UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN

FACULTAD DE HISTORIA, GEOGRAFÍA Y LETRAS

DEPARTAMENTO DE INGLÉS

THE EFFECT OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH DISTANCE LEARNING ON YOUNG LEARNERS' VOCABULARY AND SPEAKING

TESIS PARA OPTAR AL GRADO DE MAGÍSTER DE LA ENSEÑANZA-APRENDIZAJE DEL INGLÉS COMO LENGUA EXTRANJERA (TEFL)

AUTOR: CHRISTIAN DHAYAN VEGA SEPÚLVEDA

PROFESORA GUÍA: LERY MEJÍAS GARCÍA

SANTIAGO DE CHILE, AGOSTO DE 2021

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This thesis is dedicated to:

My parents, brother and sister, for their affection and endless support.

To my better half for the words of encouragement and love.

To my beloved friend Luna, whose company always made me stay pawsitive.

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Christian Vega Sepúlveda

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Tables

Figures

Abstract

The present paper strives to illuminate the implementation of the task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach through distance education during the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) context. The execution of TBLT supported young learners' vocabulary learning and speaking skill employing specific tasks focused on individual performance because of the ongoing pandemic setting. This study addressed the relevance of keeping two groups of second graders (N = 52), classified into control (N = 27) and experimental (N = 25) participants interested in the English subject by providing them with didactic tasks to develop the two previously mentioned language components. I conducted quantitative research following the action research design, which intended to validate whether TBLT affected the experimental group over the control by comparing and contrasting their results after administering a pretest and posttest for further insight. Data was collected using rubrics, treatments, and a survey to show that learners understood the contents from home. The parents' role was vital as they sent all their children's evidence through e-mail, signifying a solely virtual communication. The research findings indicate a minor positive impact regarding the experimental group over the control when mastering vocabulary and speaking in the distance education context.

Keywords: Task-based language teaching, vocabulary learning, speaking skill, distance education, primary education, TEFL field, COVID-19 pandemic environment.

Resumen

El presente documento se esfuerza por iluminar la implementación del enfoque de enseñanza del idioma basada en tareas (TBLT por sus siglas en inglés) a través de la educación a distancia durante el contexto de pandemia causado por coronavirus (COVID-19). La realización de TBLT favoreció el aprendizaje de vocabulario y expresión oral en estudiantes, mediante el empleo de tareas específicas centradas en el desempeño individual dado al entorno pandémico que está en desarrollo. Este estudio abordó la importancia de mantener a dos segundos básicos (N = 52), interesados en la asignatura de inglés, cuyos estudiantes fueron clasificados en grupo control (N = 25) y experimental (N = 27), proporcionándoles tareas didácticas para desarrollar los dos componentes del lenguaje mencionados anteriormente. Llevé a cabo un trabajo cuantitativo siguiendo el diseño de investigación por acción, que pretendía validar si TBLT afectó al grupo experimental sobre el grupo control comparando y contrastando sus resultados después de administrar una prueba previa y una posterior para obtener más información. Los datos se recopilaron mediante rúbricas, tratamientos y una encuesta para constatar que los estudiantes entendieron los contenidos desde casa. La participación de los padres fue vital, ya que enviaron toda evidencia de sus hijos e hijas por correo electrónico, lo que significó una comunicación exclusivamente virtual. Los resultados de la investigación indican un impacto positivo menor con respecto al grupo experimental comparado con el grupo control al dominar el vocabulario y la expresión oral en el contexto de educación a distancia.

Palabras Claves: TBLT, aprendizaje de vocabulario, expresión oral, educación a distancia, educación primaria, aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera, entorno pandémico COVID-19.

The Effect of Task-based Language Teaching through Distance Learning on Young Learners' Vocabulary and Speaking

The English language has been a continual subject of study to which researchers have dedicated plenty of time identifying diverse approaches and strategies for students to master it. On this matter, investigations from all over the world pursue a common objective: To apply a method or reliable technique that contributes and suits best the learners' needs and contexts, aiming to advance their English skills purposefully.

In Chile, the COVID-19 pandemic situation has adversely affected people's lives and has prevented students from receiving face-to-face lessons due to sanitary purposes. All schools have had to adjust lessons over the country either virtually or remotely, letting learners continue studying despite this unfamiliar condition. The present research was carried out in a subsidised institution located in Lo Espejo, Santiago, whose social vulnerability rate is higher than other schools around the district. The host students belonged to two-second grades, eventually divided into control and experimental groups, following quantitative analysis and the action research design. The groups were pretested, posttested, and the experimental students were administered some treatments in order to corroborate any differences in their results when concluding the investigation.

For eight weeks, both groups of students were examined using two content booklets embracing the task-based language teaching approach, which focused on vocabulary learning and oral production tasks. As for the speaking skill, learners from the experimental group were modelled the language by way of recorded capsules, replacing the face-to-face interaction input when producing the target language. Students were expected to succeed in oral accuracy by properly linking phrases and describing the topics presented in the mentioned booklets.

By placing the current study within the TEFL field, an acronym that stands for teaching English as a foreign language, the underlying rationale for doing this research was to help students advance scholarly and comprehend the contents in a challenging environment. Second, to sustain the task-based language teaching theory in a remote context, and third, to add new empirical evidence by working with young learners, reinforcing two language components: vocabulary and speaking. The insights this examination intends to contribute with is the consolidation of children as fundamental participants when teaching a second language and the best strategies to overcome any distance education difficulty. Most relevant works in the literature section highlight the development of tasks with adolescent or adult students, yet young learners are usually left aside. In this investigation, I attempt to address such a gap and provide the reader with a new in-depth understanding when working with children. Indeed, tasks follow a particular framework in on-site lessons, leading to general adaptations to accomplish the task-based approach in a remote learning setting.

This investigation sheds light on the exposure of vocabulary input and oral production, particularly reinforcing the accuracy category, to two groups of second graders through a task-based design in a remote learning environment. As for the paper structure, I have divided the present thesis into six main sections, explaining the project's full scope in detail. The first chapter gives a brief overview of the problem statement and its respective diagnosis, focusing on the research questions, general and specific objectives, and the hypothesis formulation. The paper then moves to the theoretical framework, involving works and authors conceptualising the existing knowledge in relation to the mentioned approach and language components undertaken in this study. In the third chapter, the research methodology describes the tests, treatments, and survey designed to check the examination's effectiveness. The following two chapters present the analysis and the results obtained in each of the data-gathering instruments with the eventual interpretation and implication of the findings. In the final section, some conclusions are drawn, stating limitations and recommendations for further practice.

CHAPTER I

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Problem Statement

The purpose of this chapter is to review the problem statement that emerged when I decided to commence this educational research. In the sections that follow, I will give a complete overview of the study's diagnosis and an accurate description of the research questions, objectives, hypothesis, and the significance of this examination in relation to a theoretical, methodological, and practical perspective.

Diagnosis

Undoubtedly, the ongoing pandemic context has wreaked havoc in different areas, expressly education. In Chile, students have been dealing with a remarkable study overload, which has forced them to become autonomous in their learning process. As on-site classes have been suspended due to the COVID-19 outbreak, remote lessons have had to include a wider diversity of materials and strategies in order to help learners acquire knowledge in this extraordinary context.

