellis, 2018) or to convey meaning. Drawing on Vygotsky's (1962) work, Mahn (2013) noted the importance of context in all social interactions. Specifically, Mahn posited that higher-level mental activity or meaning is mediated through the symbols of language. For meaning to be conveyed successfully, it must be contextualized, and therefore communicative in nature. In order to create language structures during interaction, the deep structure, or meaning of language takes precedence over the surface features for example, how nouns and verbs are placed in a sentence. Within this view, the function for which language is being used is reflected in the linguistic structure (Richards & Roberts, 2012). This is in contrast to learning a linguistic structure so that it can eventually be used to fulfill a function.

The communicative language approach has been disseminated widely, and most language instructors will claim they use communicative language teaching methods. However, many use what Howatt (1984) described as the "weak" version, which "stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider programme of language teaching" (p. 279). According to Howatt, in the strong

version of communicative language teaching, language ability is "developed through activities which actually simulate target performance" (p. 279). Thus, the weak version is more general in context and therefore more marketable in its one-size-fits-most approach, whereas the strong version more directly addresses the learning objectives in an authentic, context, and needs-based analysis. In the strong version, time is "spent not on language drills and controlled practice leading towards communicative language use, but in activities which require learners to do in class what they will do outside [of it]" (Howatt, 1984, p. 279). More recently, Larsen–Freeman and Anderson (2013) noted that content-based, task-based, and participatory instructional approaches were strong, as they "give priority to communicating, over predetermined linguistic content, teaching through communication rather than for it" (p. 172).

Larsen–Freeman and Anderson (2013) also argued, "perhaps the greatest contribution of communicative language teaching is asking teachers to look closely at what is involved in communication" (p. 169). To be truly communicative, lessons and activities need to address not only forms and meaning (grammar and vocabulary), but also what language is used for (linguistic functions) in social situations (context). Armed with grammar and vocabulary (what), linguistic functions (how), and context (why), students have more linguistic resources to actively engage in negotiation of meaning and to make themselves understood even without complete knowledge of the target language. Lacking a definitive list of proscribed classroom techniques, Larsen–Freeman and Anderson recognized a "fuzziness" in consistent application of communicative language theory but argued that this "fuzziness has given [communicative language theory] a flexibility which has allowed it to endure for thirty years" (p. 152).

Communicative language theory has advantages as an approach when it comes to learner-centeredness and developing purposeful communication. However, as Kim (2008) noted, successful implementation involves not only training and professional development but also "a dialogic process of transformation of self and activity rather than simply the replacement of skills" (Kim, 2008, citing Johnson & Golombek). This means that instructors must be involved in conversations and deliberations about implementation of communicative language teaching in order for them to transform theory into practice. When approached holistically, any top-down approach to language curriculum innovation should encourage an equally enthusiastic bottom-up reaction among the instructors and students. Language instruction should, therefore, be learner centered.

Learner-Centered Instruction

A goal of effective learner-centered instruction is to "assist students in learning how to organize knowledge around major concepts and principles, enhance retention and retrieval, and contribute to student development of metacognitive abilities" (Thompson et al., 2003). One way to accomplish this goal is to focus on linguistic functions and metacognitive tasks within specific content and context domains of interest to the students. Learning engagements should be related to students' experiences outside of class in order to build bridges between what students know and what they will learn (Nunan, 2015). Linguistic functions should be taught within these student-centered contexts. A learner-centered curriculum will focus on developing a skill to apply within a speech community (Hymes, 1971). More specifically, through a learner-centered approach, language specific to a target use domain (such as work/professional) and of

intrinsic value to the student can be integrated into a curriculum that focuses on acquisition of linguistic skills.

Metacognitive tasks should support the aim to develop students' strategies for language learning. In writing about learner-centered language teaching, Nunan (2015) stresses facilitating the student's use of strategies for learning. This involves the communicative processes needed to learn a language. Metacognitive language strategies are used to build skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the new language. Through a focus on linguistic domains of interest to students and development of metacognitive language strategies, learner-centered instruction has the potential to facilitate language skills needed for a specific purpose.

Blumberg (2009) detailed five dimensions of learner-centered teaching: (a) the function of content, which should give the learner the ability to apply content and to understand why they are learning it; (b) the role of the instructor as a facilitator of learning; (c) the responsibility for learning, which should be that of the learner, with proactive support and expert guidance from the instructor; (d) the purpose of assessment, which should be to provide constructive feedback and information to the learner about where they are and where they need to be; and (e) the balance of power, which shifts to learners and instructors for what is to be covered and how. Incorporating these dimensions results in a classroom where teachers encourage learners to submerge themselves in their own learning development and to use the target language actively while learners engage in small group work. In such classrooms, the teachers' roles are to motivate learners and to raise their levels of interest in the target language (Rao, 2014). Active student involvement is central to the concept of learner-centered instruction. This

involvement "has two dimensions: first, students take charge of their own learning processes, including making decisions, plans and so forth; the other is to maximize the classroom time for students' interactive activities" (p. 5). This focus on student involvement and active learning. The task-based approach is, therefore, a natural extension of learner-centered instruction for the adult learner.

Task-Based Instruction

Task-based instruction grew out of Krashen's (1982) theory of language acquisition, which held that learning language required participation as well as exposure. In a task-based classroom, lessons are designed around the language required to perform a specific task (Willis & Willis, 1996), rather than grammatical paradigms or thematic vocabulary (Ellis, 2003; Swan, 2005). For example, in telling what a subject did, an instructor might give a task-based instructional lesson to introduce the simple past tense for third person singular. The instructor would not present the grammatical paradigm for the formation of simple past tense in all its forms, nor would the instructor require any vocabulary that was not directly related to the task. However, through repetition and spiraling of activities during the course of instruction, the grammatical paradigm would be uncovered in its entirety. Likewise, the instructor would introduce vocabulary as needed rather than for the sake of lexicon building. Solving these real-life tasks "means that learning the target language will be the means to an end rather than the goal itself" (Ramirez, 1995).

The completion of a task and the interaction between learners "facilitates transfer of information they have previously learned and incorporates it with new information they receive as they perform the task" (Powers, 2008). Further, it "is meaningful because

learners have a stake in completing the task rather than practicing language for its own sake" (Plews & Zhao, 2010. p. 42). This focus on "processing of new and old information in an interactional manner stimulates transfer" (Krahnke, 1987, p. 60). Linguistic knowledge is transferred from one task to another. Krahnke explained that "the completion of tasks requires the learner to apply cognitive processes of evaluation, selection, combination, modification, or supplementation to a combination of new and old information" (p. 60). In this way, task-based instruction encourages students to combine previous content knowledge or experience with newly learned linguistic elements to mediate and create new forms as they negotiate and convey meaning while completing a task.

One strength of task-based instruction is its alignment with adult learning theory: the tasks reflect real life situations (Ellis, 2018) and student interests. Engaging students in instructional activities that have direct relevance to them results in increased motivation (Dörnyei, 2002; Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Feryok, 2017). Feryok (2017), in her review of related research, found that the practical outcomes of task-based instruction provided "a bridge between the classroom and the rest of the world by giving learners a concrete means by which they can self-mediate outside the classroom" (p. 721). Indeed, Dörnyei's (2007) study of Hungarian students who were studying intermediate English revealed that student motivation could be increased at the individual task level, based on the instructional approach used. In another study, Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found that task attitudes seemed to function as a filter, with positive attitudes leading to a regular pattern of positive performance.

Task-based instruction is associated with communicative language instruction, as task-based instruction represents "the full spectrum of communicative competence, including linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence" (Canale, 1983, p. 59). Task-based instruction focuses on multiple aspects of language including words and rules (linguistic/grammatical competence), appropriateness (sociolinguistic competence), cohesion and coherence (discourse competence), and appropriate use of communicative strategies (strategic competence). Additionally, the process of building these competencies involves large amounts of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). Comprehensible input is language that the learner can understand and that is slightly more advanced than the learner's current language level. Input must be understandable in order for the learner to improve. As the learners negotiate meaning to accomplish the task, they receive input from other learners and the instructor. With this communicative approach, input remains comprehensible by the nature of the interaction of self, co-learner, and instructor, as meaning is co-constructed and mediated while completing a task.

As M. Hismanoglu and S. Hismanoglu (2011) noted, the teacher is cast as a mediator in the role of both "instructor and guide" (p. 49). More specifically, they articulated three main roles for teachers who were implementing a task-based syllabus or curriculum: selecting and sequencing of tasks; preparing learners for tasks; and consciousness-raising. These roles are not unique to M. Hismanoglu and S. Hismanoglu's (2011) model and can generally be labeled as pre-task, task, and post-task activities. This points to the amount of preparation involved at the instructor level. Hatip (2005) lists the constant need for creativity and energetic flexibility as a potential challenge for instructors not accustomed to the task-based approach—particularly if they do not possess

sufficient time and resources to create and execute tasks in an engaging way. Materiel or curricular support are therefore necessary for successful implementation of task-based language curriculum.

As the task-based approach matures and more language classrooms participate in its adoption, Bygate (2020) states the approach "needs substantial and extensive engagement with the issues and realities of real-world stakeholders if it is to move out of the world of research and become part of a genuinely approved linguistics" (p. 284). In other words, to avoid falling to the wayside along the trajectory of past language instruction methods and approaches, the gap between theory and real-world practice must be addressed.

Summary

Continuing with the theme of innovation in Chapter 1, Chapter 2 explored a specific area of innovation in education. Following the broader movement in education away from a behaviorist view of learning and associated structural linguistics to a cognitive view and generative linguistics, the field of linguistics explored concepts like universal grammar, deep structure, and the idea of competence. The ensuing audiolingual method and total physical response both fell short in terms of natural language use.

The cognitive view of linguistics embedded in a constructivist view of learning combined with concepts such as cooperative learning and interactive discourse. Thus, the communicative language teaching approach was developed. Communicative language theory has advantages as an approach when it comes to learner-centeredness, but successful implementation involves not only training and professional development, but

also conversations and deliberations about implementation for instructors to transform

theory into practice as discussed in Chapter 1.

Communicative language teaching involves students in the purpose and context of

the communication. Similarly, learner-centered instruction involves the student in

planning and applying language within interactive, communicative events. Lastly, task-

based instruction engages students in learning contexts that are directly relevant to their

needs and purposes. Students combine newly learned linguistic elements to create new

forms necessary to complete a purposeful task.

In Chapter 3, I discuss the research methods used to answer these questions:

1. In the process of adopting a new, task-based, learner-centered foreign language

    program, to what levels of use will instructors adopt an innovation?

2.   To what levels of use will instructors engage with: (a) Knowledge and Acquiring

    Information, (b) Assessing and Planning, and (c) Sharing?

Chapter 3: Research Methods

Chapter 3 describes the context, participants, design, research questions, subjects, instruments, procedures, and data analysis of the present study. The study was designed based on the theoretical framework of innovation theory and the Concerns Based Adoption Model. I selected the concerns-based adoption model (originally proposed by Hall et al., 1973, and further developed by Hall & Hord, 1987; 2011) to understand functional roles and relationships during the adoption of the new task-based curriculum. Researchers have used the concerns-based adoption model in studies of innovation in language acquisition (Wang & Lam, 2009; Wang, 2013), professional development (Vaughan, 2002), and educational research (Hollingshead, 2009; Khoboli & O'toole, 2012; Roach, Kratochwill, & Frank, 2009). As a validated instrument, the concerns-based adoption model is a useful tool for measuring instructors' use of a task-based foreign language curriculum.

Context

This study took place at a regional language expertise and culture training facility operated by the US Navy. The task-based foreign language program was one of several specialized courses offered there. This study focused on the instructional staff and their experiences in implementing the task-based foreign language curriculum with a specialized student body. This was a curricular innovation because prior to developing the task-based language curriculum, the Navy used commercial, off-the-shelf curricula. The training facility was ideal for the study of instructor's adoption of a task-based curriculum

for adult learners of foreign languages because several languages were represented, the 12-week initial course was relatively short, and there was a steady stream of students coming through.

Participants

I used the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (Hall et al., 1987) to better understand functional roles and learn more about how each member of staff interacted and supported one another. I envisioned the students, instructors, and support staff as organized individual systems within a larger interactive system that included resources, a change facilitator, and users. This organizational structure was important within the context of the adoption of the curriculum and the successes and shortcomings of implementation. Although this study focuses on the instructors, the relationships between instructors, students, and administrators affected the use of the task-based curriculum. In this section, I will describe the students and instructors within the user system. I will describe the resource system, and finally, the role of the researcher as change facilitator.

User System

The students in the study were active-duty personnel who were training for deployments across the globe. Although the learner population was homogenous (male, 18–24 years old, and >90% White), the instructional staff was diverse. The instructors came from various countries and spoke eight different languages in addition to English. The instructors were broken into groups based on the languages they spoke, and the instructor teams included both males and females.

