

1: What is TASK DEMANDS? definition of TASK DEMANDS (Psychology Dictionary)

Psychology Definition of TASK DEMANDS: the impact of a tasks features on a groups ability to complete it. The demands which are required to perform a particular task are known as task demands.

Archive Academic Language Demands: Texts, Tasks, and Levels of Language In the new environment of academic learning, we need to address both content standards and English Language Development standards, and design language objectives for content-based lessons in order to bring about a balance of language, literacy and content in instruction. As teacher educators working with both ESL and content teacher candidates, we have observed that analyzing the academic language demands of content lessons is a very challenging task for all teachers. Yet these skills are more important than ever, as we recognize that academic language proficiency is key to academic success Francis et. Even the Standards movement acknowledges these directions, as the widely used English Language Development Standards from WIDA guide us to the content area standards to determine goals and objectives for ESL lessons. From the other direction, the Common Core State Standards CCSS emphasize academic language demands across the curriculum, so that content teachers need to consider the language demands of their lessons. The widely used teacher performance assessment for pre-service teacher candidates, edTPA <https://www.ets.org/edtpa>: In this new environment, the ESL teacher clearly needs to provide leadership and linguistic expertise in analyzing academic language demands and designing relevant instruction. We need to address both content standards and English Language Development standards, and design language objectives for content-based lessons in order to bring about a balance of language, literacy and content in instruction. For many ESL teachers, this represents a paradigm shift and requires some retooling to align with current approaches to defining and teaching academic language Ranney, Visual Tool for Planning for Academic Language and Content Integration One tool we would like to share here is a framework for analyzing academic language demands in content lessons that identifies and integrates the many variables into a graphic organizer. They note that others have attended to developing language objectives based on content standards, but they believe it is necessary to go further and analyze academic texts, tasks, and assessments at each of the linguistic levels of discourse, syntax, and vocabulary in order to arrive at language objectives and supports for academic language development. Their framework provides a useful tool for bringing together these complex and overlapping elements of academic language analysis. Identifying academic language demands in support of the Common Core Standards. ASCD Express, 7 However, as we considered language demands, we felt that the framework was missing one element: Below is an example of what components might be included in the various sections of the template. Therefore, in our use of the organizer, we have added a box to the right that includes language functions needed for the texts and tasks, as a reminder that language functions should be part of language objectives. See our amended organizer in Figure 2. The amended framework for analyzing the academic language demands of a lesson can provide a way to develop effective language objectives that address a variety of needs and levels of language. A Sample Text and Lesson Activities To illustrate how this amended framework could be a useful tool, we will examine each of the levels of language discourse, syntax, and vocabulary within the context of a sample academic text and suggested lesson tasks. We provide some guidelines to use in identifying academic language features at each level and then apply them to the sample text and tasks to demonstrate how to use the framework in analyzing academic language demands and developing language objectives for content-based lessons. For the sample text and lesson, we turn to lesson guidelines available online through Scholastic <http://www.scholastic.com>: This book is written for ages 7 to 10 and our suggestions are aimed at meeting standards for grade 4 English Language Arts, yet we imagine that this text and lesson suggestions could be used for English Learners with intermediate levels of proficiency at older ages, given the general interest of the topic and relevance of the tasks to other ages and levels. For our analysis, we draw on the parts of the text that are available in the free preview of the book See <http://www.scholastic.com>: In working with the framework, we developed potential language objectives based on some of the suggested tasks from the Scholastic guide. Starting with standards as a guide to developing goals, we consider WIDA Standard 2 English language learners communicate information, ideas and concepts necessary