So far, however, there has been little discussion about improving language skills among learners in a pandemic setting. Whenever students require to learn or practice a second language, groups interactions are crucial, as it is through them that learners can share ideas or express feelings in response to a particular situation. Nevertheless, the current pandemic difficulties linked the remote learning context and the lack of interaction among students as the main disadvantages when conducting this investigation. Hand in hand with these obstacles, the school where the current examination took place is socially vulnerable. For instance, technological devices, such as computers, laptops, tablets, could not accompany the study as most of the examined learners in this research did not have these tools at home. Adapted tasks were attached to booklets, explained later in the succeeding chapters, replacing the technology gap with tangible and doable tasks that did not require an internet connection.

Research Questions

Having diagnosed the previous significant hindrances, I decided to formulate two research questions (RQs) that directly guided this research project. These questions concentrated on the concepts of task-based language teaching (TBLT) and its effect on vocabulary learning and speaking. The paper seeks to answer the next RQs:

RQ 1: Does TBLT have a significant effect on students' vocabulary use? How does this compare to those not using TBLT?

RQ 2: To what extent is the speaking skill developed as an end-product concerning TBLT?

In light of the first enquiry, it would be decisive to notice whether TBLT functions remotely by reinforcing students' elementary vocabulary. Similarly, this question aims to analyse if learners who did not receive lexical input through TBLT might experience any language learning improvement. I classified students into two groups, control and experimental, planning to answer whether the approach stated earlier is applicable for vocabulary within a distance learning environment.

The second question intends to confirm if learners can construct simple sentences describing precise topics employing the taught vocabulary. As for the speaking abilities, fluency was not considered in this investigation, but accuracy, given that I predicted students to produce accurate phrases using vocabulary and selected grammar structures, which would help them become fluent in the future.

Objectives and Hypothesis

With the diagnosis and research questions in mind, a few objectives, including general and specific, were established along with a hypothesis to outline this study's proposals. These terms are described as follows:

General Objective

To determine the TBLT approach's effect on young learners' vocabulary learning and speaking performance through distance tasks.

Specific Objectives

In congruence with the objective mentioned above, I considered three specific objectives:

a) Identify the correlation between vocabulary learning and speaking after students complete the tasks.
b) Compare and contrast the control and experimental students' results when administering pre and posttests.
c) Examine the effectiveness of TBLT and its relationship between the learners' vocabulary learning and oral production in accomplishing the target language.

Hypothesis

The predictive statement belonging to this research corresponds to a null hypothesis. Gass and Mackey (2016) define it as a "neutral statement used as a basis for testing, indicating that there is no relationship between items under investigation" (p. 151). The hypothesis is drawn below:

- There will be no difference between the control and experimental group performance after the exposure of TBLT, and no development in terms of vocabulary learning and the speaking skill throughout the course.

Justification

Special attention is given to the implementation of TBLT, attempting to elucidate whether it has a bearing effect on learners remotely. To this extent, the mentioned approach is expected to support the students to learn vocabulary through vigorous tasks and put the new words into oral practice. Employing TBLT in a distance-learning context would make students aware of the purpose of tasks sequence, rather than receiving isolated and futile activities without a clear objective to either achieve or practice.

Theoretically, I look forward to establishing TBLT as a reliable method for learners when studying a second language. English teachers and academics believe that TBLT can significantly promote the development of students' productive and receptive language skills in the foreign language field. Methodologically, the study's importance meets the adaptation of several research procedures, including the administration of tests and collaborative work with parents, being both enormously effective when measuring the students' target language performance outcomes. Last, in practicality, this research may encourage educators to teach school contents by employing any of the four language skills through a task-based design, replicating the present procedures according to their particular contexts, curriculum goals and learners' needs.

After describing the problem statement and the other relevant subtopics in this chapter, it is now possible to review the existing body of literature embracing TBLT, vocabulary, and speaking based on various authors investigating and analysing these language components. Much work on the potential of TBLT, and its satisfactory method to teach vocabulary and oral production, has been described in the succeeding chapter, where researchers have fully reported their findings in different studies.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theoretical Framework

In this chapter, the task-based language teaching method and two particular language components, vocabulary and speaking, will be described in detail, addressing influential authors and diverse investigations to guide and support the current study. Although the following works refer to exhaustive learning stages and strategies inside the classroom, it is essential to clarify that some adaptations will be made to fill the face-to-face current pandemic gap and accomplish a practical examination.

Task-based Language Teaching

One method that has been currently employed in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) is task-based language teaching (TBLT), also known as task-based approach (TBA) or task-based instruction (TBI). Though the approach itself is not entirely new, educators have been updating its functions, mainly making students perform meaningful tasks using the target language, learning assorted contents, and reinforcing language skills.

For Kumaravadivelu (2006), TBLT represents a renewed style of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach and an enhanced response to the audio-lingual method (ALM) regarding its presentation, practice and production (PPP) sequence model (p. 61). The perceived subsequent failure of PPP in the late 1970s was caused, according to Kumaravadivelu, by its excessively linguistic structures, lack of communicative orientation and absence of innovative activities to foster the learning of the target language in the classroom. In those days, CLT sought to solve the scarcity of the communicative capability among learners found in the ALM, becoming vastly popular among the TEFL field (p. 61).

Despite the CLT communicative rationale, several scholars, including Nunan (1987), Legutke and Thomas (1993), Thornbury (1996) and others, examine that “the so-called communicative classrooms, were anything but communicative”. Indeed, grammar-focused activities were still dominant in the classroom, emphasising accuracy over fluency and not resulting in effective communicative interactions among learners (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 62; Nunan, 1987, p. 144). Later on, during the '80s, the term “communicative activity” was replaced by “task”, exposing students to learn the target language more naturally through significant real-life tasks-based activities (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2011, p. 47).

From Yildiz's (2020) viewpoint, since the early 1980s, TBLT has pursued to focus on meaning rather than form, allowing students to learn the target language in a more natural learning environment engaging them with meaningful activities and authentic materials (p. 72). In 1982, Prabhu stood as the first academic to establish and develop TBLT as a method for second language learning, placing students at the centre of their learning process and contributing to the creation of an optimal language learning context (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2011, p. 47; Ruso, 1999, p. 2). Prabhu (1987) defines the concept of a task as “an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process” (p. 24).

Following Prabhu's definition and the insight of TBLT as a fruitful approach in second language learning, several researchers have felt enthusiastic about investigating further the notion of the task and evaluating its effects on learners. The method put forward by Prabhu can be considered as twofold since it allows students to learn the contents meaningfully and naturally through varied tasks and supports educators to innovate their pedagogical practices within the classroom, paying particular attention to their learners' progress. In the second language learning field, the term 'task' has been defined by many authors since the eighties, giving TBLT broad and complete interpretations from all over the globe.

Accordingly, Nunan (1989) describes the concept of the task as “a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while

their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning" (p. 10). At the same time, Willis (1996) refers to tasks as goal-oriented activities involving students to accomplish them in a natural context by using the (target) language (p. 53). Ellis (2003) defines tasks as a 'workplan' for learners to achieve an outcome, improving the four language skills and some cognitive processes (p 16). Sánchez (2004) specifies tasks under the name of particular classroom activities, focusing on meaning and the students' process, instead of form in the teaching practice (p. 41). Lastly, Bygate and Samuda (2008) exemplify the task as "a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning through process or product or both" (p. 69).