The instructors in this study represented native speakers of eight language groups (Pashto, Farsi, Arabic, Tagalog, Korean, Swahili, French, and Spanish). There were

29

initially 24 instructors and staff who I asked to participate in the study. 18 completed an

online survey between April 3 and May 7, 2018, for a response rate of 75%. The survey

contained an informed consent form and questions regarding demographics.The survey

officially kicked off the data collection phase with questions about the instructors'years of

experience with task-based language curriculum,

- language(s) taught,

- roles within the foreign language program,

- type(s) of curricula taught, and

- type(s) of students taught.

Students as Users

Building on Fullan's (2007) observation on understanding change as a key to

innovation success, it is not only important to understand the "what" and "how" of

change, but also the "who." I am including the following description (Federe &

Leishman, 2012) of the Navy personnel who were the students in the foreign language

program. I was one of the authors of this description, which was later added to the Navy's

Curriculum Development Protocol Guide (Navy, 2012), and served as the official

description and resource for prospective instructors, developers, and stakeholders,

providing insights into the students. According to the guide (Navy, 2012):

> Additional factors that play a role with these specific learners are their competitive
>
> natures and technological savvy. Instructors must integrate these characteristics as
>
> they develop and implement the curriculum. Activities should use competition to
>
> motivate learners, such as having learners compare answers, perform in an
>
> activity, and/or having consequences assigned to outcomes. They are conditioned

30

by their training to rise to the challenge when there is an element of struggle in the

learning process. Accordingly, the language-learning activities should be

challenging and should frequently require them to problem-solve. Because these

learners have grown up in a technology-centered culture, online materials should

be used to supplement the standard course materials. (pp. 9–10)

Competition, familiarity with technology, and a desire for problem solving were

characteristics of the Navy personnel who would be our students. The Navy personnel

combined their skills to aid them in implementing foreign missions on behalf of the US

Navy.

Instructors as Users

The instructors in the foreign language program were all adjunct contract

employees who had attended school in their countries of origin. The foreign language

program used a services contract to fill all vacancies and manage all human resources

functions. The contractor was responsible for finding, hiring, and retaining the instructors.

The contractor served a role similar to that of a talent agency. The talent in this context

were expert, highly educated, language instructors who were willing to work under short-

term, 12-week adjunct conditions. Federe & Leishman (2012) provided a brief description

of the expectations of contract instructors:

There are, and have been, many beliefs across cultures about the appropriate role

of an instructor. Regardless of the educational culture in which developers and

instructors gained their own education and training, the Initial Acquisition

Training (IAT) curriculum must be designed and implemented in a way that meets

the needs of a twenty-first century learner raised in the United States. In the IAT

classroom, the instructor will be a facilitator of learning, a careful guide. He or she

is not a lecturer or an all-knowing source of answers. (p. 17)

This description of the instructor role illustrates the complexity and sophistication involved in teaching within this context. Many instructors were accustomed to a transmission method of teaching, involving lectures, a language textbook, and memorization of vocabulary and grammar. Rather than this lecture style of teaching, the foreign language instructors were required to facilitate learning as the students worked to solve language problems that arose through conversation and role plays. The instructors were expected to observe the needs of the students and design purposeful and functional language instruction that would scaffold the students to greater fluency. The foreign language program curriculum was developed in eight languages. Seven of the eight languages were represented in the dataset, with 33% of the respondents identified as speaking Spanish. Korean was ultimately not included since it was the last to be developed and no students were enrolled in the full 12–week course within the timeframe of this study.

Instructors as Contract Employees

Because instructors were contractors, frequent changes to training calendars, missions, or regional focus could mean back-to-back teaching contracts, or indefinite waits without pay. For example, a call for six full-time Farsi instructors in January may decrease to one instructor by fall. The same held true for the duration of the contracts. Some classes ran for 12 weeks, some for three, and some were only for part-time tutoring—it all depended on demand and funding. For many instructors, such uncertainty was untenable.

Nearly all of the instructors who stayed with the foreign language program through the development phase were still active on instructor rosters. A majority of them had previously taught the full 12–week task-based language curriculum and/or task-based language curriculum for tutoring or annual sustainment training. Some, however, (37.5% of the instructors in the study) had other responsibilities that did not include task-based language curriculum (see Table 3.3).In Table 3.4, the group labeled "Navy" are the highly specialized/trained students who are the focus of the program and the group for which the task-based language curriculum was created. During the needs assessment, core competencies common to several groups were identified and used when developing the scope and sequence of the 12–week curriculum.

By design, the curriculum contains tasks within content domains familiar to a broader student base (labeled "Navy Support" and "Branch" (Branches 1–3) in Table 3.4). Therefore, many (43.8%) of the teachers had the opportunity to teach the task-based language curriculum to Navy Support students (members in less specialized and/or support functions) as well as those in other military service branches (56.3% for Branch 1 and 18.8% for Branch 2), affording the opportunity to adapt and tailor the curriculum to a specific student body of varied affiliation and experience(s). By comparison, 87.5% had taught the task-based language curriculum specifically, and 100% had taught any combination of curricula to the highly specialized/trained Navy group (see Table 3.4). For a summary of all categories, see Table 3.1.Role-plays and scenarios in a simulated village setting are an integral part of the 12–week task-based language course. For that reason, two administrative staff were included in the dataset due to their respective longevity in the program, occasional participation as role players or language tutors, and general

supporters of the program as part of the resource system. Most respondents self-identified as language instructor (88.9%) as their primary role and role-player (72.2%) as a secondary function. Table 3.1 shows a snapshot of major demographic data points by percentage.

Table 3.1 Instructor Demographics: All Categories

Instructor response rate	75%
Spanish language subset of all responses	33.3%
Primary role language instructor	88.9%
Of the primary role language instructors, number that had secondary role as role-player	72.2%
Instructors with no experience adapting and using task-based language curriculum	37.5%
Instructors that had the opportunity to teach task-based language curriculum to Navy Support students	43.8%
Instructors that had the opportunity to teach task-based language curriculum to Branch 1 students	56.3%
Instructors that had the opportunity to teach task-based language curriculum to Branch 2 students	18.8%
Instructors that had the opportunity to teach task-based language curriculum specifically to Navy students	87.5%
Instructors that had the opportunity to teach any combination of curricula to Navy students	100%

Instructor and Resource Roles. The instructors in this study represented native speakers of seven language groups (Pashto, Farsi, Arabic, Tagalog, Swahili, French, and Spanish). "Instructor" was an inclusive term, used interchangeably for language instructor, culture instructor, and role-player. However, as contract employees, each position had unique employment requirements (see Table 3.2). For the analysis of demographic data, 18 instructors (including the two non-TBLC instructors) were used to calculate percentages, rounded to the nearest tenth of one percent. Language instructors had the most stringent and highest contractual requirements to meet to be considered for employment by the

management agency. Of primary importance, language instructors had to meet educational and experiential requirements in language instruction, have a master's degree (or equivalent), and have experience teaching adults or teaching military personnel. After meeting the first requirement, language instructors had to be tested in the target language. There was also an English requirement. By contract, the U.S. government set minimum target and English language requirements as a quality assurance measure, however, that requirement could be waived if a qualified candidate could not be found. In contrast, role-players had the least number of requirements. Role-players were contracted for their ability to work as a small team, to stick to a basic script, and to communicate in the target language. Scenario training was run only once per quarter and only for one 8-hour day, so contracting previous role-players that knew the script was preferred over retraining a new contractor each time.

Sandwiched between the language instructors and role-players were the culture instructors. The number of culture instructors required depended on the size of the class and the ratio of primary and auxiliary culture instructors. Primary culture instructors ran the one-week courses and had the same contractual requirements (education and experience, target and English language) as language instructors.

Table 3.2 Instructor Demographics: Language(s), Role(s)

Instructor Number	Language(s) Taught	Foreign Language Program Roles			
		Language Instructor	Culture Instructor	Role-Player	Staff Support
15	Arabic	X	X	X	
3	Arabic	X			
9	Arabic/French	X	X	X	
18	Farsi	X		X	
5	Farsi	X	X	X	
14	French	X		X	
11*	N/A				X
16	Pashto	X	X	X	
7	Spanish	X	X	X	
2	Spanish	X			
8*	Spanish			X	X
1	Spanish	X			X
13	Spanish	X	X	X	
12	Spanish	X		X	
17	Swahili	X			
10	Tagalog	X		X	
4	Tagalog	X		X	
6	Tagalog	X		X	X

Note. *Indicates non-task-based language curriculum (TBLC) instructors.

Auxiliary culture instructors were embedded with groups of students at a ratio of 1 to 6. Contractually, these instructors could be either language instructors or role players, as long as they could communicate well in spoken English. An additional requirement was less tangible. It involved the instructors' ability and willingness to discuss

uncomfortable or even taboo subjects in a way that allowed the students to question, assess, and forge new cross-cultural communication pathways.

The impact of these roles—on the language instructors, in particular—were multifold. In terms of employment, the more flexible an instructor's schedule, the more roles they could potentially fill and the more contract hours and pay they could command. Likewise, language instructors who also contracted to be role players or culture instructors gained valuable experience in other elements of the task-based curriculum, including live, task-based scenario training and assessment.

Resource System

A centralized system of administration was located within the foreign language program to manage funding, ensure quality of training, and consolidate management under permanently assigned professional educators. This consolidation meant that the program would not have to rely on non-specialized training officers who changed positions frequently and who did not necessarily have experience with languages or with managing complex contracts and contract instructors. Administration and support staff were full-time contract employees under the same contract as the instructors and were located adjacent to the classrooms. This allowed for frequent and easy interaction between teachers and support staff. The administration provided teachers with all material and support staff functions, including administration, supervision, and academic mentoring.

Administration as Resource

Full-time, contract administration cadre were organized to fulfill the roles one would expect in a robust language department. There was both a Program Manager (me),

a Program Coordinator, an Academic Manager, and an Academic Coordinator. The Academic Manager reported to me, and the Academic Coordinator reported to the Program Coordinator. Other resources included the Administration Coordinator and Data Management Coordinator, who also reported to the Program Coordinator.

The contract administrators served as the daily, direct support for both students and contract instructors, and provided registrar, testing, reporting, and academic counseling functions. The Academic Manager and I worked with our contractor counterparts as the official government representatives; we were also the "last word" when issues could not be handled by the support functions provided by the contract administrators. Contractually, the Program Coordinator had authority over all contract employees and I, in consultation with the Contract Officer, had authority over any programmatic or contractual decisions.

For the analysis of demographic data, 16 instructors (not including the two non-TBLC instructors) were used to calculate percentages, rounded to the nearest tenth of one percent. For anonymity, the types and specific roles of the student base have been altered to represent basic service branch and type.

Researcher/Change Facilitator as Resource

I managed the foreign language program for seven years and provided additional support to satellite facilities in Asia and the Middle East. I positioned myself within the concerns-based adoption model resource system as a change facilitator. I am a White male, a native English speaker, and have a master's degree in Education, with a focus on Russian and German language and literature. I am a retired U.S. Army Intelligence Officer, and at the point of writing this study, have had 20 years of civil service. Since

joining the Army at 18, my combined federal service has always been focused on language. I have been a language student, teacher, supervisor, and manager. Pursuing a PhD in Language and Literacy is yet another waypoint on my journey.

As change facilitator, I coordinated and monitored the collaboration within the interactive system of resources and users. Although the program I studied was relatively small (fewer than 30 active instructors at any given time), as Hall and Hord (2011) noted, depending on the size of the institution and the complexity of the innovation, the change facilitator could serve in a variety of roles, such as a colleague within a department, a principal, or a district-level coach or third-party training provider.

As a change facilitator, I focused on "trial use of an innovation, its installation, and ultimate integration into the normal operating structure of an institution" (Hall, 1973, p. 4). To implement the innovation, the language instructors were the individual adopters who made up the user system. The language program administration, which included me, was part of the resource system. Identifying the resources, change facilitator, and users within an interactive system allowed me to analyze how the instructors implemented the task-based language curriculum.

Data Collection

Over 24 months, I conducted focused interviews and collected structured observations, lesson plans, and training reports. I used levels of use interviews from the concerns-based adoption model as my primary data source due to flexibility (the generic construct can be applied across innovations), applicability (it can be applied to groups, teams, and organizations), and relevance (it can provide the change facilitator with actionable information). I conducted one levels of use interview with each participant.

40

Table 3.3 Instructor Demographics: Language(s), Curricula

Instructor Number	Language(s) Taught	Curricula Used		
		Commercial Curriculum	12–Week TBLC	TBLC for Tutoring
15	Arabic		X	X
3	Arabic		X	X
9	Arabic/French	X	X	X
18	Farsi		X	
5	Farsi		X	X
14	French	X	X	X
11*	N/A			
16	Pashto	X		
7	Spanish	X		X
2	Spanish		X	X
8*	Spanish			
1	Spanish	X	X	
13	Spanish	X	X	X
12	Spanish	X	X	X
17	Swahili		X	
10	Tagalog		X	X
4	Tagalog	X		
6	Tagalog	X		X

Note. TBLC= task-based language curriculum. *Indicates non-TBLC instructors. For the analysis of demographic data, 16 instructors (not including the two non-TBLC instructors) were used to calculate percentages, rounded to the nearest tenth of one percent.