for academic success in the content area of Language Arts , which leads us to examine the English Language Arts standards in the Common Core State Standards for Language Arts, adopted in Minnesota and many other states [http:](http://) Comparing the standards at the upper elementary grades to the Scholastic suggested tasks of reading the biography of Martin Luther King Jr, discussing the book, and writing an essay, we identified a number of relevant standards, including the following: In addition, it is useful to consider standards from other grade levels, as we note that the use of subordinating conjunctions and complex sentences are expected in grade 3, and using verb tense appropriate to the context is cited in the language standards at grade 5. The ELA standards, then, give us some general goals as well as specific language targets. They cover the four modalities of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as language structures viewed alone, and they can be applied to the levels of discourse as in describing the structure of a text or engaging in discussions , syntax as in using pronouns, prepositional phrases, complex sentences, accurate verb tense and vocabulary as in determining the meaning of general academic and domain specific words or choosing words and phrases to convey ideas precisely. Planning for Effective Vocabulary Instruction Vocabulary is the most obvious academic language target for integrated language instruction, but it is important to note that we must go beyond teaching the already bolded and glossed vocabulary in texts. Though this technical language is important, it is the general academic words “the language of complexity and nuance” which students must master to gain full access to content learning. They are the words that determine the relationships between and among words. As general academic words, they are also high value, in that they are useful across school subjects. Common core ELA standards W. The lesson plan guidelines from Scholastic suggest that the following vocabulary be pre-taught: These are all brick or domain specific words, and are certainly key concepts related to Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. Take the following passage on page 18 as an example: The laws were named for a white performer who was one of the first to use burnt cork to make his face look black, which was called blackface makeup. In the early s, he made fun of black people by doing a silly song and dance as the character Jim Crow. The act was a big success and took him all over the country and even abroad. Thus, the academic language demands of this paragraph at the level of vocabulary could include the brick words segregation and racist, the mortar words general academic vocabulary enforce, symbolize, and separate, and the nominalization act. Since vocabulary knowledge is essential for reading comprehension, language instruction should include attention to helping students build their receptive vocabulary so that they can interpret the text. Language functions used in reading include interpreting the meaning of words. Some language objectives derived from the text analysis at the level of vocabulary then, could include: Students will interpret the meaning of the content-specific words segregation and racist as they read the text. Students will interpret the meaning of the general academic words enforce, symbolize and separate as they read the text. Students will interpret the use of the word act as a noun. In examining the lesson tasks, one that is concerned particularly with vocabulary is the concept wheel, which involves asking students to provide examples for the targeted content vocabulary such as terms like justice. Teachers could select several general academic words for extra attention and encourage students to use them in writing the essay. One language function required in the essay would be to describe change. Combining the function and vocabulary demands, a sample language objective derived from lesson tasks could be: Students will describe the change in civil rights laws using the words segregation, separate, and enforce. Planning for Sentence-Level Grammar Syntax Our second level of language is the syntax, or sentence, level. In the second language pedagogy literature, these language features are often referred to as language forms. This level includes language items that many teachers commonly think of as grammar, such as verb tense and sentence structure. But it also includes language such as matching appropriate sentence features to the kind of text and the level of sentence complexity used in the text. The WIDA Standards define sentence level features of academic discourse as language forms and conventions, including types and variety of grammatical structures, conventions, mechanics, and fluency, and the match of language forms to purpose or perspective. Dutro and Moran remind us that language forms are tools that are vital for discourse, reading and writing, complex language, and cognitive processes. They include the following as possible language forms to focus on in instruction: Some specific syntactic features of academic language identified by Schleppegrell include the use of expanded noun phrases with modifiers and relative

clauses, complex sentences using various clause combining strategies, and adverbial expressions to show logical links. It is important to remember that language objectives at this level should go beyond conventions such as capitalization and punctuation featured in many content area language arts materials. There has been disagreement in the field about whether or not many aspects of language form, like verb tense, should be explicitly taught, or if learners will simply acquire these forms with enough exposure. A great deal of research e. It is important, then, to pay attention to a variety of syntactic features as we analyze texts and lesson tasks.