All these definitions share a common understanding: Tasks serve as tools through which learners can progressively enhance their language communicative competencies. As tools, tasks can promote students to learn the second language (L2) in real-life contexts, attain specific language goals, convey information regarding a particular task and improve language processing features such as fluency and accuracy (Cook, 2008, pp. 257-258). In such a manner, students can learn the second language outside the lesson if teachers provide their students with practical and enriching tasks allowing them to learn, boost or produce the L2.

Before going on to more substantive matters, Candlin (1987) details seven consecutive key features that teachers should bear in mind when designing tasks for an optimal effect on students. These are listed as follows:

1. Input: Refers to visual or written aids that students should focus on to achieve the task.
2. Roles: Once performing the task, learners can be assigned as information-givers and information-receivers.
3. Settings: Corresponds to how educators arrange students' group either in or outside the classroom, preparing a favourable environment for a learning process.

4. Actions: Indicates the teacher's instructions for students to follow and perform the task.
5. Monitoring: Educators have to supervise and ensure that the task is being carried out without problems.
6. Outcomes: Specifies the different products (oral, written, or behavioural) intended to result.
7. Feedback: Points out to evaluate the whole process, including corrective feedback on language or other helpful comments (as cited in Robinson, 2011, p. 7).

Advantages and Disadvantages of TBLT

Skehan (2003) affirms that from the mid-1980s, two opposite beliefs emerged with the implementation of TBLT inside the classroom, resulting in “weak” and “strong” forms of the task-based approach. Supporters of the weak form believed that tasks were a mere “adjunct to structure-based teaching”, incapable of having a tangible effect in a syllabus design. Conversely, the main argument advanced by proponents of the strong form suggested that tasks could engage students in efficient acquisitional processes, becoming central participants in their learning (p. 1). Albeit the earlier outdated perceptions, the following lines acknowledge recent pros and cons regarding the implication of TBLT in TEFL contexts.

Robinson (2011) highlights some advantages when implementing TBLT, which are based on empirical studies that are believed to promote a successful second language acquisition (SLA). In Robinson's words, task-work benefits have shown a positive contribution to corrective feedback (implicit or explicit) and a motivational impact on speech production, uptake, and longer-term memory for input during task performance. Besides, according to him, tasks could be placed at the centre of curricular planning due to the enriching focus of TBLT on communicative activities (pp. 3-4). Moreover, Nunan (2006) claims that TBLT has pedagogically strengthened students to focus on their learning process

instead of focusing only on language. As the process is vital, there is a needs-based approach to content selection, making authentic texts meaningful into the learning process. Nunan concludes that there is an evident emphasis on learners communicating through interaction in the target language (Jung & Robertson, p. 14). Lastly, Bhandari (2019) argues that tasks promote a sense of responsibility among learners considering that teachers are not available all the time, enabling them to take risks while learning the contents. Simultaneously, TBLT allows students to use the language "for expressing their views, feelings, emotions, ideas, and experiences", improving language skills (pp. 3-4).

Drawbacks in implementing TBLT underline Swan arguments (2005), implying that SLA's development in the mentioned approach is not sustained in communicative activities as the claim lacks theoretical arguments and empirical evidence. Furthermore, Swan discusses that both naturalistic communication and the introduction of new linguistic materials are limited in poor-exposure contexts where time constraints exist. Likewise, the author considers that there are no factual reports regarding TBLT and its success in long-term planning TBLT (396-397).

Similar findings have been reported by Cook (2008), who indicates that TBLT works only under "short-term fluency gains", not focusing on broad goals of purposes regarding language teaching. What is more, TBLT neither contemplates a syllabus for teaching nor explicitly designed tasks to any particular students' stage. Teachers become facilitators rather than experts while executing TBLT, not needing much grammar knowledge when guiding learners to perform their tasks, lacking the focus on form (FonF) characteristic. Cook underlines concluding disadvantages asserting that TBLT does not cover proficiency areas like pronunciation and is not fitting for university students. Hence, these learners may consider the approach not challenging but relatively easy to accomplish (p. 262).

Ellis (2009) differs from Swan and Cook in various aspects and proposes an underlying rationale to state the opposite view concerning their opinions towards TBLT. First, Ellis makes contradictory claims when referring to the lack of FonF, as the term is misunderstood to be singularly related to grammar.

Researchers operate FonF in TBLT in various ways, namely vocabulary, pronunciation and other lexical items. Second, Ellis concedes that the teacher's role in the classroom is more than a facilitator of tasks but a skilled communicator who motivates learners to perform their tasks and adopt strategies to learn the target language. Third, Ellis differs sharply on Swan's view on poor-context exposure because TBLT works either in acquisition-rich contexts (learners being exposed to the L2 in their communities) and acquisition-poor environments (students learning the L2 in a foreign context). Together with that, teachers follow input-based approaches to enhance their language skills. Finally, Ellis disagrees with the need for empirical evidence of TBLT on SLA. The author contends that incidental learning in SLA does occur after learners perform the tasks. TBLT rests in different theories (not only SLA) to improve students' L2. (pp. 234-240).

TBLT and Young Learners

The literature review reveals that little discussion has been found about TBLT in TEFL school settings, particularly with young learners (YLs). Ellis (2014) remarks that the concept of YLs is inaccurate since it might involve any student under 18 years old. Therefore, the author recommends addressing this issue by dividing the ambiguous term into four main groups, classifying students according to their ages: early years (2-5 years), primary (6-10 years), lower secondary (11-14 years) and upper secondary (15-17 years) (pp. 76-77).

As for the development of TBLT among YLs, Carless (2002, 2004) briefly observes three major concerns after exposing primary learners to tasks, specifically the use of mother tongue, discipline challenges and target language production. In Carless's study, YLs used the first language (L1) more frequently than the L2 during tasks, depicting a possible language barrier for communicative purposes. However, the researcher hints that using the mother tongue or code-switching (varying from the L1 to

L2 or vice versa) is expected in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context and signifies no further problems with primary level students (Carless, 2002, p. 392). The L1, Carless submits, stimulates communication among learners, allowing them to use cognitive and social functions when performing the tasks. The author explains that if students use their mother tongue "judiciously", particularly when discussing strategies to accomplish their tasks, learners can acquire target language vocabulary and grammatical patterns more easily (p. 642).

On the same note, noise and disciplinary challenges arise when educators are in the strictest compliance with teacher-fronted tasks. Carless (2004) encourages teachers to implement group activities and familiarise themselves with noise, given that learners have to communicate using the L2. Willis (1996) proposes TBLT to overcome the behavioural disturbances mentioned above, as the author claims that a task-based design is practical for larger classes. If noise is accentuated, it means that teachers have dedicated too much time to a task, requiring shifts to another activity (as cited in Carless, 2004, p. 643).