Table 3.4 Instructor Demographics: Languages Taught, Types of Students

Instructor Number	Language Taught	Students Taught Using Task-Based Language Curriculum				
		Navy	Navy Support	Branch 1	Branch 2	Branch 3
15	Arabic	X	X	X		
3	Arabic	X	X	X	X	
9	Arabic/French	X		X	X	
18	Farsi	X		X		
5	Farsi	X	X	X		X
14	French	X		X		
11*	N/A					
16	Pashto	X		X	X	
7	Spanish	X	X			
2	Spanish	X				
8*	Spanish					
1	Spanish	X	X			
13	Spanish	X	X	X		
12	Spanish	X	X	X		
17	Swahili	X				
10	Tagalog	X		X		
4	Tagalog	X	X	X		
6	Tagalog	X	X		X	

Note. *Indicates non- task-based language curriculum (TBLC) instructors.

Then I used the adapted levels of use protocol to analyze observations, training records, and lesson plans for each participant Levels of Use Focused InterviewsI began by conducting a brief demographic survey that asked each instructor details about their teaching experience, including years of service, types of students, methods, and curricula. All instructors were able to speak and understand English. After analyzing the

demographic survey data, I conducted level of use interviews. Through the interviews, I

hoped to gain an understanding of the adoption of the task-based curriculum.

I started the interviews with one instructor from each language group (Spanish,

Tagalog, Farsi, Arabic, and French). I then completed the remaining four interviews, for a

total of nine: two Spanish, one Tagalog, two Farsi, two Arabic, and two French, which

represented all five major language groups.

The levels of use interviews go beyond a binary measurement of use/non-use and

focus on teachers' behaviors and actions. lists the eight levels of implementation

identified by Hall and Hord (1987), with a typical indicator of use for each level. There

are three levels of non-use (Levels 0–II) and five levels of use (Levels III–VI). Hall and

Hord (2006) noted a typical progression of implementation/use as instructors gained

experience or received appropriate professional development opportunities.

To ascertain the level of use, I used a branching structure in my analysis (see

Figure 3.2), which focuses on decision points or specific actions by the instructor. During

the interviews, I asked the instructors if they were using the innovation. If they replied in

the affirmative, I asked if they had made any changes. If they answered in the negative, I

asked if they had made plans to begin using the innovation. Through a series of questions,

the instructors indicated their level of use. The decision point or action denotes an

increase of commitment to the innovation. I conducted the interviews in a single sitting,

or as a hybrid of informal questioning over time, in conjunction with

Level	Custom	Typical Indicator of Use
VI	Renewal	The user is seeking more effective alternatives to the established use of the innovation.
V	Integration	The user is making deliberate efforts to coordinate with others in using the innovation.
IVb	Refinement	The user is making changes to increase outcomes.
IVa	Routine	The user is making few or no changes and has an established pattern of use.
III	Mechanical	The user is making changes to better organize use of the innovation.

Level	Use	Typical Indicator of Non-Use
II	Preparation	The user has definite plans to begin using the innovation.
1	Orientation	The user is taking the initiative to learn more about the innovation.
0	Non-Use	The user has no interest, is taking no action.

Figure 3.1. Levels of Use *Note.* Adapted from Hall and Hord (2011)

The levels of use interview is similar to an oral proficiency protocol, which is used to assess language proficiency. These protocols, whether used by the Department of Defense, Federal Agencies, or the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages, generally contain four parts:

1. Introduction: The tester identifies identities and reviews the purpose of the interview and any non-disclosure agreements.

2. Warm-Up: The tester initiates the interview with small talk to relax the test taker and build rapport.

3. Interview: The typical interview uses two types of elicitation. The typical elicitation and response chain consists of level checks (to confirm tester hypothesis of base level) and probes (checks to explore possibility of elevating interview to next level). The tester alternates between level checks and occasional probes and assigns a final rating against established skill level descriptors as stated in the rating scale.

4. Cool-Down: The tester returns to questions like those in the Warm-Up and then ends the interview.The levels of use focused interview was more scripted. Base level questions were provided, along with suggested probes. Because of my experience with the oral language assessment, administering and rating the levels of use interviews was not as daunting as the branching chart in Figure 3.2 would suggest.
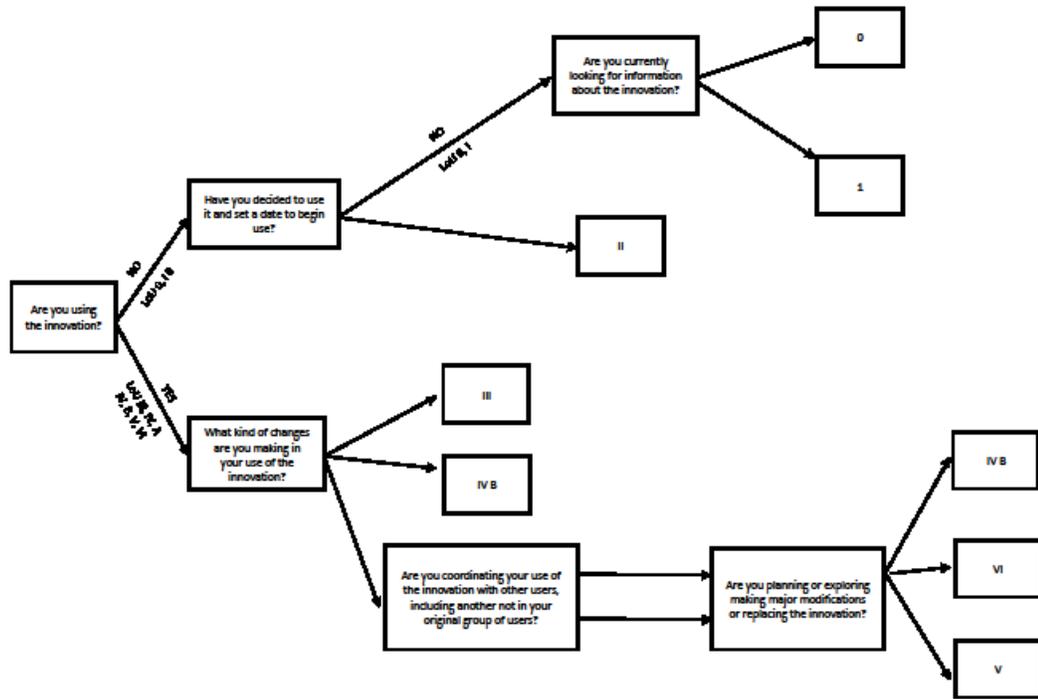
Figure 3.2. Original Branching Chart.

Written Artifacts

To gain a clearer picture of how the instructors were implementing the innovation, I adapted the levels of use branching chart for use with written artifacts. This allowed me to go beyond self-reporting of use, to see how the task-based curriculum was being used in the classroom.

The task-based curriculum had an integrated quality control program called the Quality Assurance Surveillance Program (QASP) that included an observation form. I observed instructors regularly and recorded and reported results using the observation

form (see Appendix A). Other available artifacts that I used as data included daily lesson plans, and instructor and student training records.

QASP Observation Form as Artifact

The QASP observation form is the document that government personnel use to assess contractor performance. It is aligned with criteria listed in the verbiage of the contract. In the case of the task-based curriculum, these criteria list the standards, conditions, and manner in which instruction should be carried out. I used the QASP observation form as a data source due to its focus (instructional concepts that support a communicative, student-centered instruction), alignment (it reinforces behaviors that support implementation of the target instructional approach and associated methodologies), and, similar to the levels of use structured interview, its relevance (it can provide the change facilitator with actionable information).In addition to the mandatory QASP observation, a contractor will often conduct their own evaluations to ensure quality of service. For the task-based curriculum, the contractor used a form called the Quality Assurance Evaluation (see Appendix B). The Academic Coordinator and I administered both evaluations, to provide formative, constructive feedback to the instructor cadre.

The QASP observation process and product(s) were a rich source of information when taken in their aggregate. The process was iterative, and instructors were observed at least twice a year. QASP observations were announced in advance and started with the Academic Coordinator and a Quality Assurance Evaluation. As Program Manager, I then observed a similar lesson with the same group of students one to two weeks later. The rationale for the advance notice, the order of QASP observations, and the time allowed between Coordinator and Manager observations was to frame a high stakes event (formal

47

government QASP observation) as a supportive, formative event with a focus on encouraging growth and highlighting areas of excellence.

The Quality Assurance Evaluation served as a mechanism for dialogue between the coordinator and the instructor. It was broken into three sections: Planning and Preparation, Techniques of Instruction, and Learning Environment. Each section had guiding statements or areas of evaluation against which the Academic Coordinator assigned a rating and provided detailed comments. The Academic Coordinator met with the instructor to discuss the ratings, observations/comments, and areas to sustain and/or improve before the official QASP observation with me. If the instructor was satisfied with the feedback and their performance, the official QASP observation was conducted the following week. If the instructor desired to work on any element(s) of the lesson with the Academic Coordinator, then the official QASP observation was scheduled two weeks out. QASP observations were not intended as "got you" moments, but rather as opportunities to demonstrate excellence.

Before I received the invitation with the date and time of the QASP observation, I did not know the results of the Quality Assurance Evaluation or the resulting conversations between the Academic Coordinator and instructor. This purposeful component of the program design was intended to encourage focused reflection on the part of the instructor. It was also meant to encourage instructors to view the Academic Coordinator as non-attributive. In the context of the Quality Assurance Evaluation, the Academic Coordinator was a resource that worked for and supported the instructor, not management.

Although the Quality Assurance Evaluation form was mostly narrative in format and meant to ensure adherence to contractual requirements, it was still aligned with the broader task-based curriculum. The QASP observation form, on the other hand, was more granular and mostly focused on instructional concepts that supported a communicative, student-centered approach. Each block on the QASP form was labeled with an objective, contained a brief definition of the objective, and had a drop-down rating box with the following options: Not Observed, Standard Not Met, Approaching Standard, Standard Met, and Standard Exceeded. Like the Quality Assurance Evaluation form, the QASP observation form was broken into thematic sections. Blocks 1–6 (Classroom Environment; Leaner-Centeredness; Balance and Variety of Language Presentation; Class Participation and Interaction in The Target Language; Critical Thinking and Problem Solving; Goals, Outcomes, Feedback, Assessment) are methodological objectives that supported a task-based, learner-centered approach. Blocks 7–11 (Skill and Proficiency Level; Contextualization and Meaningful Tasks; Lesson Planning; Reflective Practices; Homework), were more practical in orientation and focused on reflective practices during planning. The remaining blocks, 12–15 (Class Periods and Teaching Obligations; Professional Image; Materials; Command of The Target Language), along with the tabulation fields by rating category, were more organizational in nature and reflect contractual requirements of the quality assurance program.

Lesson Plan as Artifact

Prior to the implementation of the new curriculum, lesson plans served only as a record of covered material. On the lesson plan, instructors recorded chapters, pages, and learning objective(s). There were two potential downsides to this system. First, it was

unclear how and how well the objective(s) were attained. Second, there was no requirement for the instructor to reflect on the outcomes.

However, with the creation of the new task-based curriculum and its integrated activities, homework, and assessments, lesson plans changed from a mostly static, historical document, to a living and vital element of the task-based, student-centered approach. In alignment with areas of focus of the QASP observation form, lesson plans became an integral component to encourage reflective practice. Instructors were trained to use the lesson plan as a way to record ad hoc classroom assessments, and note performance at the task, activity, and individual student levels.

Training Report as Artifact

The task-based curriculum used a modular database to maintain student and instructor records. The student module contained registrar records (registration, scheduling, and graduation certification) and academic records (attendance and formative/summative test scores) that were exported from the Learning Content Management System. More importantly, the instructor module contained professional development records that logged training, certifications, and conference attendance, along with limited employment records such as QASP observations, past assignments, and student feedback/evaluations. These official records were kept in a custom-built, encrypted Microsoft Access database. The data manager managed these records and regulated all access, which allowed managers to create customized training reports on demand. For this study, I used the Training Report as a data source due to its breadth and depth (range of data and types of data stored) and scope (spans the history of program and linked to student progress).

For security reasons, the Learning Content Management System used Student Control Numbers and Teacher Control Numbers for registration/scheduling. Once these data were exported from the Learning Content Management System at the end of the academic week, they were matched by Student Control Number/Teacher Control Number into the secure database. Once paired to personal identifiable information such as full name and contact information, these data were designated "for official use only" and were accessible only by authorized personnel in the resource system. As Program Manager, I maintained oversight and granted/excluded access to this data based on a need-to-know basis. Likewise, any report generated from the database was sanitized of any personal identifiable information or marked for official use only, depending on the recipient and the purpose of the report. These rules applied to both student and instructor data and reports.

Data Analysis

I collected written artifacts to expand and support my analysis of the levels of use interviews by using the levels of use analysis guidelines (Hall et al., 2013) to assess the artifacts. I then organized the data by type and analyzed it.

Levels of Use

I reminded the instructors that the informed consent they provided at the onset of the study was still in effect. The interview started with an open-ended question (did the individual use the innovation?) and proceeded down a chain of branching questions. The purpose of the follow-up questions was to reach a decision point before proceeding to questions that probed for the next level of use, or to confirm that an instructor had achieved a level without reaching the next. I developed the decision points to "clarify the

51

distinctions between each Level of Use" (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 87). Following Hall and Hord (1987), I grouped the indicators into seven categories that cut across the eight levels of use (see Figure 3.1).