Syntax Features in the Sample Lesson Looking toward the standards for broad guidance, we can identify some of the ELA standards in the language section as being especially relevant, such as those requiring students to use complex sentence structures, relative clauses, prepositional phrases, and verb tenses appropriate to the context. With this guidance from our ELA standards in mind, we read the text and analyzed the tasks, thinking about specific syntactic demands. As we analyzed the text, we looked for sentence-level features that were especially important to the comprehension of the text and for those that appeared with great frequency to target in language objectives. A sample paragraph from Chapter 1 provides an example for analysis: **Complex Sentences** A number of forms caught our attention. In this type of sentence, the reader needs to understand that the subject of the sentence is located after the introductory phrase, and that in the case of a participial phrase, the subject of the sentence also is understood to be the subject of the phrase i. The reader needs to interpret the meaning of these phrases by linking them to other parts of the sentence, connecting the events in time in the case of clauses starting with when, and interpreting the participial forms earning and attending as actions undertaken by the main subject of the sentence at the same time as the action in the main verb. English Learners may need some explicit instruction to guide them to these understandings of the structures. Throughout the book, the text contains many complex sentences, as in the following sentences with several embedded phrases and clauses, where the connectors even and even though are used to mark contrast: **Planning for Language Supports** In choosing a language focus for reading the text, these complex sentence types are important because they are common in academic language and students need to understand the links between the different clauses and phrases in order to make sense of the chronology as well as other relationships among the ideas. One language function in reading is to interpret the structures in the text or identify meanings signaled through grammatical structures. Our language objectives for the text, then, might include the following objectives: Students will identify the contrast between ideas and events in different parts of sentences that are linked with the connecting words even and even though. We also realized that they would likely be forming a number of sentences which combined the past tense and the present tense, for example when they sought to explain their current thoughts or feelings about something that occurred in the past, as in the very basic examples: A language target for students then, may be not simply to practice the past tense of verbs in a biography, but to appropriately switch between past and present tenses to show generic comments on a topic using the present tense while consistently using past tense to describe past actions. Also, we may want to encourage students to begin to use complex sentences in their writing through linking ideas with conjunctions such as even though and when. Thinking of language functions, students would need to express comments and describe past events, and to describe changes. Linking the functions and relevant structures, we arrived at the following syntax level language objectives for the writing task: Students will correctly use present tense to express commentary and past tense to describe past events. Students will use complex sentences using appropriate connecting words to describe changes brought about by MLK Jr. Another feature of academic language is text organization or overall text structure, which can be referred to as discourse, and this is our third level of academic language. WIDA defines the discourse performance criteria as linguistic complexity or the quantity and variety of oral and written text and identifies the following features of discourse or linguistic complexity: Discourse also includes the ways that different genres such as books, poems, news articles, reports, speeches, and others organize information. **Strategies for Creating Textual Cohesion** Again, starting our analysis with the text, we will consider the structure of a biography. This includes how the broader text is organized at the book-level, how each chapter might be organized, and individual organizational features within a particular chapter. We also consider features that contribute to cohesion. There are a number of discourse-level features of this biographic text that could be taught explicitly.

The broader organizational structure of the biography is chronological, laying out the story of the life of Martin Luther King Jr. It also contains features such as a timeline written in the historical present tense, brief descriptions of key historical figures in the book, and a glossary of key terms. Each of these parts follows organizational patterns that are common in non-fiction writing and that would be important for students to recognize. One aspect of cohesion in the text is evident in that each chapter not only includes new content specific to that sub-topic but also an introduction that connects to the previous sub-topic and an ending that transitions into the next one. For example, chapter two begins with a reference to the qualities of a work ethic and confidence that MLK learned from his parents, as described in chapter one.

2: Task Demands & Support by Khalsa Al Rawahi on Prezi

Theory: Models on pre-assessment learning effects confirmed that task demands stand out among the factors assessors can modify in an assessment to influence learning. However, little is known about which tasks in objective structured clinical examinations (OSCEs) improve students' cognitive and metacognitive processes.