Carless's last concern, target language production, has not received much consideration in school contexts, given that investigators predominantly devote time analysing and assessing adult EFL learners during language production tasks (p. 643). In his study, the academic exemplifies the lack of language production in children when a group of them performed a task focusing on the prompt: "how do you come to school?". The YLs were supposed to interact with their classmates and ask them the mentioned question; however, they did not feel the need to speak and wrote their answers in silence. As these YLs already knew their classmates came to school on foot, Carless identified that the prompt was not suitable for any communicative purpose. When the investigation concluded, the researcher reported that students were evidently unaware they had to verbally practise the target language and not only complete the task (p. 644).

In line with Carless' perception, García-Mayo (2018) supports a widely held belief that little research has been conducted among YLs in terms of interactions through communicative tasks and target language production. García-Mayo's justification about early childhood and primary learners' little attention relies on how challenging it is to expose them to collaborative tasks and know their “individual differences”, especially motivation when carrying out their activities. These under-researched variables specify, for instance, that cooperative tasks between children are hard to achieve, given their immaturity to interact in abstract thinking tasks.

The YLs' motivation inside the classroom requires measuring before and after completing their tasks, particularly with Likert scale surveys or interviews, to corroborate their engagement with a theme or topic covered in the lesson. The reason is to verify any influence on the students' learning process in a task-supported classroom (pp. 123-132). Undoubtedly, time-consuming measures and vague attempts to enable communicative tasks among YLs are the researchers' motives to place children aside, preferring older students to collect data for their investigations when implementing TBLT in school settings.

Further, García-Mayo expresses her concern about YLs' little research attention, suggesting that investigators should be involved in school contexts and establish links with heads of school and local teachers to collaborate in research findings. This way, children's data can be viewed as fundamental in developing appropriate learning tasks (p. 134) and possibly support TBLT and its effects on children's learning the second language.

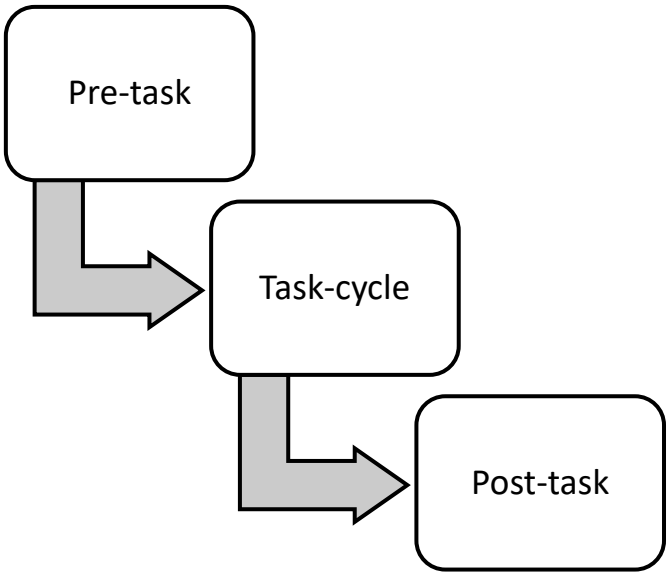
In general, in case learners have difficulties producing the target language, Carless (2004) advocates that teachers design their activities correctly, attempting a communicative purpose. In this manner, students can complete the activities and develop a sense of awareness while putting the L2 into practice inside the classroom (p. 644). After stating that tasks pedagogically work with children, though certain aspects should be modified, it is pertinent to explore how a task is designed.

A Task Framework

With the thorough description of the task-based language teaching approach mentioned in the preceding sections, it is proper to put tasks into a framework and study their implications and effects on learners. The model suggested by Willis (1996) encompasses three phases that provide learners with a better understanding of a target language learning, reflecting a sequential order that teachers should follow in a task-based lesson (as cited in Ruso, 1999, p. 3). From top to bottom, Willis's phases include pre-task, task-cycle, and post-task (also known as language focus), which are portrayed in the following figure:

Figure 1

The Task Framework



Note. This figure illustrates the phases involved in the sequential model proposed by Willis (1996). In the pre-task stage, the activity is presented and framed to students. In task-cycle, the information is processed, and finally, the activity is practised or repeated in the post-task phase. Adapted from "The Influence of Task-Based Learning on EFL Classrooms" by N. Ruso, 1999, *Asian EFL Journal,* p. 3. Copyright 1999 by Eastern Mediterranean University.

According to Willis (1996), in the pre-task phase, educators introduce the topic to the class and present different topic-related activities. Furthermore, Lee (2000) underlines the concept of “framing the task” as a sort of organisation, making teachers visualise what is expected of students to learn and how these will accomplish the objectives set at the beginning of the learning process (Ch. 3). For Beglar and Hunt (2002), this initial stage allows students to activate their schemata (prior knowledge), so they can organise their ideas and undertake challenging tasks. Also, pre-tasks allow learners to familiarise themselves and experiment with new lexical items, grammatical structures and language functions (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 101).

The second phase centres on the task itself, in which learners are asked to use the L2 to improve their language skills under the teacher's guidance. Given how essential the instructions are in this phase, three sub-components are worth mentioning: the task itself, planning, and report. As for the task, students master the L2, working individually, in pairs or in small groups to complete their tasks. In the planning stage, the educator's role is that of a language adviser, aiding the learners to plan their reports and reflect upon their learning process. In the report step, students share with the class their findings, the complexity of the tasks, and experiences during task performance. Here, Willis holds that the report stage gives learners a natural stimulus to upgrade their language production (Ruso, 1999, p. 3).

The final phase relates to a closer study and consolidation of contents, including three specific goals; (a) repetition of task performance, (b) reflection upon progress, and (c) identification of lexical items that could have caused problems in the development of the activity, focusing on form instead of meaning. Ellis (2006) contends that these objectives improve learners' language production, who become more fluent and clearer to express their ideas (as cited in Jung & Robertson, 2006, p. 36).

By giving tasks a concise and comprehensive framework, authors agree on the notion that students would become actively involved in their tasks and feel encouraged to perform better increasingly. Similarly, J. Rodríguez-Bonces and Rodríguez-Bonces (2010) uphold that the TBLT

framework can motivate students to acquire and learn a second language as a goal-oriented process. In this development, learners can combine their life experiences and previous knowledge to support their language learning in each of the phases through assorted tasks (p. 174).

There has been growing interest recently whether tasks and activities have the same educational meaning while employing TBLT, yet the comparison of both concepts lacks objective and empirical evidence. Willis and Willis (2007) strive to design some questions to define that the more educators answered 'yes' to these, the more task-like the activity:

a) “Does the activity engage learners' interest?

b) Is there a primary focus on meaning?

c) Is there an outcome?

d) Is success judged in terms of outcome?

e) Is completion a priority?

f) Does the activity relate to real-world activities?” (as cited in Hunston & Oakey, 2010, p. 65).

For Hunston and Oakey (2010), the questions above guide teachers to precisely adapt their activities to become more task-like, thereby ensuring students feel engaged in the process and achieve the task outcome (pp. 65-66). Last, educators should consider making all sort of teaching adaptations in challenging contexts bearing in mind the students' needs and motivation towards the contents.

Investigations Based on TBLT

The cornerstone of task-based language teaching is the notion of being suitable for a wide range of students, going from early childhood to adults in the TEFL context. In this respect, Hasan (2014) conducted a study using TBLT with secondary school students, employing experimental and control groups. This investigation aimed to improve the learners' English oral performance following a task-

based program (involving task-based techniques) directed towards the experimental subjects and a Teacher's Guide (issued by the Ministry of Education) for the control participants.