I began the levels of use focused interviews with an open-ended question: "Are you using the innovation"? and proceeded down a chain of branching questions. The purpose of the follow-up questions was to reach a decision point before proceeding to questions that probed for the next level of use, and/or to confirm whether an instructor had achieved a particular level without reaching the next.

Each box in the Branching Chart (see Figure 3.1) contained a question that served as a base prompt. This base prompt was associated with a base level, as seen in Figure 3.1, levels of use. When I determined that the candidate had answered the base prompt in the negative, I applied that base level and descriptor to the candidate.

Level 0/Non-Use offers the simplest example of this process. When a candidate said they were not using an innovation, I followed up with questions regarding knowledge of the innovation and the candidate's intent to use it in the future. A candidate might have had knowledge of the innovation; however, if there was no intent or interest in using it, I assigned a base level rating of 0 (Non-Use) and an associated base level statement for Non-Use (The user had no interest, was taking no action). On the other hand, if a candidate answered the base prompt in the affirmative, or if they answered the initial prompt in the negative but follow up questions determined that the candidate's intent to learn more or to try using the innovation, I had reached a decision point. In this case, Level 0, Decision Point A: "Takes action to learn more detailed information about the innovation" is the threshold statement. If the evidence indicated that a candidate had

reached the threshold, the interview then proceeded to the next level with its associated base level prompt, statement, and decision point. When the candidate no longer provided sufficient evidence to warrant the next higher level, the interview ended, and I assigned a final level.

There were two additional tools used in the rating process to assign a level beyond zero. The first was the levels of use rating sheet (see Appendix C), which provided a place to record rater determinations by level and decision point(s). The second was the behavioral indicators that are included on the sheet within each level, which offered additional guidance for assigning a level. As the levels of use interview progresses, the interviewer circles the appropriate element under each category as a decision point is either met or not met.

Hall and Hord (1987) identified seven categories to "clarify the distinctions between each Level of Use" (p. 87). The categories are knowledge, acquiring information, sharing, assessing, planning, status reporting, and performing. These categories served as topics for prompts when pursuing a line of questioning during an interview. Using the level of use rating sheet, the rater could assign category ratings within a level and assign an overall rating to be measured against the next decision point. Much like a level zero, the interview concluded, and a final level was assigned when the candidate no longer provided sufficient evidence to warrant the next higher level. This process allowed me to determine an instructor's level of use in implementing the task-based curriculum; however, the interviews also raised questions, which required analysis of additional data, the written artifacts.

Written Artifacts

In this study, the written artifacts (QASP observation form, lesson plan, and training report) came from a consolidated database of instructors' records. To understand what each data source revealed about instructors' level of use, I analyzed the written artifacts following the same methodology laid out by Hall and Hord (1987), with a few exceptions. To address the issue of modality (verbal interviews vs. document analysis), I amended the original Branching Chart (see Figure 3.2 for original chart and Figure 3.3 for amended chart).
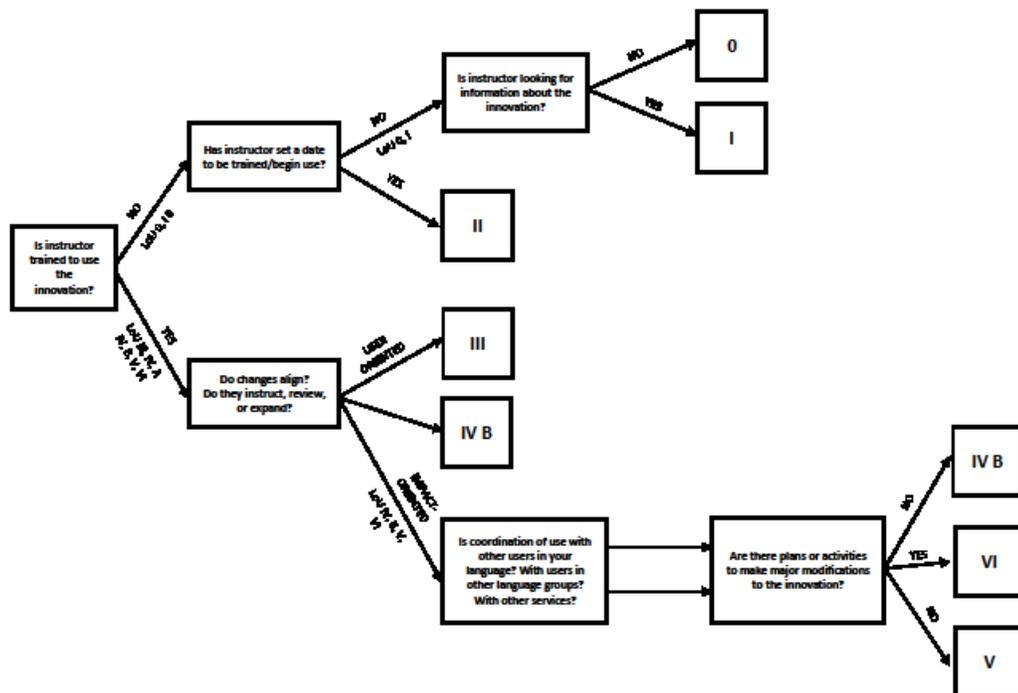

Figure 3.3. Amended Branching Chart

The levels of use instrument focuses on behaviors. It does "not at all focus on attitudinal, motivational, or other affective aspe cts of the user" (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 54). Instead, Hall and Hord (1987) argued, the instrument attempts to define what the user is actually doing.

The Level of Use branching chart was amended to use with written artifacts. Instead of asking the instructor questions, I asked myself the questions as I examined each artifact. For example, instead of asking, "Have you decided to use it and set a date to begin use?" I asked, "Has the instructor set a date to be trained/begin use?" The training reports provided the answer to this question. Another question that was amended was, "What level of changes are you making in your use of the innovation?" For analyzing the artifacts, I asked myself, "Do changes align? Do they instruct, review, and expand?" The QASP observations and lesson plans provided information to answer this question.

By amending the base level question(s), I could analyze the data while still using the same decision points. As before, negative response(s) (as evidenced by the content of the artifact) meant a threshold was not met/a decision point was not satisfied, and I assigned a base use level to the artifact. If the document analysis resulted in an affirmative at a base level and met the criteria for a particular decision point, I evaluated the artifact for the next higher base level. As with the levels of use interview, analysis ended, and I assigned a final level when the artifact no longer provided sufficient evidence to warrant the next higher level.

Document Analysis

In practical terms, the document analysis followed the same pattern as the levels of use interview and used the levels of use rating sheet (see Appendix C). Considering the

static nature of the documents, the artifacts were given a category rating only if evidence was present to substantiate that rating; otherwise, base level ratings were assigned using the base level descriptor and the established decision point. This process was followed for all three types of written artifacts, with the QASP observation form, lesson plan, and training report, all receiving independent base level scores.

A discrepancy of two levels between the levels of use interview base level score and base level scores assigned to the written artifacts would result in three things: (a) a review of the levels of use interview, (b) a rescoring of the levels of use rating sheet, and (c) a possible second interview. This allowed me to determine (1) whether an un-ratable sample was collected during the first interview, and/or (2) if the written artifacts did not contain enough substantive evidence to overturn the initial base level score, I assigned from the levels of use interview. I recorded the un-ratable samples along with all others, in case new connections arose during final analysis and determination of the levels of use by each instructor (see Chapter 4).

As I analyzed the data, trends emerged. In the interviews, I noted patterns in the level of responses across groups of instructors. For the written artifacts, I looked for similarities or differences in the level of recording and self-reflection in the lesson plans. I also looked for similarities or differences between what instructors self-reported in the interviews and what I discerned levels of use evident in observations, lesson plans, and training events.

Validity Issues

Schwandt (1997) defined validity as how accurately an account represented participants' realities of the social phenomena and if the account was credible to them.

Maxwell (2005) concurred, stating that the issue of validity referred "to the correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or other sort of account" (p. 106). One way to address any threat to validity is through a research design consisting of strategies to identify those threats and then try to rule them out (Schwandt, 1997).

Creswell and Miller (2000) proposed a framework whereby "the choice of validity procedures is governed by two perspectives: the lens [that] researchers choose to validate their studies [with] and [the] researchers' paradigm assumptions" (p. 124). Applying this to the current study, I identified appropriate procedures to address anticipated validity threats and used triangulation as the method to address any threats to validity.

The issue of validity was particularly critical in this study. Several weeks after beginning this study, the administration announced coming changes to the program, which effectively cut off the steady, consistent influx of new students. Instead, classes would be contracted individually as required, but language training, in general, was no longer a requirement. This change affected the language instructors' use of the task-based curriculum. Despite the limitations and constraints imposed by the changes, I was able to continue my analysis.

Triangulation

In this study, the research design called for triangulation through levels of use structured interviews and written artifacts. The semi-annual QASP observation served as direct observation of instructional practices and the weekly lesson plans and training reports offered an indirect look into the classroom. The artifacts provided direct and indirect evidence of the level of implementation by class and instructor and supported the

levels of use focused interview. I used these data sources together to triangulate collection methods and guard against validity concerns.

Ethical Issues

At the beginning of the project, I gave instructors a consent statement (see Appendix H) and a brief demographic survey. The consent form served several purposes from an ethical standpoint. It provided the instructors with a clear context and purpose for the study, clarified the voluntary nature of both the demographic survey and the focused interviews, and guaranteed the option to withdraw from the study at any point with no repercussions to future employment or consideration for assignments.

I gave a hard copy of the consent form to each participant whether they chose to participate or not. The consent form described the confidential nature of the data collection, data management, and data reporting. After the focused interviews, I reminded instructors that the data would be shown mostly in aggregate and only identified by language at the end of the study. These interviews provided instructors a chance to discuss, elaborate, and/or qualify any responses in the survey. For me, they also served as a reminder of positionality and roles within the larger system.

As part of the resource system, my role as government representative in relation to the contractors and their human resource system was as monitor only. I completed the QASP observations and communicated directly with the Program Coordinator and Academic Coordinator directly and had no power to hire or fire, but I was highly cognizant of the perception that I could influence that process through my relationship with the senior contractor representatives. Even in my role as change facilitator, I exercised a level of control when it came to approving funding or time for collaboration

or workshop events. It is not a stretch then, to understand the instructors' misgivings at being recorded during the levels of use interviews, nor to understand the nearly universal reluctance to verbally confirm making changes or adapting the new task-based curriculum to me, who was considered to have a role in the employment status of the adjunct contract instructors. The potential for, or perception of bias made the secondary data sources all the more important in this study.

Summary

I conducted this study to research the institutional adoption and implementation of a task-based, learner-centered, foreign language curriculum for adult learners. The participants were foreign language instructors and were framed within an interactive system as users of the new curriculum. The resource system consisted of administration and support staff, and I was the change agent within the interactive system. The data collection and analysis centered on the concerns-based assessment model, in particular, the levels of use interviews. A branching chart was used to progress through levels of use based on the participant answers to the interview questions. Written artifacts including observations, lesson plans, and training reports were analyzed with an amended levels of use protocol. The levels of use branching chart was amended for me to ask questions as I examined each artifact. The resulting level of use was compared with the interview results. Finally, I looked for and noted similarities and differences across reported and observed data. Through triangulation of data analysis, trends emerged in the patterns of responses across groups of instructors. In Chapter 4, I present my findings and the data that supported them.

Chapter 4: Results

In this study, I sought to understand two things: (1) In the process of adopting a new, task-based, learner-centered foreign language program, to what levels of use will instructors adopt an innovation? (2) To what levels of use will instructors engage in: (a) Knowledge and Acquiring Information, (b) Assessing and Planning, and (c) Sharing? During my analysis, I discovered several programmatic constraints that potentially limited the attainment of higher levels of use for some instructors. Despite these constraints, the strengths of each instructor were measurable through elements of the levels of use as determined by analysis of interviews and written artifacts.

The first finding was that all instructors reached a minimum overall mechanical Level of Use (LoU III/Mechanical) as determined by the interviews. This level of use indicates the instructor is using the curriculum and beginning to better organize use of the task-based curriculum. The levels of use interview alone did not provide sufficient evidence to assign a level equal to routine use (LoU IVa/Routine) for *all* instructors. Routine use indicates instructors have an established pattern of use yet are making few changes to the curriculum that focus on student outcomes.

To deepen my understanding of how instructors used task-based curriculum, I analyzed the written artifacts collected during the research study focusing on categories of use. Based on the written artifacts, I found that (a) all instructors met or exceeded LoU III/Mechanical in Knowledge and LoU IVa/Routine in Acquiring Information for a

holistic score of LoU IVa, (b) all instructors achieved at a minimum LoU IVa/Routine in both Assessing and Planning, and (c) all instructors reached LoU IVb/Refinement in Sharing using written artifacts. I will describe each of these findings in detail below.