Peter Robinson Task-Based Learning: A brief overview of these will be given below. They reflect a shift from a concern with how TBLT can facilitate comprehension of input, to how it can facilitate interaction and attention to output, and the development of increasingly target-like speech production. They also reflect the progressively sophisticated knowledge that SLA research has provided concerning cognitive processes such as implicit, incidental, and explicit learning, and automatization of knowledge. Long argued that the interaction that task work promotes is additionally important since it provides one way in which input can be made comprehensible, as well as a context for attending to problematic forms in the input and output during task work. Consequently, Pica, Kanagy and Falodun described a taxonomy of task characteristics in order to promote further research into which of these characteristics optimally promoted interaction work. Skehan provided the first detailed psycholinguistic rationale for the effects of some aspects of task demands on learning and performance, focusing in particular on the extent to which having time to plan a task led to increases in the accuracy, fluency and complexity of speech produced, when compared to performance on tasks where planning time was not available. Robinson also provided a psycholinguistic rationale for how cognitive complexity can be increased along two broad dimensions of the demands made by tasks, and claimed that these would have distinct influences on learning and performance. Published by Blackwell Publishing Ltd. Along these dimensions, initially implicit knowledge of the L1 concept- structuring function of language see Talmy, becomes gradually explicit, and available for change, following a natural developmental order reflected in the sequencing decisions. Along these dimensions, therefore, improvements in performance will involve initially explicit knowledge becoming more automatized. Design Characteristics Affecting the Cognitive Processing Demands of Tasks Current research into the cognitive underpinnings of TBLT is focused on the effects that design characteristics of tasks have on the cognitive processes that facilitate L2 production and learning. Some of the design characteristics of tasks that have received the most attention from researchers are described below. Planning Time There have been many studies of how tasks can be made easier for second language learners by giving them time to plan what they will do or say in the L2 Ellis, This is perhaps the area that has received the most attention by SLA researchers interested in tasks, and it has clear implications for effective pedagogic decision making. In general, the studies that have been done seem to show that having time to plan a task increases the accuracy, fluency and complexity of learner language. The latter, dual task, disperses learner attention over a number of L2 stimuli. In general, tasks made complex on this dimension also lead to poorer accuracy, fluency, and complexity of performance. On these dimensions Robinson argued that increasing task complexity should lead to more accurate and complex learner language, over time. However, complex tasks on these dimensions also negatively affect fluency. For example, in L2 English, tasks which require complex reasoning about the intentional states that motivate others to perform actions can be expected to draw heavily on the use of cognitive state terms for reference to other mindsâ€”she suspected, realized, etc. Spatial Reasoning Another example of resource-directing task demands are those tasks which require complex spatial reasoning, and articulation of this in describing how to move, and in what task-based learning: These can be expected to draw heavily on the use of constructions for describing motion events Cadierno, Such tasks therefore have the potential to promote awareness of lexicalization patterns in L2 English for describing these motion events, in which motion and manner are typically conflated on verbs e. English lexicalization patterns are different from those in Japanese, where motion and path tend to be conflated on verbs, and manner encoded separately e. Consequently, Japanese makes much less use of event conflation in reference to motion than English does. There-and-then tasks require greater effort at conceptualization since events are not visually available in a shared context and greater demands on memory Gilabert, The morphology for referring to the past in English is much later

acquired by L2 learners than the morphology for referring to the present, so complex tasks may promote learner attention to, and use of, this later acquired past tense morphology. Effects of Cumulative Increases in the Cognitive Demands of Tasks To date, the effects of the design characteristics of tasks contributing to their cognitive complexity as described above have often been contrasted for their distinct effects on learning and performance. With this in mind, Robinson has made the following theoretical claims about the effects of cumulative influences in the demands of tasks on cognitive processes thought to facilitate SLA. Some of these claims are the focus of current research, while others remain issues for future research. Output The first of these claims is that increasing the cognitive demands of tasks contributing to their relative complexity along resource-directing dimensions e. That is, greater effort at conceptualization will lead learners to develop the L2 linguistic resources they have for expressing such conceptualizations. Some research findings support this claim Robinson, ; Ishikawa, Related to this first claim is the prediction that increasing task demands will lead to a higher number of interactional episodes e. Uptake The second claim is that cognitively complex tasks promote heightened attention to and memory for input, so increasing learning from the input, and incorporation of forms made salient in the input. So, for example, there should be more uptake of oral recasts on complex tasks, compared to simpler tasks, or more use of written input provided to help learners perform tasks. Some research findings support this claim Revesz, ; Baralt, Memory Related to this, the third claim is that on complex tasks there will be longer-term retention of input provided e. There are currently no studies that have addressed this claim. Automaticity Fourth, the inherent repetition involved in performing simple to complex sequences will also lead to automaticity and efficient scheduling of the components of complex L2 target-task performance, compared to target tasks performed without the benefit of such pedagogic task sequencing. This should be revealed in estimates of the fluency with which target tasks are performed following a sequence of increasingly complex pedagogic tasks as manifested by fewer incidents of self-repair, fewer hesitations, etc. Aptitudes Fifth, individual differences in affective and cognitive abilities contributing to perceptions of task difficulty will increasingly differentiate learning and performance as tasks increase in complexity. This is likely to be an intense area of future research, since it can reveal much about the cognitive processing prerequisites for successful task-based learning and performance, and since it will ultimately be desirable to match individual profiles in task aptitudes to those conditions of task performance that learners are best suited to, in order to optimally facilitate TBLT outcomes for learners. In line with this claim, Robinson found that greater output processing anxiety led to less complex speech production on complex tasks with intentional reasoning demands , compared to those with lower output anxiety, but these differences in output processing anxiety had no effect on complexity of speech produced on simple tasks without intentional reasoning demands. On the other hand, examining the same task complexity differential, Baralt found that individual differences in working memory capacity did not predict greater accuracy, fluency or complexity in performance on complex versus simpler task versions. Robinson describes individual, task aptitude measures that could profitably be used in future studies of this issue. Georgetown University, Washington DC. Learning to talk about motion in a foreign language. Language typology, task complexity and the development of L2 lexicalization patterns for describing motion events. Annual Review of Cognitive Linguistics, 6, 1-21” Planning and second language task performance. Effects on oral L2 production. International Review of Applied Linguistics, 47, 1-12” Task complexity, reasoning demands and second language speech production Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Principles and practice in second language acquisition. 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3: Task Demands in OSCEs Influence Learning Strategies. | Docphin