Both groups of students were exposed to the same two units from a textbook, yet each group's methodology was differently applied. The experimental students worked under some of the task-based program techniques that provided them with contextualised tasks, situational activities and a focus on fluency. For instance, errors were considered natural when learners conveyed ideas orally. Conversely, The Teacher's Guide granted information and instructions to the English teachers to use with the control learners, which included a set of activities to be used in both units, flexible teaching guidelines, assessing procedures, and lesson aims (p. 259).

While the experimental group studied the units employing the task-based program, the control group studied the same units without incorporating any task-based technique when learning the contents and speaking the L2. The findings showed significant differences between the scores of both groups in the oral performance test, favouring the experimental subjects over the control participants. The author concluded that even though TBLT was challenging for learners, shy and quieter students benefited from the approach since it offered opportunities to express their ideas. The results of the investigation indicated effectiveness when using TBLT in the TEFL context (p. 262).

Likewise, Fallahrafie et al. (2015) carried out an investigation with university students majoring in Mechanical Engineering who took an English for Specific Purposes course (ESP). The main objective was to expand students' incidental vocabulary through the framework of task-based activities. They based their study on having both an experimental and control group to verify whether the method impacted the former. An educator specialised in Mechanical Engineering ESP vocabulary exposed both groups of learners to 75 words throughout the course. The teacher only lectured 15 words per session through which the experiment group learnt the technical vocabulary based on a task-based approach

focusing on sentence writing tasks. In contrast, the control group was only trained using traditional vocabulary teaching methods, implying no task-based strategies to expand lexical knowledge (p. 840).

The investigators gave both groups of learners a pretest consisting of technical vocabulary knowledge and a posttest to determine the impact of the experimental group's treatment. According to these researchers, the results showed that the treatment group participants had a remarkable improvement and performed better concerning vocabulary retention contrasted with the control learners. These authors consequently confirmed the stimulating effects of TBLT compared to the traditional teaching approach used in their research, contributing to the learners' understanding of new lexical items (p. 836).

Subsequent findings by Baralt and Morcillo (2017) indicated that Willis's reference model could be adapted in distance education. These researchers claimed that the original framework consisting of pre-task, task-cycle and post-task may be applied in online lessons using video-based tasks, allowing students to learn and work individually from home. In this case, video tutorials would help teachers prepare and encourage their learners with detailed task instructions by modelling the language. In the researchers' opinion, videos are within everyone's reach as they can be recorded using mobile phones and be uploaded or sent to any virtual platform. This study determined that video-based tasks helped students feel more encouraged to learn as the teacher was continually guiding, motivating and scaffolding them remotely during their learning process (pp. 34-36).

According to the preceding sections, it can be appreciated that TBLT plays a vital role in engaging students in various tasks, making them aware of their advancement while developing language skills. In addition, the current research project explores and covers the specific areas of vocabulary learning and oral production in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context. Both language components will be addressed in the following paragraphs, where different academics provide empirical evidence supporting the usefulness of TBLT.

Vocabulary Learning

Whenever EFL teachers decide to boost any of the four language skills among their students, they should contemplate vocabulary for purposeful learning. Words and phrases serve as the elemental engine for students to build the target language and gradually understand the contents, resulting in vocabulary knowledge. Rupley et al. (1999) deem the stated term as an opportunity to allow people to have access to background knowledge; in this manner, learners would express their beliefs and ideas, communicate successfully, and ultimately learn new concepts (as cited in Reisi & Sanieri, 2016, p. 1190). Thornbury (2002) complements this perception by claiming that people will see the most advancement in their English language if they understand many words and expressions, rather than studying only grammar structures (p. 114). Lightbown and Spada (2013) assert that vocabulary should be frequent for students learning an L2, exposing them to different words through written and oral materials until they comprehensively understand their meaning (p. 62). Similarly, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) evidence that productive tasks enhance learners' vocabulary development, showing a successful acquisition of new lexical items when students feel engaged in activities (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 64).

A recent study carried out by Fand and Lu (2021) showed that the task-based approach facilitated the acquisition and retention of L2 vocabulary related to “feelings”. These researchers based their examination on a quasi-experimental design, employing two methods, TBLT and PPP, among two third grades, eventually divided into control and experimental groups. Although both groups received the same input on feelings, they were taught differently, given that the control learners had lessons based on the PPP model and the experimental students through focus-on-form TBLT classes (p. 40). The instruments applied consisted of three vocabulary tests (a posttest, a delayed test, and a second delayed test) and teacher/researchers' journal logs. After weeks of treatments, the findings indicated that even though the PPP group scored better at first, “the effect disappeared in the delayed test”,

implying a weaker result when comparing it with the TBLT group performance (p. 50). The experimental group improved their acquisition and retention of L2 vocabulary; however, the researchers pinpointed that no significant differences were found between the two groups. To conclude, Fan and Lu remarked that tasks require adaptations "to serve the needs of real-life communication" when vocabulary is presented to learners (p. 50).

In brief, vocabulary cannot be separated from language as they work conjointly, making it vital while learning or practising any language skill. For students to meaningfully acquire new words, educators should implement varied strategies to enhance knowledge and motivation in the English subject. Nevertheless, one of the most significant drawbacks regarding vocabulary learning, according to Cuesta and Duque (2017), is that it requires independent study from learners as not all word knowledge can be taught through direct instructions in the classroom (p. 402). Interestingly, this disadvantage might bring some benefits in the current COVID-19 pandemic context as learners would tackle this issue by learning at home, being exposed to as many new words and phrases as possible.

The Categorisation of a Word

As vocabulary knowledge is a broad concept, it is appropriate to state what students should know about a word, its meaning and how they can recognise it in context. Laufer (1991) categorises the basic concept of the word into five accurate groups. In the first place, words can be identified within aural and written contexts, implying pronunciation and spelling. The second category refers to the word structure, involving morphemes (free or bound) and their derivates. In the third place, words are placed and operated in utterances in terms of syntactic behaviour. Fourth, words are recognised concerning their referential meaning (homonyms, polysemes, idioms, among others) and pragmatic meaning. The last classification acknowledges lexical relations, including synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms and

collocations (pp. 82-83). In the present research, students are expected to comprehend and learn vocabulary until the third level from Laufer's distribution, attempting to practice the concept of accuracy while using the target language in its simple form. Consequently, the group components of referential and pragmatic meaning, as well as lexical relations, are not considered in this examination, given the advanced mental process required to recognise such levels.

Speaking Skill

As described earlier, TBLT encourages students to learn from specific and meaningful tasks affecting their language skills constructively. Learners must use the language by reinforcing any of these four: listening, reading, speaking, or writing, depending on what teachers want their students to master. Speaking is both a process and ability allowing a person to orally express ideas and feelings to other people, directly and indirectly, using verbal and non-verbal symbols in varied contexts (Chaney, 1998, p. 13; Malihah, 2010, p. 88). Furthermore, fluency and accuracy concepts become essential characteristics to determine and evaluate the students' speaking performance. On the one hand, fluency refers to how clear a person expresses thoughts orally, transitioning smoothly from one topic to another with few pauses and hesitations. On the other hand, accuracy pinpoints specific mechanics that learners should pay attention to when speaking, such as pronunciation, grammatical patterns, and, most importantly, vocabulary in context.