Finding 1: Overall Levels of Use

The first finding was:

(a)   Using the levels of use interview alone, all instructors reached an overall minimum mechanical level of use (LoU III/Mechanical) across all categories.

(b)   Using the levels of use interview as the sole, primary data source did not provide sufficient evidence to assign a level equal to routine use for every instructor (Level of Use IVa/Routine).

I used two data sets to answer my first research questions: (a) the levels of use interviews, and (b) written artifacts, including classroom observations, lesson plans, and training reports.

Level of Use Interviews

I will discuss the results from interviews first because the process of interviewing provided important insights into the instructors' experiences. After the initial interviews, two things became immediately clear: (a) respondents followed the same pattern of responses to a point equal to Level of Use III/Mechanical and (b) most instructors changed their minds during the first interview and decided not to allow full reporting of the information collected in the interviews. This pattern repeated in the remaining four interviews (see Appendix D). Therefore, my analysis of instructors' responses showed six (66%) of the instructors reached Level of Use III/Mechanical, "The user is making changes to better organize the innovation." For example, when I asked one instructor,

61

"Have you made any changes recently in how you use the curriculum?" The instructor answered, "I skipped activities that seemed too easy or repetitive for some students." When asked the follow up question "Why?" the instructor answered, "As I became more familiar with the block activities and the daily objectives, I felt more prepared and confident." This was a mechanical level of use illustrating how as the instructors were gaining familiarity with the curriculum, they were making minor changes. To move beyond Mechanical use, the instructors would have to implement changes that were more substantial than skipping some exercises in the curriculum.

Other interview statements were, "This new curriculum involved a huge preparation and having that ready to go meant things would be a lot easier." This reflected mechanical use because the instructors were gaining insight into how to implement the curriculum efficiently. Instructors needed to prepare vocabulary related to deployment assignments and engage students in role-plays using common phrases often used in deployment contexts. The mechanical use of the task-based curriculum involved gaining familiarity with objectives of the curriculum and preparing activities so that lessons would proceed smoothly.

Three instructors reached Level IVa/Routine, "The user is making few or no changes and has an established pattern of use" when asked the same scripted question, "Have you made any changes recently in how you use the curriculum?" Moving from mechanical to routine use involved an enhanced degree of familiarity with the curriculum and the ability to expand their lessons. One instructor responded, "Having all materials downloaded, ready, print, cut, and plenty of notes days or even weeks ahead, made my classes easier because I felt more confident." The instructors routinely used materials

such as pre-printed worksheets, hanging files containing notes of past iterations, or functional compasses and laminated maps to be used in a specific lesson.

Instructors at a routine level of use knew and relied on the pacing of the curriculum. An instructor said, "I knew that we were all teaching the same things at the same time, and it benefited all students so they would not feel like an instructor was teaching them more or less and it was all standardized." This instructor had moved beyond mechanical because they were not longer focused only on developing their own knowledge of the curriculum. They evidenced routine use by comparing their lesson pacing to the other instructors.

Moving beyond mechanical use also involved enhancing the lessons. One instructor said, "Knowing all the cultural notes ahead of time gave me more room to prepare interesting discussions." The instructors had internalized the mechanical aspects of the curriculum and moved into using their knowledge to focus on how they were teaching. In sum, the routine use of the task-based curriculum involved routinely using materials to enhance their teaching, comparing their pacing with other instructors, and expanding their lessons.

I had predicted more variability in levels of use, thinking that some instructors would reach higher levels of use, such as making changes to increase outcomes (Level IVb/Refinement) or coordinating with others (Level V/Integration). However, the instructors did not respond in the affirmative to level probes like "Have you made any changes in your use of the curriculum based on previous coordination with others?" or "Are you considering making or planning to make major modifications to the curriculum

at this time?" A "yes" answer to either would have demonstrated a decision point in the interview protocol, which would have led to exploration of the next Level of Use.

To understand the discrepancy between my prediction and the data, I reviewed the data again and then returned to the respondents and asked questions about comfort level, willingness to participate fully, and whether they were concerned about the interviews being recorded. The instructors' answers revealed a programmatic constraint related to their adjunct contract employment status: they were worried about the repercussions of self-reporting. Several instructors commented that they did not like being recorded and that they were worried about their responses being matched to them because of the small number of instructors in the program. However, they did not opt out of the study altogether. However, they did not feel comfortable discussing curricular change in a recorded interview setting. Making changes to enhance student outcomes is essential to moving to higher levels of use within the interview protocol. Because of these concerns, I turned to the written artifacts to determine if these would provide evidence of higher levels of use.

Written Artifacts

I will first discuss general findings from the lessons plans because, for a variety of reasons, they were not amenable to analysis with the levels of use protocol. Then I will discuss classroom observations and the Training Reports, which both produced higher levels of use.

Lesson Planning

With the creation of the new task-based curriculum and its integrated activities, homework, and assessments, instructor lesson plans changed from a mostly static,

historical document to a living and vital element of the task-based, student-centered approach. In alignment with areas of focus of the QASP observation described above, lesson plans became an integral component to encourage reflective practice. Instructors used lesson plans as a way to record ad hoc classroom assessments and to note performance at the task, activity, and individual student levels.

The instructors were encouraged to use eclectic planning based on their own needs as they learned the new curriculum. Instructors approached annotation of the lesson plan in an organic way that made sense to them. For example, one instructor used short statements in their first language, or arrows or other symbols to denote performance. Another instructor used the camera function on their phone and printed screenshots of the whiteboard at the end of each lesson to capture ideas, progress, or items to return to, and stapled those to the lesson plan for reference.

Their lesson plans reflected how the instructors were in the midst of discovering, learning, and instituting the new, more reflective planning expectations. The lesson plans were demonstrative of an instructor focused on ease of use at the planning and organizational level and not for as an improvement to the curriculum. Therefore, I found the lesson plans reflected at best, verification of the instructors' attainment of LoU III/Mechanical (see Appendix F). To go beyond LoU III/Mechanical, there must be more consistent, detailed notes demonstrating that the instructor would make specific changes or adaptations to improve student outcomes, which was not sufficiently evident in the lesson plans. In sum, the interviews and lesson plans revealed a mechanical use of the task-based curriculum, with some instructors moving beyond mechanical to a routine use.

Several weeks after beginning this study, administration announced coming changes to the program, which effectively cut off the steady, consistent influx of new students. Instead, classes would be contracted individually as required, but language training, in general, was no longer a requirement. Because the instructors were reluctant to self-report on their use of the curriculum, observation reports and training reports became key to understanding the changes that occurred in the instructors' use of the task-based curriculum.**Finding 2: Levels of Knowledge, Planning, and Sharing**

In analyzing the QASP observation forms and training reports, I focused on categories within each level of use. Each category has a base level/threshold statement. The categories that emerged from applying the levels of use protocol were Knowledge, Acquiring Information, Assessing, Planning, and Sharing. I paired Knowledge/Acquiring Information, which measured declarative knowledge (the *what*) with Assessing/Planning, which measured procedural knowledge (the *how*). Sharing measured the metaknowledge of *when* and *why*. I kept Sharing as an individual category and determined a final levels of use rating, according to the categories.

Based on the QASP observation forms and training reports, all instructors met or exceeded LoU III/Mechanical in Knowledge and LoU IVa/ Routine in Acquiring Information for a holistic score of LoU IVa. All instructors also achieved at a minimum, LoU IVa/Routine in both Assessing and Planning. Routine use indicates instructors had an established pattern in planning, using task-based instruction, and assessing students. Yet they were making few changes to the curriculum that focused on student outcomes. All instructors reached LoU IVb/Refinement in Sharing. Refinement in sharing involves making changes that facilitate use of the curriculum to increase student achievement. I

66

will first describe each category then I will describe how instructors used the curriculum within these categories.

Knowledge and Acquiring Information

As described in the previous section, the interviews and lesson plans revealed the instructors were gaining knowledge and acquiring information about the curriculum. These two informational categories are complementary; the former is receptive and the latter, productive. Knowledge is different from other levels of use in that it does not describe a behavior, but rather "it determines what the user knows about the innovation and its use." To demonstrate knowledge, instructors made comments such as: "As I gained experience using the new curriculum, it became easier to explain what the expectations were."

Acquiring Information is an active category in that "the user is actively soliciting" (Hall et al. 2013, p. 58–59). Acquiring Information descriptors range from an instructor taking little or no action to get any information about the innovation at Level of Use 0/Non-Use to gathering information. An example of acquiring information, instructors made comments such as "I talked a lot to colleagues, especially those teaching the Tagalog and French versions" In the interviews, the instructors talked about sharing notes and lessons learned to gain acquire information. Talking to colleagues, sharing notes, and sharing their learning about the curriculum helped the instructors to move to mechanical and routine use of using knowledge and acquiring information on the task-based curriculum.

Assessing and Planning

The interviews and lesson plans revealed the instructors' mechanical or routine level of use in assessing and planning instruction. Assessing and Planning involved the procedural aspects of instruction and are complementary in that products of assessment can influence an instructor's planning. For example, assessing descriptors range from taking no interest or action to assessing the innovation's characteristics, uses, or consequences or non-use (LoU 0/Non-Use), to changing one's current practices to directly improve student outcomes (LoU IVb/Refinement). Instructors demonstrated how they changed their practices. For example, one instructor said, "I did extra research about the task-based approach" The instructor did self-initiated research to supplement the orientation training provided.

Planning involved designing steps, readying resources, or scheduling meetings to coordinate use of the innovation. Someone at LoU 0/Non-Use will neither schedule time to learn about the innovation in the near-term, nor do they plan to at any time in the future. However, the instructors who planned focused on both short- and long-term requirements to consistently use the innovation. For example, one instructor rated at LoU IVb/Refinement said, "I spent a lot of time making sure I had all I needed" and "then it became easier, probably just one or two hours" when describing preparation time at the end of each day.

Sharing

The QASP observation forms and training reports revealed movement beyond mechanical and routine level of use. This was most striking in the Sharing category. Sharing represents one of the most difficult things to foster and grow, as it involves not

68

only declarative and procedural knowledge, but also metaknowledge such as when and how to apply knowledge. The Sharing category is all about communication with the goal of co-constructing a greater understanding and use of the innovation.

Sharing can begin at the mechanical or routine level, but also move into refinement, integration, or renewal levels. Topics of discussion, therefore, may range from the logistical to theoretical. The intent of Sharing can be to make use of the innovation easier, more efficient, or to increase student achievement. Once all instructors had transitioned over to the task-based curriculum, one instructor said it "was easier to share with colleagues in case they needed extra materials. With my Spanish colleagues, we would help each other out, assessing our students on Fridays when they went over their communicative weekly goals." By working together, the instructors became more efficient in their use of materials and in assessing their students' progress. Sharing materials and assisting with student assessment were ways in which the instructors worked to ensure student achievement. Focusing on student outcomes was necessary for moving beyond mechanical and routine levels of use.

Insights from LoU Interviews and Written Artifacts

Using the levels of use rating sheet with the QASP observation records revealed higher levels of use in implementing the task-based curriculum. Observation provided an opportunity to gauge the environment, level of student engagement, and how the instructor engaged the students. In one instance, three instructors were at level IVa/Routine, based on their interviews; however, they were at level IVb/Refinement based on the QASP observation records.

The QASP observation form focused mostly on instructional concepts that supported a communicative, student-centered approach. The form included these categories: Classroom Environment; Leaner-Centeredness; Balance and Variety of Language Presentation; Class Participation and Interaction in The Target Language; Critical Thinking and Problem Solving; Goals, Outcomes, Feedback, Assessment. These were methodological objectives that supported a task-based, learner-centered approach. QASP also measured: Skill and Proficiency Level; Contextualization and Meaningful Tasks; Lesson Planning; Reflective Practices; Homework. These were more practical in orientation and focused on reflective practices during planning. Additionally, the QASP measured: Class Periods and Teaching Obligations; Professional Image; Materials; Command of The Target Language. These were more organizational in nature and reflected contractual requirements of the quality assurance program. Each of these objectives were rated as Not Observed, Standard Not Met, Approaching Standard, Standard Met, or Standard Exceeded. The QASP observation forms included observer comments.

It was the granular, thematic nature of the QASP, used with the base level and decision point descriptors that made using the modified levels of use rating sheet a useful tool for translating original QASP ratings and observer comments into levels of use and provided an enhanced understanding of instructors' teaching practices.

The QASP observation forms revealed new insights into instructors' levels of use when compared to the results from the interviews. Instructors tended to report lower levels of use than were observed and recorded on the QASP. In one interview, an instructor claimed they made no major changes to activities during lessons. However, on

the QASP observation record, the same instructor demonstrated great flexibility when it became evident that a student had not completed the preparatory activities the night before. As this occasionally happened with students, the instructor had already created an abridged version of the activity. This allowed the student to participate in the lesson and successfully complete the target task in the final role-play later in the hour.

Another example of the difference between self-reporting in interviews and observations involved an instructor who claimed they did not do any preparation work outside of scheduled planning hours. However, during an observation, the instructor replaced the pre-recorded dialogue with a newly made recording in the target language, which had been prepared the night before with a friend. When asked about the change, the instructor stated that students had demonstrated a firm understanding of the target language elements the day before and "needed a challenge."