Paired-associate learning (PAL) tasks measure the ability to form a novel association between a stimulus and a response. Performance on such tasks is strongly associated with reading ability, and there is increasing evidence that verbal task demands may be critical in explaining this relationship.

The present article underscores the ID variable of goal orientation which may advance our understanding of some aspects of variation related to task engagement. After implementing one goal-elicitation questionnaire and another questionnaire to measure difficulty and motivation following the performance of assigned narrative tasks, psychometric results revealed two distinct goal orientation levels echoing two significantly different response types to task difficulty and motivation. Whereas one goal group responded positively to unfamiliar and taxing tasks, the other goal group did not. Overall, this article points to the need to rethink the reductionist research agenda that confines task variation to task sequencing conditions and task design features. Individual differences, task, motivation, perceived difficulty, goal orientation. All rights reserved 1.

Background The task-based learning approach has captivated the interest of scholarship in the research field of second language learning e. According to Ellis , the merit of the task-based approach does not only stem from the characteristic of the tasks as a clinical elicitation technique for researchers and a useful pedagogical instrument for practitioners, but also from the openness of the approach to various theoretical perspectives such as the psycholinguistic perspective. Another language learning aspect which figures as an imposing element of any given language classroom fabric is the scope of learner variation. This intent to capture ID patterns underlies a long-lasting controversy between the collective and the individual: This dilemma has drawn a demarcation line within all the research disciplines researching human behavior, including the area of second language acquisition hereafter, SLA which has documented a number of IDs in various educational contexts. In addition to this heavily skewed ID-research picture, the dominating ID concepts of aptitude and motivation have yielded little substance to accommodate to the field of SLA. This product-oriented conceptualization, which is more of a pedagogical necessity than a theoretically-driven choice, is understood in view of the dilemma between the collective and the individual. Task difficulty is indeed a matter of learner perception rather than the prerogative of professional raters. Hence, what is demanding for one individual learner is not necessarily the case for another. Bachman also cautioned against the danger of building on deterministic and speculative postulates where difficulty is gauged against a hypothetical learner. Bachman claimed that communicative stress and task complexity are fundamentally individual characteristics. She thus called for a re-analysis of the task-based findings from an ID perspective, or indicating that otherwise statistical interpretations would remain misleading. Findings of Ortega aligned with the cautious stance of Ellis about the consequences of the orthodoxy in task-based research as any operationalization of task difficulty will remain impressionistic and reductionist unless the role of the learner is considered. The concept of a self-regulated learner has been well attested in other classroom-focused research and presented a consistent and an operational account of IDs. Across the goal-related literature, there is agreement over two types of goal orientation: MGO refers to individuals who value the learning process and competency growth rather than the learning product. They show more enthusiasm and effort particularly for challenging tasks and a willingness to take risks since a mistake represents a learning opportunity and not a sign of failure. PGO refers to individuals who develop a product-oriented sense of learning achievement. Driven by constant apprehension of failure, they adopt a maladaptive behavior that is inclined to avoiding challenge. It should be noted that despite being a ubiquitous variable in educational research, the construct of goal orientation has received only little consideration among SLA scholarship see, e. A multiple-goal model has equally received interest in the achievement goal theory. Advocates of this approach have sought to revisit the two-dimensional model. The multiple-goal model maintains that the two forms of PGO constitute two unrelated behavioral features. Concerning the Performance- approach goals, they enclose adaptive characteristics of behavior that focus on achievement as an interpersonal matter i. With regard to the Performance-avoid goals, proponents of the multiple- goals approach believe that these goals yield maladaptive types of behavior. Covington noted