Studies on Speaking through TBLT

By way of illustration, Albino's case study (2017) focused on picture-description tasks to improve students' L2 speaking in terms of fluency. The investigator introduced several topics for eight weeks

implementing TBLT in meaning-making and form-focused phases, engaging learners in oral-fluency and providing feedback on their performance (p. 5). The students' speeches were recorded when describing content-related pictures, and these were transcribed, entailing all words they used, along with filled pauses, self-corrections and hesitations. Albino concluded that after learners were systematically exposed and engaged in tasks production, they maximised their speech production speed, increased grammatical accuracy, and developed interactional language (p. 7).

Further, Chuang (2008) examined if TBLT was a suitable tool for college EFL learners to upgrade their English oral proficiency, learning motivation, and positive attitude. The findings showed that the approach improved the mentioned goals, as students felt comfortable practising speaking in a teacher-directed environment. Indeed, learners recognised the worth of TBLT since the learning objectives were explicitly presented, boosting their motivation and autonomy to a higher degree. In Chuang's opinion, students had a sense of self-fulfilment when completing the tasks, stating that task-based assessment and the feedback sessions were relevant to enhance speaking (p. 37).

When looking at Albino and Chuang's studies, it is possible to deduce that language production goes hand in hand with what task-based learning aims at, depicting speaking as a practical skill for students of all ages to learn and produce the target language. However, as Ellis (2014) reported, some critics doubt whether TBLT aids young students learn an L2, specifically mastering oral production. This author argues that beginner students might have problems when asked to produce the language immediately (either speaking or writing); still, TBLT is possible for any level when giving instructions appropriately. Ellis provides clear evidence about speaking outcomes by referring to Shintani's study (2012), aiming to improve children's listening skills. Students had to listen to commands, understand their messages, and select some cards that matched the instructions; curiously, over time, learners began to speak and negotiate their understanding regarding the teacher's commands, though oral production was not a requirement in this study. Ellis suggests that for early childhood and children in

general, tasks should be input-based. Thus, students are introduced to the L2 the same way they learnt the L1, making TBLT a natural approach to improve language production (p. 108).

Unfavourably, when analysing the speaking L2 development in the Chilean educational context, it is observed that the skill is frequently placed aside, especially in socially vulnerable schools. The English subject's national curriculum addresses receptive and productive skills for all levels; nevertheless, teachers traditionally reinforce the formers inside the classroom, affecting students' target language production considerably. The emphasis on reading and listening is also detected in the Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación (SIMCE), a Chilean standardised exam that measures learners' school curricula in different subjects. In the English SIMCE test, students are directly asked to focus on receptive skills and grammatical structures, performing reading comprehension and listening for specific information exercises and completing sentences using the correct verb tense. As attested by the Agencia de Calidad de la Educación (2017), only 22% of learners mastered the reading comprehension skill, while 29% of them managed to succeed in the listening skill (p. 8). The results obtained convey how inferior the students' performances were regarding receptive skills, which may infer that the productive ones are even worse in numbers.

Doubtlessly, Chilean students lack speaking in the classroom since it takes time for educators to develop and keep learners under observation while developing this language skill. Hence, a series of consequences such as shyness, insecurity, unwillingness to express ideas orally, and fear of making mistakes as others could laugh might reduce the students' interest and engagement concerning speaking. Brown (1994) states that anxiety is the biggest problem while learners become acquainted with speaking in a foreign language, given that they are afraid to be judged as incomprehensible individuals when speaking in public (as cited in Dewi, 2016, p. 342). Malihah (2010) agrees with Brown's assertion that anxiety is a “troubled feeling in the mind” being caused by three particular reasons: communication apprehension, the assessment itself and the fear of making mistakes when speaking. For

learners not to experience this negative feeling, Malihah suggests that teachers should avoid pessimistic expressions and unfavourable comments but encourage them to speak and value their willingness when orally producing the language (pp. 90-91). The proposal above may naturally benefit students to feel less anxious or threatened when interacting with their classmates since nobody is placed on the spot. Though this suggestion does not entirely apply in a remote context, it is a solid argument to advocate the use of TBLT and encourage learners to speak and produce the L2 through a task-based design.

In a remote context, TBLT might bolster students' oral production if they first practice the target language independently and then produce it afterwards with a particular group of people, reinforcing their speaking self-confidence before interacting with others. What is more, teachers might boost oral production by designing practical speaking tasks that involve turning mistakes into opportunities and providing students with positive comments, even when their oral discourse is not entirely accurate. The connection between TBLT and speaking may allow learners to be open to suggestions when practising the L2 and feel comfortably motivated to strengthen a productive skill in a remote setting. In this sense, the natural benefit of TBLT is reducing

The full range of arguments offered in this chapter might establish TBLT as a reliable method to improve learners' language skills, specifically vocabulary knowledge and oral production. Due to TBLT's involvement in assorted tasks, students have shown to feel engaged in learning and practising the target language in real-life contexts. Though introduced nearly 30 years ago, TBLT endures over time, allowing teachers and researchers to innovate and advance their pedagogical practices exposing students to significant and varied tasks.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Methodology

This chapter's general objective is to provide a succinct rationale about the research methodology, the analysis procedure, and the investigation findings. The first sections include a brief overview of the study's context bearing in mind the current ongoing pandemic, the research paradigm, approach and design. The paper then moves to sample, variables measurements, data collection instruments, procedures and the study's validity and reliability concepts.

Context of the Study

Presently, the Chilean educational situation has been considerably affected by the COVID-19 outbreak. Few methods are available to strengthen the students' second language knowledge and communicative skills in this extreme condition. The remote learning process has prevented educators from observing, monitoring and giving immediate feedback to their learners, resulting in a challenging and limiting environment. As distant teaching-learning methods are scarce in the pandemic, enhancing language skills has become arduous due to a critical lack of interaction between educators and their students and these with their classmates. To study and practice a second language, learners require the opportunities to interact with others, making language learning a collaborative process. Nevertheless, because of the pandemic perspective, the Ministry of Education has forcedly commanded to adapt school lessons and teach them remotely, replacing students' face-to-face interactions with individual performance because of sanitary purposes.

Notwithstanding the studies referring to on-site lessons and participants' interactions in the literature review, students in this research were not expected to communicate with their classmates but to perform speaking individually as an end-product to validate their understanding of vocabulary and

oral production accuracy. As briefly stated before, the prime reason was that government authorities and the professional healthcare association had restricted the population from interacting and meeting with others in-person, resulting in mass quarantine to control the disease. The chance to contract or transmit the virus has been alarmingly high, causing people to have severe breathing difficulties or even death, depicting both educational and healthcare contexts as unforeseeable and challenging to handle. The confinement order brought classes' suspension, and shortly after that, teachers were forced to implement distance learning, struggling to cover most of the national curricular planning contents.