The QASP observations illustrated that the instructors moved beyond mechanical and routine use of the curriculum to meet the needs of students. When students fell behind, the instructors devised ways to help them complete class activities. When students showed mastery of a language element, the instructors prepared more challenging activities.

Training Reports

In every aspect of the levels of use, training reports provided examples and highlighted the foreign language program instructors at their best and their most collaborative and creative (see Appendix G), particularly in making changes to increase outcomes, making frequent references to students, collaborating to benefit students, and sharing.

Making Changes to Increase Outcomes

As the new curriculum was being developed and then released, there were several pre-planned interventions to notify instructors of the upcoming adoption of a new curriculum and to update them as the design process moved forward. These initial interventions were followed by opportunities for the instructors to ask questions and to work with the curriculum design team. When the curriculum was finalized, instructors were given an orientation and trained to use the task-based curriculum in the classroom. The interventions included monthly progress reports; distributing and discussing the conceptual framework; a 14-module, self-paced, online orientation to task-based instruction (inclusive of assessments and written responses to comprehension checks); and finally, a 30-hour (five-day), hands-on training to implement the new curriculum.

To help instructors prepare for the new curriculum, I held pre-planned and instructor-initiated activities. The pre-planned activities included pairing instructors (by language) to conduct edits to the first edition of the curriculum. The edits they suggested (other than basic spelling or grammatical errors) had to be accompanied by written justification or suggestions for improvement. Instructor-initiated activities advocated for inclusion of dialectal variation of key vocabulary items and the development of a simplified grammar reference in the second edition (see Appendix I). Suggesting these changes to the task-based curriculum reflects level IVb/Refinement: "The user is making changes to increase outcomes."

After one or two iterations of the full 12-week curriculum, instructors took over the resource room and created storage bins for training aids, laminated instructional aids, and homemade posters. Since creating materials to use for implementing the task-based

curriculum involved considering how those materials would be used by the students, this activity also reflected level IVb/Refinement: "The user is making changes to increase outcomes."

Making Frequent References to Students

When deciding whether an instructor had met or surpassed LoU III/Mechanical, Hall and Hord (1987) noted, "Users at LoU III [mechanical] will use the pronoun "I" or "me" frequently in descriptions of their use" (pp. 55–56). Users at LoU IVa/Routine typically reported that the innovation was going smoothly and that there were no real changes, while users at LoU IVb/Refinement, describing their changes, were likely to make frequent reference to students. The language used by the instructors during the development of the task-based curriculum included language referring to students. For example, a language group whose students expressed a desire to practice the navigation exercises using maps of the low-lying tributary region of that country, submitted a request for functional compasses and laminated maps. Making requests for additional materials to benefit student learning showed how instructors moved from mechanical or routine use to refinement.

Collaborating to Benefit Students

As described in Chapter 3, the instructor module of the consolidated database contained professional development records that logged training, certifications, and conference attendance, along with limited employment records such as QASP observations, past assignments, and student feedback/evaluations. Analysis of these data revealed how the instructors collaborated to enhance student learning.

In fact, Hord (1987) stated, "The purpose of the integration or collaboration must be for the benefit of the students if the individual is to be classified at LoU V" (pp. 55–56). With similar mindsets, the instructors amended the curriculum—for example, they included a dialectal variation of key vocabulary items and a simplified grammar reference in the second edition. Based on these and similar training report notes and observation comments, I placed all instructors at LoU IVb/Refinement.

Most of the requests for materials, time for edits, and opportunities for instructor workshops were couched as requirements for better student outcomes. A frequent example was instructors (of all language groups) relaying feedback from past students about a novel word or phrase they learned in the region. The instructors would ask if they could teach that word/phrase in future classes, and if the word could be added to the glossary to better prepare students for real-world application of the language. As the requests (and associated lists) grew, the decision to convene a workshop and discuss parameters and products became evident and a major addition was made to the curriculum to best suit the students and their use of the target language.

In sum, analysis of the training reports revealed refinement of the curriculum through initiating curriculum revisions and additions as well as developing materials to be used by students. These curriculum refinements were geared toward enhancing student learning.

Sharing

To foster an environment of sharing, instructors must be knowledgeable, feel valued, and receive opportunities to collaborate. Because the curriculum development process included instructors' feedback, they felt valued. The Sharing category involved

74

the least pre-planning on the part of the resource system because instructors initiated (from the very beginning) and requested collaborative sharing events.

Many collaborative events started with a request for some planning time and the space to discuss an issue, concern, or proposal for improvement to the curriculum and/or procedures. The instructors did not invite me to most of these events, as they were capable on their own. I also wanted to encourage independent behavior and foster their sense of agency.

I scheduled a time for instructors to present their findings, make suggestions, and/or ask permission to make changes. Such changes included integration of quiz apps, free online resources, and occasional requests for fee-based electronic resources. Instructors also requested workshops, such as lessons with the learning management system. These workshops took place in the computer lab during the planning hour and were hosted by a rotating lead from each language group. Instructors also requested targeted adaptations for non-Navy students, including scuba diving and the use of scuba equipment. Lessons were adapted to maintain the target level of performance and overall level of proficiency; activities were changed to an operational task, in line with the target service (e.g., land navigation for Army). Because the group conducted the discussion in English, each language group could then translate into the target language to meet the students' needs. Collaboration, therefore, broadened the tasks, enhanced language learning opportunities, and enriched the curriculum.

One example of the instructors' collaboration on improvement to curriculum involved revisions to a rubric. The original version of the rubric called for an objective and a statement on the student's performance. The original thought behind this design

was that anything more complex would be burdensome on the instructor and/or require extensive training to ensure reliable scoring. Instructors used the rubric for all 12 weeks of the program; several instructors grew dissatisfied with it and two of them proposed something that better reflected student growth. The instructors wanted something that included pronunciation, accuracy, grammatical complexity, and a range of vocabulary. The goal was to improve feedback and better document students' progress.

The idea quickly spread to other language departments. Eventually, all language groups requested the adoption of the new rubric system and amendment of the assessment module in the learning management system. The new system, which started as an idea between two French teachers, is an example of collaboration between instructors. The new rubric met its goal. It provided students with improved feedback on performance and better documented students' progress in speaking.

In sum, the category of sharing emerged as the instructors engaged in collaborative planning, requesting additional materials, requesting workshops, expanding to other student groups, and improving assessment. Of all the phases, categories, and levels, the Sharing stage was the most significant and rewarding. It was also the stage imbued with pride and a sense of accomplishment. As an outcome of such activities, several instructors decided to pursue American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language tester certification in their native language, as their understanding and self-confidence had grown so much. Based on the level and quality of sharing between instructors and their modifications of the innovation in order to improve student outcome, I concluded that all instructors reached LoU IVb/Refinement.

Summary

The study's findings demonstrate programmatic success of the universal adoption of a new, task-based, learner-centered foreign language curriculum, as measured by levels of use and integration in the classroom. I analyzed interviews, observations, lesson plans, and training reports through the levels of use protocol. Although the instructor interviews revealed levels of use III/Mechanical and IVa /Routine among the nine instructors, elucidating data from the training reports contained evidence that all instructors had reached level IVb, which indicates that the instructors made changes to the task-based curriculum to improve student outcomes. This finding suggests that collaboration and sharing are essential to program development and focus. The Sharing category was instrumental in showing the movement of instructors from mechanical and routine use to the refinement level of using the task-based curriculum. Instructors initiated collaborative planning, workshops, curriculum additions, and assessment revision as they refined their use of the task-based curriculum.

The data analysis also revealed that programmatic constraints influenced potential attainment of higher levels of use as determined by interviews alone. Because the instructors felt their jobs were potentially in jeopardy due to the growing infrequency of longer-term teaching contracts, they did not feel comfortable discussing curricular change. This finding has implications for future applications of levels of use interviews in other settings. By analyzing diverse types of data with the levels of use protocol, it became clear that relying only on interviews to determine level of use was not sufficient in this context. Multiple data types revealed additional implementation by the instructors. This finding has implications for future studies using the levels of use protocol.

In Chapter 5, I summarize my study and my findings, discuss implications for the field, and offer suggestions for further research.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This study explored how instructors engaged in curricular innovation and the adoption of a task-based foreign language curriculum. Because it is individuals who accomplished innovation, it is a highly personal experience and involves developmental growth. The road to adoption of the task-based curriculum was a journey, not only for the instructors, but also for me as a young manager.

The primary reason I created this study was to ascertain (1) To what levels of use would instructors adopt a new, task-based, learner-centered curriculum within a foreign language program? and (2) To what levels of use would the instructors engage in curriculum knowledge, acquiring information, assessing, planning, and sharing.

The answers to these questions were important to me so I could better support the instructors. As the change facilitator, I needed to understand what stressors the new curriculum might create and how best to mitigate any problems. I hoped to use that information to grow professionally as an educator and a manager.

Curricular innovation is challenging at the instructor, management, and policy levels. Instructors are accustomed to teaching content, and policy makers are looking for metrics that are specifically aligned with the coverage of that content. As an educator by schooling and a manager by experience, I found myself pulled in multiple directions. I felt the need to be just as confident as the instructors in understanding and applying the innovative, new approach. At the same time, I had to provide constant justification and

rationale when asking for more time and a larger budget to get the entire enterprise to full adoption. This study also filled a void in the literature regarding task-based, learner-centered foreign language curricula. By capturing and analyzing language instructors' acceptance and use of a new foreign language program, this study bridges the gap between research and theory through actual application and implementation of the task-based approach at the institutional level with adult professionals who were learners of foreign languages. More specifically, the study elucidates the importance of the collaborative aspects of implementation. This is important because a learner-centered, task-based approach is not in any commercial-off-the-shelf foreign language curriculum. Instead, the curriculum must be co-constructed with constant input from the instructors.

My first finding, using the levels of use interview, found a (practically) universal threshold of LoU III/Mechanical for all Instructors across all categories. The instructors had the knowledge to implement task-based instruction. However, using additional data sources (classroom observations, lesson plans, training reports) as part of my collection methodology, my second finding was more illuminating. By exploring each level of use by functional category, I was able to assign higher levels of use for Knowledge, Planning, and Sharing. When viewed through the lens of innovation and change, these findings have implications for practice and application in other contexts outside of this study.

For Finding 1, Overall Levels of Use, Hall and Hord (1987) would deem the implementation successful, as all instructors reached a minimum LoU III/Mechanical and adopted a complex innovation. However, as discussed in Chapter 4, there were several constraints that could explain why only 33% of instructors reached the next level (LoU IV/Routine). These constraints could have been of a personal nature, such as flexibility of

schedule, or more programmatic in origin. For this discussion, I will first focus on the programmatic aspects of innovation and change. This will be followed by a discussion of the collaborative aspects of implementation.

Programmatic Constraints

Programmatic constraints included the adjunct contract nature of the instructors' employment in the foreign language program. Adjunct instructors were hired to keep the program costs down. Mykhailyshyn et al. (2018) noted that funding plays a fundamental role in multiple processes. In the context of this study, funding drove the decision for adjunct, contract employees. I suggest that the inconsistent, infrequent nature of employment prevented the maximum application of the task-based approach and curbed the full potential of the task-based curriculum that was designed specifically for the student body. As Van Avermaet et al. (2006) noted, innovation affects the classroom environment in complex ways. Therefore, attention to the "local contexts" (p.176) is necessary. In the case of the current study's foreign language program, the broader working environment impacted the instructors. Adjunct contract instructors were concerned their interview answers could make them stand out to management and possibly affect their future employment. This tension had the potential to inhibit expanded use of the new task-based curriculum.

Previous research has shown that instructors sometimes fail to reconcile old teaching beliefs and methods for new ones (Kim, 2008). This can occur if instructors feel it is safer to maintain the older ways in case the innovation fails, and things return to the way they were. Likewise, instructors might lag in fully implementing a new curriculum for fear of low ratings on observations (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). In the case

of adjunct contract instructors, those new to the program and task-based instruction in general, or in a language group seldom called for, would have little chance to build experience necessary for higher levels of use. These instructors could equally develop a wait-and-see attitude when it came to reporting changes they initiated.

As noted previously, my initial findings from the levels of use interviews left me with an incomplete picture of the state of progress with the innovation, in that I had observed many instructors moving beyond the LoU III/Mechanical through sharing and collaborating. It is one thing to verbally affirm knowledge of underlying concepts and another to demonstrate it in practice. For example, with a traditional, well-developed grammatical syllabus, an instructor need not seek knowledge, information, or even plan beyond what is in the textbook, as the entirety of the grammatical approach is contained within that text. With the task-based approach, however, instructors must be knowledgeable and skilled not only in the content areas. They must also know the underlying theory of the approach, how it was operationalized and developed into a coherent scope and sequence, and how each linguistic function builds on previous functions in each task and lesson.

Once I analyzed the written artifacts at the categorical level, I found the disconnect between what the instructors reported and how they performed. The instructors really had moved beyond a LoU III/Mechanical level of use in many important and exciting ways, despite their concerns around job security.