that these types of behavior are essentially self-protective mechanisms that are manifestly reflective of a self-handicapping conduct. The classroom-anchored nature of goal orientation enables better researchability for the concept of motivation which can be hardly dissociated from task difficulty. Each goal orientation, however, represents a number of achievement values whereby learners define and judge their success and failure. In other words, what seems to be difficult for one individual affiliated with a given goal orientation may not necessarily apply to another individual with a different goal orientation. Despite her awareness of learner orientations i. Building on this methodological concern, the present study focused on whether goal orientations may 4 Ben Maad, M. The study, therefore, aimed to address the following questions: Participants A group of full-time students participated in the present study during the university year The participants were enrolled in their first year of a three-year program offered by the Department of English at the University of Manouba, Tunisia a yearly intake of approximately students. Female students outnumbered the male students females: Their age ranged from 19 to 23 years. The mean length of time they studied English was 6. As native speakers of Tunisian Arabic, they learned their English exclusively in a classroom environment, thus having little opportunity to use English for communicative purposes outside the classroom setting. This sample represented a fairly homogeneous group in terms of their schooling history and their English proficiency level. Such selection was intended to control individual differences in favor of the goal orientation variable. Its main objective was to determine to which goal area the student participants would belong. It comprised two 5-point Likert scales that were expected to document data related to the two levels of goal orientation. Each scale consisted of 10 items. The first scale focused on MGO e. The second scale aimed to assess PGO e. All the 20 items had to be assessed on a Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly agree 5 to strongly disagree 1. The Goal-orientation Questionnaire design was inspired by well-cited instruments e. The distribution of the questionnaire items at one scale observed a sequence that was symmetrical to the allocation of items at the other scale. In other words, Items 1 i. The expected orthogonal relationship between the two item sequences, one at a time, would make the respondents relatively set on one scale and not the other. Also, it is relevant to note that the questionnaire followed a closed-response design and it was expected to provide a greater ease of response and reliability than an open-ended response design. However, some open-ended questions were later used in interview protocols to explain the choices of the respondents. The follow-up interview followed a semi-structured style. The interview aimed to elicit additional information hardly obtained by the questionnaire. The questions that arise naturally during the course of an interview would encourage the interviewees to better convey their ideas in an in-depth way. The narrative tasks used in the present study were composed of stories based on sequenced picture prompts. They were based on one discourse mode where tellers described events in a watch-and-tell style. The 11 picture prompts in each task represented common narrative scripts e. As to the planning factor, to ensure the minimally planned condition Task 2 , the participants were given only one minute of preparation time. They were given ten minutes of preparation time in Tasks 1 and 3 to consolidate the planning condition. A Post-task questionnaire Appendix B was administered to these participants after performing the narrative tasks. On the whole, 87 questionnaire responses were collected after the three task performance episodes. Goal-orientation Questionnaire results In order to check the distribution of the data collected from the questionnaire, a descriptive analysis across the two administration episodes was conducted. Skewness results in Table 1 indicate that the questionnaire responses were normally distributed at both ends. However, mean scores from the second administration episode are fairly higher than those from the first administration episode. Consequently, the affiliation of the former sample with a given goal orientation was reasonably more obvious than that of the latter. To test the reliability of the two questionnaire scales, an Item-reliability analysis was conducted. It reported high coefficient alphas for both goal scales and across data from the two episodes of questionnaire administration. That is, as the MGO scale achieved high and consistent alpha values i. These participants completed the same questionnaire they had taken previously to re-examine its reliability. Eventually, the 30 best scorers were chosen for the next experimental step of task performance. The matrix in Table 2 provides information which supports a two-component solution. The first ten items sort on Component 1 and the last ten items sorted on Component 2. According to the results from Table 2, Component 1 has high and positive loadings on the