Distance education has become a pitfall for many learners over the country, especially for those attending socially vulnerable schools due to the lack of technological devices in their homes. The situation has not changed much for educators; the pandemic has meant a significant increase in the workload and futile opportunities to confirm whether the students have mastered the school contents or not. Simultaneously, learners' parents (or guardians) have not been peripheral subjects in the pandemic context but central and contributing agents regarding their children's education. The parents and guardians' role has involved working with teachers parallelly, checking if students complete their assignments, paying attention to whether learners have understood the contents, or guiding them to perform specific tasks.

Concentrating on the current project, I decided to implement TBLT with two groups of second graders attending a socially vulnerable school. Regardless of the pandemic constraints, this method sought to solve the face-to-face gap and provide learners with valuable and efficient remote tasks to expand their vocabulary learning and improve their speaking. Being the institution socially vulnerable, most of these second-grade students did not have access to the Internet or technological devices to continue studying online, which hindered the possibility to virtually communicate with them or their parents/guardians. As a result, remote learning prevented me from witnessing how these students

completed their tasks, and feedback moments were consequently thwarted from happening, causing a feeling of detachment regarding the learners' target language learning and production development.

Because of the absence of electronic devices in the distance teaching and learning process, I could not impart online lessons, so the school where I work determined to use monthly booklets to replace any virtual approach. The booklets included four sheets of paper with lots of activities per subject (around 40 pages), which allowed teachers to prioritise the contents demanded by the Ministry of Education each month. The school coordinators enclosed all the activities that educators designed, sent them to a printing house, and once the booklets were printed, these were physically shared with each student's parent. These materials favoured the preparation of sequential tasks for learners to perform at home, finding a solution to the technological devices' difficulty and preventing students from falling behind in terms of contents.

Once learners received the booklets and completed their English tasks, parents/guardians were told to take photos of the already finished activities and visually record their children's oral presentation tasks by sending them to me through e-mail. With the photos and videos as evidence, the school considered this was a suitable strategy to reply to the parents/guardians' e-mails and give their children positive comments on their target language performance. If learners presented problems with a mobile phone to take pictures or browsing the Internet, they were located by the school administration and provided with pre-owned smartphones and the establishment's WI-FI password. This way, students living nearby the school could have access to the web and felt encouraged to keep learning the contents. Additionally, parents and guardians could be updated with the school community's latest information, such as online parents' meetings, booklets delivery dates, and other administrative events.

To carry out this investigation, the school coordinator in charge of the primary students authorised the use of audio-visual materials delivered from learners, as long as meaningful comments were given to their performance afterwards. Parents and guardians were instructed to record the

students’ oral tasks using mobile phones and send the files via e-mail, which became advantageous for collecting data and giving them direct feedback based on their children's results. It is important to say that learners presented the taught new words in the L2 following specific guidelines when being recorded to confirm if they were practising vocabulary from home. Parents and tutors were deliberately asked not to edit, cut or disrupt the videos since the students' mistakes reflected their vocabulary knowledge during this remote process. Given that in-person supervision was hampered because of the COVID-19, I could not monitor the learners' progress; therefore, the learners' headteachers offered to help me have virtual communication with the parents. By having their contact numbers and a messenger application, WhatsApp, I could straightforwardly call or chat with the students' parents and ask them for delayed or pending tasks. From this point of view, the supervision of the students' distance learning was executed more thoroughly.

As for procedures, I established control and experimental groups to confirm if TBLT impacted the second in remote learning. Both groups were sent booklets with lexical content; however, I taught the control group with short and isolated activities, where students learnt specific new words, not focusing on oral production. Parallelly, the experimental group received vocabulary input through continuous tasks, considered treatments, which were always accompanied by recorded learning capsules to reinforce vocabulary and promote speaking. The students orally recorded their tasks using the L2 and sent their recordings through e-mail. At the end of this process, I assessed both groups with rubrics measuring their scores in vocabulary knowledge and speaking separately.

Despite the challenges mentioned in this section, it was still attainable to implement an educational method that contributed to students' distance-learning process within a pandemic scenario. The research tasks discussed in the following sections were adapted for students to perform them individually, in which teacher-learner and parent interaction were solely virtual. The latter was included as a fundamental agent in their children's process, aiming for successful remote communication.

Research Paradigm

The paradigm notion tends to be puzzling to comprehend in the research field, given its wide-ranging theoretical classifications and sub-groups. It is proper to remark that the present investigation aimed its attention at the epistemological model. The underlying motive was that this study leant towards both the analysis of language understanding among students and the relationship between TBLT's theory and practice; thus, the stated model best suited the implemented procedures during this examination. Killam (2013) defines the epistemological paradigm to make a correlation between knowledge and investigator, addressing the notion of “how we come to know what we know” (p. 8).

Within the epistemological model is found the postpositivist paradigm, which according to Cohen et al. (2018) represents a rational, mechanistic, controllable and largely inflexible worldview that works under the 'scientific method', exclusively related to the procedures of this study. By following this method, effects or outcomes are measured and described to determine whether theories and hypotheses influence the investigation. Empirical evidence and linear nature govern the postpositivism approach, especially in cause-and-effect laws and factual information. This approach is typically associated with quantitative data collection methods and analysis (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 16; Knipe & Mackenzie, 2006, pp. 3-4). My investigation encompasses establishing a theory that seeks to be supported by a hypothesis and how variables, speaking and vocabulary learning, are affected by the central approach.

The current work's procedures were organised and designed according to the epistemological paradigm and its postpositivist focus. Although many paradigms and theoretical models serve researchers as guidelines, those chosen are directly connected with the field of science, particularly social. The social sciences study people's behaviour and knowledge acquisition, referring to fundamental concepts, such as learners, classrooms, schools, and, most importantly, education.

Research Method

There are numerous research methods on which academics have based their studies, being quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods, three of the most common approaches. In the present study, the quantitative research method and its measurements were best to adopt, supplementing and extending an enriching analysis in the challenging setting of this investigation.

In Creswell and Creswell's (2018) perspective, the quantitative approach is executed whenever researchers aspire to test a theory and evaluate the relationship between variables on a sample. The evidence is transformed into numbers, measured through diverse data collection instruments and analysed operating statistical procedures (p. 41). Gass and Mackey (2016) complete the former viewpoint expressing that when investigators employ quantitative measures, instructional treatments must be implemented before (pretests) and after (posttest) to compare the sample's results. Before these tests are applied, a specific hypothesis must be articulated to demonstrate whether the theory and variables impact the study (p. 3).

In essence, selecting the quantitative approach and its sequence allowed the present investigation to be precise in the current problematic context. The quantitative characteristics, which imply statistical analysis, hypothesis formulation, pretesting and posttesting, and experimental procedure offered meaningful empirical evidence in remote learning.