Collaborative Implementation

In Finding 2: Levels of Knowledge and Acquiring Information, Assessing and Planning, and Sharing, the picture became clearer. The overall levels of use captured the

scene but revealed little detail. By adding the performance data captured in classroom observations, lesson plans, and training reports, foreground became distinct from background, patterns became distinguishable, and elements came into focus. Through analyzing the written artifacts, levels of use categories were distinguished by function and by what aided or constrained instructors from reaching the next level. The levels of use categories in which the instructors reached LoU IVa/Routine were Knowledge and Acquiring Information and Assessing and Planning. Instructors reached LoU IVb/Refinement in the Sharing category.

Confidence in Knowledge

The categories of Knowledge and Acquiring Information are important for instructors to have confidence in carrying out task-based instruction and to motivate students to engage in tasks. Key to implementation of innovative curriculum is the inclusion of instructors in making bottom-up adaptions (Wallace & Priestly, 2011). When instructors are clear where they stand methodologically, they can choose to teach differently from the way they were taught (Clarke, 2003). Confidence in using a task-based approach was built by collaboration between instructors. For example, instructors collaboratively developed common explanations for activities so that all the students across languages would receive the same explanations for activities such as role-playing, reversing roles, and student led tasks. This was important because task-based instruction involves moving quickly from declared knowledge to applied knowledge. It does not look as much like the language instruction that students may have had experienced in their previous education. Therefore, students may resist the new approach. Students must be motivated to perform the bulk of the language production even when it becomes taxing

83

and motivational factors have a significant impact on language output (Dörnyei &

Kormos, 2000). The instructors needed to feel confident in the curriculum in order to

motivate the students. As Van Avermaet, et al. (2006) noted, the instructor must be

confident enough with the approach to support the students as they learn by doing and

completing the task.

Collaborative Planning

The categories of assessing and planning are linked to the skill the instructors

demonstrated in in operationalizing knowledge and acquiring information The instructors

achieved LoU IVa/Routine level of use that one would expect from a more mature

program with fewer constraints placed upon it. The instructors in the foreign language

program constantly assessed and planned, often in collaboration.

The development of the task-based, learner-centered language program was

collaborative from the very start. The group developed all the pieces (administrators,

managers, and instructors). This included the formative and summative assessments and

resulted in a fully thought-out vision. approach and assessments. Thus, the instructors

were involved in design, development, implementation, and evaluation. One factor that

leads to successful curriculum innovation is the professional development of teachers in

the use of new approaches (Mata, 2012). Failure to place teachers as the center for

implementing innovative classroom practices (Markee, 1997) is a primary cause of failure

in development programs, particularly if there are mismatches between proposed changes

and the beliefs and established routines that instructors currently hold (Larsen–Freeman &

Anderson, 2013).

Producing curriculum materials requires collaboration. Larson-Freeman (2013) noted that multiple opportunities to produce rich, meaningful language with peers and instructors are needed for language learning. Elevated levels of creativity and dynamism are required to formulate engaging tasks and associated activities, these activities often require resources beyond what are often readily available in the standard resource room (Hatip, 2005). Yet there is a dearth of such material that is commercially available (Long, 2014). With a lack of commercial, mass-produced examples to refer to, the instructional staff had to dig deeper and depend more on other instructors and networks of like-minded professionals in the field. Those of us in administrative and support staff roles tried to provide materials and opportunities for training and professional development, yet the unifying factor between assessing, planning, and operationalizing was the collaboration between administration, support staff, and instructors.

Collaboration between Administration and Instructors

The task-based approach embraces learning through exploration, taking what is already known and can be known without guidance and expanding horizons through participatory and non-participatory interaction with others (Van den Branden, 2006). The instructors reflected this exploratory approach to teaching and learning. The instructors collaborated in pairs, language groups, and over lunch discussions. The category of sharing clearly highlighted the collaboration between instructors. Their collaborations were then codified into seminars, events, and co-teaching opportunities that gave instructors voice, agency, and opportunity to express not only successes, but also worries, concerns, and questions. Change cannot be handed down from administrative levels to teachers or through an unsupported bottom-up approach (Fullan, 2007; Markee, 1997). In

the case of the Foreign Language Program, a need was identified. Current models of change implementation stress the importance of the users (instructors) engaging as part of the change process (Fullan, 2007; Markee, 1997; Mata, 2012). It is important that instructors are included from the beginning of the change process. This avoids creating a gap between instructor knowledge and new program implementation. (Fullan, 2007). Effective innovation management comes through establishing and nurturing shared meaning, thus ensuring that all stakeholders come to understand the change. In the present study, instructors had collaborated with me as their manager during program development. Therefore, when there was a discomfort with any aspect of the curriculum, the teachers came to me for advice. When instructors were unsure of how to evaluate students' speaking, for example, we had collaborative meetings to talk about how to bridge theory to the implementation. Rather than giving them a solution, we solved it together collaboratively. This process of collaborating became an innate practice and therefore, at the time of the study, all instructors had reached a Level of Use IVb/Refinement. They had moved beyond a mechanical use and were refining the curriculum by sharing resources with one another, creating supplemental teaching materials, and collaboratively redesigning assessments.

The entire instructional staff cannot be praised enough for their hard work, focus, and willingness to trust in me and the program. However, all that sweat, and toil will end up as nothing more than a reference in the stacks on campus in Columbia, South Carolina if others cannot find like cause with our experience. My goal below is to present implications for the field for others to refute, debate, replicate, or expand upon using the

86

concerns-based adoption model (see Chapter 1, Figure 1. 1) as an organizational frame of reference.

Of important note since the writing of this dissertation and the publication of the final document, the Navy unit in charge of the foreign language program has canceled all language, regional expertise, and culture programming. All instructors and support staff involved in this study are no longer associated with the program and my heartfelt thanks and appreciation go out to these consummate professionals for keeping focus and holding true to the mission to the very end.

Implications for the Field

This study contributes to the field of curricular innovation by using the concerns-based adoption model to evaluate programmatic efficacy in the adoption of a tasked-based, learner-centered curriculum for adult learners. I used the levels of use instrument to measure behavioral changes in the instructional staff to better anticipate areas requiring intervention. The primary finding I would share with others in the field is the importance of sharing and collaborative program development. It is essential to share the research behind the innovation and the rationale for the need for change (needs/gap analysis), to present the explanation in instructors' terms of the target change (method or approach), and to clearly delineate roles so that the operationalization towards adoption is co-constructed.

Implication 1: Resource System

Trying to convince a curriculum review board or council to consider change, particularly when the product or service is not well known, can seem nearly impossible without the right data for support. As Porter (1990) noted, the decision is very often

economic rather than pedagogic. Keeping everyone fully informed of not only the "what,"

but also the "how "of change as Fullan (2007) argued, is crucial to innovation and

successful change. As found in this study, having a well-staffed and informed resource

system to properly support the instructional staff is key to achieving relatively high levels

of use of the task-based curriculum.

However, the levels of use achieved come with a caveat. As Mykhailyshyn et al.

(2018) note, funding plays a fundamental role in multiple processes. In the context of this

study, funding drove the decision for adjunct, contract employees. It is my professional

opinion that the inconsistent, infrequent nature of employment prevented the maximum

application of the task-based approach and curbed the full potential of the task-based

curriculum that was designed specifically for the student body. From the standpoint of

resourcing, full funding is essential for successful innovation and full ownership at all

levels.

Implication 2: Change Facilitator

As the change facilitator in this study, the most valuable thing I learned was to do

my homework. As Tidd and Bessant (2018) warned, do not fall for the fad, dig into the

research, and explore the fundamentals. After that, seek the help of others. Hall and Hord

(2006) noted that change facilitators can come from multiple sources. In my case, I pulled

from multiple sources and subject matter experts before ever approaching the

instructional staff. The change facilitator's job is to help the instructor bridge the gap

between internal norms and practice to something new and foreign. The implication here

is that first impressions matter. By avoiding a gap between instructors' readiness to

implement the innovation and the institution's desire for immediate, full-scale adoption

and by maintaining focus at the instructional level and not solely at the institutional level, this study arguably achieved what Iemjinda (2011) referred to as harmonization.

Implication 3: User System

The primary implication for the instructor in this study comes in the form of voice. In a system of systems, one's voice can often get lost, particularly when operating in a temporary or adjunct status. If this study provides proof of anything for the practitioner, it is the power of sharing. Through sharing, sharing often, sharing with many, and sharing in constructive ways, meaningful change can take place and your voice will be heard. Communication with your change facilitator and resource system is vital to making change happen. I cannot emphasize this enough. Share, share, share.

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Suggestions for Further Research

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1. Further Development and Application of the Task-Based Approach

The task-based approach offers co-constructed meaning and communication. It provides students with the opportunity to learn in a manner that encourages exploration and affords them the richest language learning experience currently available. Van den Branden (2006), who studied immigrant school-aged children and a national curriculum, argued for more research in regular classroom settings using the task-based approach. In the current study, I researched adult military personnel and a specialized language training curriculum. I, too, encourage further research that explores the expansion of the task-based approach—in this case, to ESL/EFL programs and (arguably) English for Specific Purposes (ESP). For example, programs for students that are geared more directly towards academic settings or for parents trying to navigate state and federal institutions like the DMV, bank, or school registration office. Although curriculum exists

that is thematically based and includes such topics, it is not grounded at the task level

directly from a needs assessment; thus, it does not bridge the gap between a general

proficiency curriculum, to one that more directly serves the needs of the students.

Research in more mainstream settings would help address the novelty that Angle

and Van de Ven (2000) noted could affect buy-in and slow the rate of adoption and

acceptance of an otherwise valuable innovation. Further study would also address at least

part of Swan's (2005) general critique of task-based instruction that made "meaning-

centered tasks" a major element of the syllabus design (Nunan, 1996) and the more

pointed critique of making these tasks the "basis for an entire language curriculum" (Ellis,

2003). Not only did the study's 12–week foreign language program base its curriculum

entirely on meaning-centered tasks—the tasks were also specialized. The key to the

successful adoption of the program's task-based curriculum was how the program was

developed, the way the instructors were trained, and the fact that the curriculum was so

centered on the students' needs. Replication would further improve the status of the task-

based approach as a valuable instructional tool.

2. Expand and Formalize the Levels of Use

It would be valuable to expand the levels of use interview decision points to be

inclusive of document and artifact analysis. Although I depended on the rigorous validity

argument and the data used by the creators of the concerns-based adoption model to

support using the levels of use interview, I also relied on other sources, including written

artifacts, such as classroom observations, lesson plans, and training reports. Expanding

the scope of the construct to allow for other sources of data, besides structured interviews,

to be used with equal fidelity and ease would benefit the community and open new

avenues for analysis in the field. As such, I invite others to use the amended, branching decision matrix (See Chapter 3, Figure 3.3) and to expand upon the concept.

Summary

This study captured instructors' acceptance and use of a new foreign language program, bridging the gap between research and theory through exploring instructor implementation of the task-based approach at the institutional level with adult professionals who were learners of foreign languages. The study highlighted the importance of collaborative aspects of implementation. The curriculum was co-constructed with constant input from the instructors. Sharing and collaboration between instructors and across administration and instructors was vital to higher levels of use.

Higher levels of use were ascertained through an adaption of Hall & Hord's (1987, 2006, 2011) levels of use protocol. Because of concerns over the use of interview statements, the interviews alone did not reveal the full extent of how the instructors were engaging with the task-based curriculum. Analyzing written artifacts with the adapted levels of use protocol may be beneficial for future studies.

The most important implication for implementing task-based instruction was collaboration. Collaboration occurred in the way the program was developed, how the instructors were trained, and the fact that the curriculum was centered on the students' needs. Further studies of task-based instruction that focus on collaboration would further improve the status of the task-based approach as a valuable instructional tool in other settings.

An additional implication from this study was the need for instructors who are confident in their knowledge as well as confident in their job status. Hiring adjunct

employees for language instruction can limit the potential for adaptations and changes

that would improve the curriculum in a bottom-up scenario. Curricular innovations must

be adequately funded to provide necessary support to instructors.

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Appendix A: QASP Evaluation Form

Quality Assurance Surveillance Program (QASP)	
SOFLO Class Evaluation Checklist	
Instructor:	Observer:
Location:	Language:
Date:	Week of Instruction:
Start/End Time:	Duration of Course:
Was the Official Visitor's Folder* available?	**YesYes**
Has instructor seen this checklist in advance?	**YesYes**

*If "Standard Not Met", "Approaching Standard", or "Standard Exceeded" are chosen, comments must follow.

1. Classroom Environment	**Standard MetStandard Met**

Students' success in language learning is influenced by the atmosphere in the classroom. It is important that the instructor maintains a positive, supportive, motivating classroom environment. The instructor also needs to foster respect amongst students, encouraging all students to participate openly and equally in class.

Comments

2. Learner-centeredness	**Standard MetStandard Met**

Instructors must be able to gather information from individual learners in the process of learning, to analyze and interpret what they see, and, on that basis, to validate or rethink what they are doing in order to facilitate learning amongst each student. When an instructor is able to adapt their teaching style and approach to an individual's learning style, preferences, needs, and motivations, we can say that the class is learner centered. One can observe this ability in an instructor by looking to see that the students are actively engaged and motivated, classroom tasks are challenging but students are capable of accomplishing them with effort and feel a sense accomplishment once completed.