MGO scale in Administration episode 1 i. In contrast, Component 2 had low and negative loadings on the same scale. The range of loadings was between -. The PGO scale shows the reverse loading patterns. Component 1 presents low and negative loadings as low as -. Results following the Principal Components analysis validated the twofold dimensionality of the goal orientation variable. The two-component solution is defined as follows: Overall, results from the Item analysis and Principal Components analysis respectively confirmed significant reliability and content validity for the Goal-orientation Questionnaire. Post-task Questionnaire results Table 3 presents strong correlation results across the three areas which the questionnaire was intended to measure. It is worth mentioning that all the intra-scale coefficients were bigger than those between scales. For instance, the familiarity intra- scale correlations of Item 3 e. These distribution patterns suggest that the nine items were largely representative of one area over the other two. The results also provided evidence about the internal consistency of the scales was significantly high and that these scales independently measured what they were intended to measure. These data suggested that high task difficulty was strongly related to the lack of motivation and vice versa. Because this task was subjected to both planned and familiar conditions, evidence for difficulty was least associated with the existence of familiarity and planning. Conversely, minimally planned tasks Task 2 and unfamiliar tasks Task 1 were found to be particularly associated with difficulty. More specifically, difficulty was strongly related to minimal planning and less so to the lack of familiarity. Results suggested that tasks become cognitively demanding i when performers have little background knowledge of similar tasks and ii even more strenuous when performers are given insufficient pre-task planning time. Square Goal orientation The mean difference is significant at the.

4: () Task-based learning: Cognitive underpinnings | Peter Robinson - www.enganchecubano.com

Balancing Task Demand & Task Support Goldilocks principle - A task that is good to help the learner learn more language is one that is demanding but not too demanding, that provides support but not too much support. Too high demand - too difficult Too much support - too easy Language learning is a repeated process of stretching resources.

It includes, for example, discipline-specific vocabulary, grammar and punctuation, and applications of rhetorical conventions and devices that are typical for a content area e. This means that your learning objectives should focus on language as well as on content. You can and should communicate content through means other than language, e. What are language demands of a learning task see especially the Task 2: Language demands of a learning task include any of the receptive language skills e. Language demands are so embedded in instructional activities that you may take many for granted. When identifying the language demands of your planned lessons and assessments, consider everything that the students have to do to engage in the communication related to the activity: All of these common activities create a demand for language reception or language production. Some language demands are related to text types, which have specific conventions with respect to format, expected content, tone, common grammatical structures e. The language demands of other tasks are not as predictable, and may vary depending on the situation, e. All students, not only English Learners, have productive and receptive language development needs. The discussion of language development should address your whole class, including English Learners, speakers of varieties of English, and other native English speakers. What does developing academic language mean? Just as students come to school or a particular classroom with some prior knowledge and background in the content of the subject matter, they also come with some skills in communicating effectively in the academic environment or that content area. Teachers may use a variety of methods and strategies to both explicitly teach students the norms of academic language in the content area and to help them incorporate these norms in their everyday classroom usage of language. For example, a social studies teacher may highly scaffold the process of constructing an argument based on historical evidence, how to communicate a thesis in an essay; or how to debate a political point of view. Or an elementary mathematics teacher might help students understand the conventions expected for showing their problem-solving work, how to explain alternative solutions to a problem, or how to interpret mathematical symbols. For text types, it is important to make the conventions explicit, often providing graphic organizers when students are first learning how to produce the text type. For less predictable language tasks, students need to understand the nature of the task and the range of possible responses and associated language. When students are just learning to use a particular form of academic language, they will need more scaffolding and support.

5: Academic Language - Defined by PACT

In the new environment of academic learning, we need to address both content standards and English Language Development standards, and design language objectives for content-based lessons in order to bring about a balance of language, literacy and content in instruction. Increased Demands for.

6: Task demands and capabilities (the complexity gap) | How learning works

need to submit in Tasks 2 and 3 will help guide you as you plan the learning segment for Planning Task 1. When reading through Instruction Task 2, make a note on what.

7: Academic Language Demands: Texts, Tasks, and Levels of Language – MinneTESOL Journal

Language, Learning, and Content Instruction between the two factors: the cognitive demand of the task and the amount of available contextual support.

8: LEARNING LANGUAGE THROUGH TASKS AND ACTIVITIES by Nove letter on Prezi

Task support Task as a learning environment Children as (mentally) active learners They have their own understandings of adults' purposes and expectations. They might be confused about the task but they won't show it because they want to please the teacher.

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