Comments

3. Balance & Variety of Language Presentation	**Standard MetStandard Met**

Language presentation is balanced in order to promote fluency and understandability, between fluency and form, and between all aspects of communicative competence (i.e., grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence). Presentation has ample variety in order to maintain interest, encourage acquisition, and provide contextualization/application of materials.

Comments

4. Class Participation & Interaction in the Target Language	Standard MetStandard Met

In order to succeed at the task of learning the target language, it is essential that all students are active participants in every class, and that no student dominates or is uninvolved. All students should be actively engaged in the task at hand at all times. In order to accomplish this goal, the instructor must act as a facilitator and guide in class activities so that the majority of class time is spent in production of the target language involving all students. The students are speaking and producing the language more than the teacher. The class is carried out primarily in the target language, including all routine instructional directions (i.e., "please repeat," "your turn now," etc.). Students use the target language to communicate with the teacher and each other.

Comments

5. Critical Thinking & Problem Solving	Standard MetStandard Met

Instructor creates learning activities which promote analysis, negotiation of meaning, synthesis, and problem solving. Students collaborate with each other during class to solve problems and carry out tasks. Students use critical, strategic thinking to negotiate use of the language.

Comments

6. Goals, Outcomes, Feedback & Assessment	Standard MetStandard Met

Clear class goals, objectives, and outcomes are evident, and instructor has a realistic plan to assist students to meet these expectations. The outcome(s) of each class meeting is/are made clear, and students can see how meeting this/these outcome(s) will help them to reach other overall course goals and objectives. Throughout each class meeting, students are given supportive feedback as to how they are progressing towards meeting those outcomes. Assessment is used throughout the class and course to provide constructive feedback to students.

Comments

7. Skill & Proficiency Level	Standard MetStandard Met

Instructor has a good understanding of the students' current skill/proficiency level and is able to continually adjust teaching to adapt to their ability, with knowledge of the next steps they need to take and how to direct them there in order to reach outcomes. Instructor is able to break more difficult tasks into smaller pieces in order to assist the students in building up to/ achieving desired outcomes.

Comments

8. Contextualization / Meaningful Tasks	Standard MetStandard Met
Language is presented in a meaningful context and not presented in isolation. Activities in class have real-life applications which are meaningful, relevant and will be useful to the students. Students are engaged in tasks which require them to use the language to accomplish something. Comments	

9. Lesson Planning	Standard MetStandard Met
Instructors develop daily class lesson plans in support of the POI. Instructors should have a lesson plan in writing for each day of class. This plan should demonstrate clear goals, objectives, and outcomes, and the smooth, effective flow of class activities in pursuit of reaching these outcomes. Lesson plans should include a well-rounded variety of activities. Activities should be of high interest, authentic when possible, and relevant to students. Comments	

10. Reflective Practices	**Standard MetStandard Met**
Instructor reflects upon teaching practices, policies, and procedures in order to continually improve course. The class content appears to be current, applicable to students' needs, abilities, and interests. Comments	

11. Homework	**Standard MetStandard Met**
The length and difficulty of homework assignments are appropriate to the level of class. Homework assignments should be interesting, useful and relevant both to class materials and to the student's ultimate application of the language. Comments	

12. Class Periods & Teaching Obligations	**Standard MetStandard Met**
Instructors are expected to start class on-time and run for the full assigned duration. Any changes to the defined schedule need to be approved in advance. Comments	

13. Professional Image	**Standard MetStandard Met**
Instructor dresses and behaves in a manner that is conducive to learning, not distracting. Comments	

14. Materials	**Standard MetStandard Met**
Materials for the course are sufficient and appropriate to the level and goals of the students. Course materials are utilized to promote acquisition; serve to support, not stifle instruction. Students are able to use materials to promote their learning. Comments	

15. Command of the Target Language	**Standard MetStandard Met**
The instructor's command of the language is appropriate for this class type and level. Comments	

*Official Visitor's Folder should include:

POI / Syllabus	**YesYes**	
Lesson Plan	**YesYes**	
Grade Book	**Not ApplicableNot Applicable**	
Attendance Records	**YesYes**	
Homework Plan/Records		**YesYes**
Assessment Plan/Records		**YesYes**

Standard Not Met	0

Approaching Standard		0
Standard Met		0
Standard Exceeded		0

QUALITY ASSURANCE EVALUATION (QAE)

◯ **Formal**　　　◯ **Follow up**

☐ Was Visitor folder available?

☐ Was Instructor aware of QASP Process?

Instructor's Name	Language	Level	Week	Lesson
Evaluator	**Rating**	**Time Started**	**Time Ended**	**Date**

PART I – PLANNING AND PREPARATION

Rating Options: 2=Met Standard 1=Needs Improvement 0=Did Not Meet Standard N=Not Observed

	RATING	COMMENTS
Knowledge of content and organization of materials		
Clarifying lesson objectives to the students		

Ability to identify and resolve language issues and problems that arise		
Effective planning and preparation		
Insight into students' Skill levels/needs (Skill and proficiency level)		
Contextualization/meaningful tasks		
Lesson Planning		
Effective use of Technology		
Effective use of the NSW LMS		

PART II – TECHNIQUES OF INSTRUCTION

Rating Options: 2=Met Standard 1=Needs Improvement 0=Did Not Meet Standard N=Not Observed

INCLUDES:	RATING	COMMENTS
Appropriate use of books, training aids, board, etc.		
Provision of information necessary to perform learning activities		
Use of techniques appropriate to the lesson objectives and students' levels		
Use of a variety of activities appropriate for different learning styles		
Monitoring/verifying students' performance		
Emphasis on student-centered activities techniques		
Ensuring genuine communicative interaction takes place		
Use of variety of elicitation techniques		
Ensuring participation of ALL students		
Use of questions which are clear and lesson–relevant		
Appropriate answers to relevant student questions		
Timely summaries/reviews		
Providing positive reinforcement		

INCLUDES:	RATING	COMMENTS
Appropriate identification/ correction of errors/pronunciation problems		
Balance and variety of Language Presentation		

PART III – LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Rating Options: 2=Met Standard 1=Needs Improvement 0=Did Not Meet Standard N=Not Observed

INCLUDES:	RATING	COMMENTS
Establishment of environment conducive to language learning		
Use of grammatically appropriate/ unaffected language		
Structure/Vocabulary control consistent with students' level		
Voice level suitable for room/class size		
Speech rate equal appropriately to class level		
Professional treatment of students		
Avoidance of distracting mannerisms		
Positive/self-confident manner		
Sensitivity to cultural differences		
Clear and brief instructions		
Appropriate correction of inappropriate student behavior		
Maintenance of students' attention		
Establishment/maintenance of good rapport		
Comments:		

Appendix C: Levels of Use Rating Sheet

LEVEL OF USE RATING SHEET (CBAM, 1975)

Tape #:   Site: Interviewer:

Date: / /   I.D.#:   Rater:

Level	Knowledge	Acquiring Information	Sharing	Assessing	Planning	Status Reporting	Performing	Overall LoU
Nonuse	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Decision Point A								
Orientation	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I
Decision Point B								
Preparation	II	II	II	II	II	II	II	II
Decision Point C								
Mechanical Use	III	III	III	III	III	III	III	III
Decision Point D-1								
Routine	IVA	IVA	IVA	IVA	IVA	IVA	IVA	IVA
Decision Point D-2								
Refinement	IVB	IVB	IVB	IVB	IVB	IVB	IVB	IVB
Decision Point E								
Integration	V	V	V	V	V	V	V	V
Decision Point F								
Renewal	VI	VI	VI	VI	VI	VI	VI	VI
User is not doing:	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
No information in interview:	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	

Is the individual a past user?   Yes   No   If so, what was their last LoU? _____

How much difficulty did you have in assigning this person to a specific LoU?   None 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

Comments about interviewer—

General comments—

Appendix D: Responses from Levels of Use Interview Rating Sheet

Instructor Number	Decision A / LoU 0		Decision B / LoU I		Decision C / LoU II		Decision D / LoU III	Decision D-1 / LoU IVa	Decision D-2 / LoU IVb	Final LoU	Level Descriptor
15	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
3	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
9	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y		LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
18	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
5	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
14	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
13	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y		LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
12	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
10	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y		LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.

Appendix E: Responses from QASP Levels of Use Rating Sheet

Instructor Number	Decision A LoU 0		Decision B LoU I		Decision C LoU II		Decision D LoU III		Decision D-1 LoU IVa		Decision D-2 LoU IVb		Final LoU	Level Descriptor
15	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
3	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
9	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y		LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
18	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
5	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
14	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
13	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y		LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
12	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU IVa	The user is making few or no changes and has an established patter of use.
10	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y		LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.

Appendix F: Responses from Levels of Use Lesson Plan Rating Sheet

Instructor Number		Decision A LoU 0	LoU I	Decision B LoU II	LoU II	Decision C LoU III	LoU III	Decision D-1 LoU IVa	Decision D-2 LoU IVb			Final LoU	Level Descriptor
	15	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	3	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	9	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	18	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	5	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	14	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	13	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	12	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.
	10	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	≠			LoU III	The user is making changes to better organzie use of the innovation.

Appendix G: Responses from Levels of Use Training Report Rating Sheet

	Instructor Number	LoU 0	Decision A	LoU I	Decision B	LoU II	Decision C	LoU III	Decision D-1	LoU IVa	Decision D-2	LoU IVb	Final LoU	Level Descriptor
	15	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	3	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	9	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	18	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	5	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	14	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	13	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	12	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.
	10	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	✓	Y	LoU IVb	The user is making changs to increase outcomes.

Appendix H: Task-Based Language Curriculum Consent Form

As part of my doctoral dissertation, you are being asked to take part in a research study on *instructional innovation and implementation of a foreign language program (FLP), through a tasked-based, learner centered curriculum*. I am asking you to take part because you were either part of the Initial Acquisition Training (IAT) curriculum development project, have taught using the new curriculum, or teach a language not yet developed into the new curriculum, but were present and involved to some degree during the development phase(s). **Please read this section carefully and ask any questions before agreeing to take part in the study.**

What the study is about: The guiding research questions are: *What are instructors' current attitudes toward task-based language instruction? Do the instructors currently perceive a change in their instructional methodology after becoming familiar with task-based language instruction?*

What I will ask you to do: If you agree to be in this study, you will complete the online survey following this introduction. The 35-question survey should take 5-10 minutes to complete. After you have submitted your responses to the on-line survey, I will schedule a brief, follow-up telephonic interview with you. The interview should take about 5 minutes and will include questions about your experience(s) with the task-based curriculum. With your permission, I would also like to record the interview.

Risks and benefits: While there are no direct benefits to you, the outcome of the study is anticipated to highlight best practices that will, in turn, be used to improve instructor training and professional development across SOCOM.

I do not anticipate any risks to you participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

Your answers will be confidential. The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report made public, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be kept in a locked file and/or encrypted file folder; only I will have access to the records. If we record the interview, I will destroy the file after it has been transcribed.

Taking part is voluntary: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. If you decide not to take part or to skip some of the questions, it will not affect your current or future relationship with LREC. Even if you decide to take part, you are free to withdraw at any time. **If you have questions:** The sole researcher conducting this study is Clayton Leishman, LREC Program Manager. Please ask any questions you have now.

If you have questions later, you may contact me at clayton.leishman@socom.mil. If you have concerns about the authenticity of the study, you may contact the LREC Director at marla.federe@socom.mil or the Yorktown Executive Coordinator at elba.carbajal.ctr@socom.mil.

Appendix I: Training Report: Activity Breakdown

	Activity	Focus
Instructor Initiated	Speaking Rubric Revisions	Better, more detailed feedback for the student to mark areas of success and areas for improvement
	Aligned Grammar Reference	Reference for students that wanted to get ahead and enhance learning, but also for students needed a familiar format as they adjusted to the task-based approach
	Aternate Vocabulary (Regional) Additions	Based on feedback from past students returning from assignments
	Digital Resources	Used as a resource for after hours study and also in the classroom during asynchronous/split-level or individualized lessons
	References (Printed and Digital)	Materials to be used on demand or posted on walls for ease of use
	Instructional Materials and Realia	Pre-pared realia and materials could be reused and cut down on preparation time. Also, the use of manipulatives proved popular with the students for retention.
Resource Initiated	Version Edit Teams	Create sense of ownership with the curriculum, build consensus among the instructors.
	ACTFL OPI Orientation	Familiarize all instructors with the oral proficiency interview (final, high-stakes assessment) and the associated scale used.
	SOFTS Orientation	Familiarize all instructors with the online/distance learning platform in order to offer instruction non-resident as well as explore alternate teaching methods in an online environment--particularly one-on-one.
	LMS Orientation	Provide detailed, hands-on experience with the LMS to facilitate its effective use in, and out, of the classroom.
	Cross-Training with Army	Give the instructors the opportunity to teach other instructors not only about the task-based approach, but *their* curriculum.