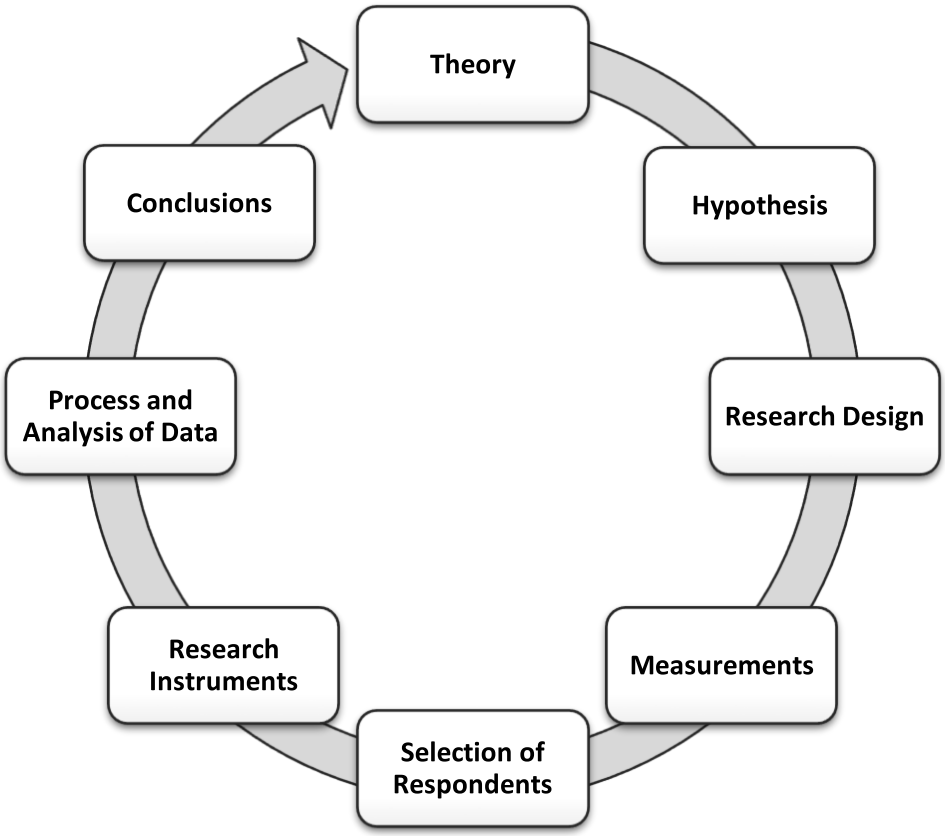
Quantitative Procedures

When organising the present investigation, I chose to follow Bryman (2012) quantitative research cyclical steps. The author postulates consecutive stages for researchers consider when

initiating their experimental projects, attempting a structural development (p. 161). Some of Bryman's phases are illustrated as follows:

Figure 2

The Quantitative Method Cycle



Note. Adapted from "Social Research Methods" by A. Bryman, 2012, *Oxford University Press*, p. 161.

In Figure 2, Bryman conveys the process carried out in quantitative research that serves as a starting point to develop exploratory research properly. The original sequence includes a couple of more stages; however, some were removed to match the procedures followed in the present examination. Basing my study on the illustration above, I first thought of TBLT as a practical approach whose theory might strengthen students' vocabulary learning and oral production in distance learning. In the meantime, a consistent hypothesis emerged from TBLT development seeking to be confirmed when

concluding my examination. The following step led to adopting a research design, detailed in the next section, which referred to the procedures followed in the execution of TBLT and its two variables. Then, I paid attention to vocabulary and speaking and explained how these were measured, giving thorough justifications for other investigators to replicate the process. Subsequently, I focused on a sample consisting of second-grade students and applied the specified theory and research procedures in both control and experimental groups. In the data collection instrument phase, these learners sat for pretesting and posttesting, being the experimental group exposed to a couple of treatments and recorder capsules. The collected data was transformed into numbers that were later analysed and interpreted by testing the relationship between variables affecting the sample. In the conclusion stage, I revealed the findings and examined whether they proved the study's purpose. Finally, Bryman completes the cycle by affirming that once the results have been published, researchers become part of the theory and invite other academics to keep exploring and learning from the theory, conveying a feedback loop, as a temporary station, to return to the beginning of the cycle (p. 163).

Research Design

As stated before, the quantitative approach required a design to evaluate the learners remote learning in this experimental study, following an action research (AR) design. According to Swann (2002), “action research arises from a problem, dilemma, or ambiguity in the situation in which practitioners find themselves” (p. 55); thus, the investigator has to resolve those issues, and if not pleased, refine the process and try again. On this view, McNiff and Whitehead (2002) claim the mentioned design to be a practical method for teacher-researchers to self-reflect and assess their pedagogical practice on other people, implicating AR with the concept of learning through both action and reflection (p. 15).

In practice, Swann (2002) adds that AR is usually carried out when three conditions are met. The author classifies these required terms as diagnosis, collaborative process, and taking action. When researchers begin their studies, they should diagnose and identify a problem or social practice that needs to be changed or improved during the process. To amend this problem, investigators and participants have to work united, resulting in a collaborative process. Then, researchers take action and plan, act, observe and reflect upon the participants' work (p. 55).

Additionally, Tomal (2010) introduces two more conditions when using AR, action planning and evaluation, which complement Swann's concepts above. In action planning, researchers decide an action procedure to tackle the problem statement, indicating a crucial moment to brainstorm different solutions and pushing barriers aside. The evaluation alludes to the positive or adverse effects of the examination. Here, the results may contribute to threefold insights: new knowledge gained, preparation for further interventions, and information provision to a specific community (pp. 22-23).

With Swann and Tomal's descriptions in mind, an action research model depicting the stages implemented in the present study was feasible to design. Following these authors' narrative, I could identify remote learning as the current project's primary concern. By diagnosing this problem, the thought of a proper educational method, TBLT, was executed to check how students could learn two-unit contents more significantly, resulting in the action planning phase. In this investigation, the collaborative process went beyond the communication between researcher and students, including parents as important members in the children's tasks development, producing a triangulated reciprocal interaction. In the taking action stage, I formed two groups, experimental and control, to analyse their development when completing the tasks. In the end, the stated groups were evaluated using rubrics which measured their vocabulary knowledge and oral production based on TBLT to see variations throughout the course. Although AR design expects teachers to observe their learners face-to-face, the present COVID-19 circumstances did not allow it, adapting the nature of AR and its steps remotely. As an

illustration, the mentioned design tends to be an interpretative approach predominant in qualitative research; however, AR was modified to fulfil the quantitative procedures for the current study's purposes.

The population and Sampling Design

The current project population encompassed two-second grades from a socially vulnerable school located in Santiago, precisely in Lo Espejo district. The institution where I work attends to learners from pre-kindergarten to twelfth grade, with two grades per level, estimating approximately 1,000 learners going to this school. The young learners selected in this study had the total representativeness of the second-grade level, being classified in second grade 'A' and 'B', respectively.

In terms of accessible population, second grade 'A' considered a total of 27 learners (18 boys and 9 girls); whereas in second grade 'B', there were 25 students (20 boys and 5 girls), resulting in 52 learners as the representative sample of the current study. The uneven distribution of learners when comparing both grades came after the evaluation process. Here, 23 participants were excluded from the investigation (11 learners from group A; 12 students from group B) on the basis that they did not send any task evidence through e-mail. The selected sample contained learners aged between 7 and 8 years old, grouped in both control (grade A) and experimental (grade B). It is proper to note in passing that I only knew and taught grade B a year ago, whilst the students from grade A were entirely new for me.

For Gliner et al. (2017), the sampling design alludes to the procedure in which the sample is selected; researchers can use two techniques: probability and nonprobability (p. 143). The type used in this research corresponds to the latter as I deliberately decided upon second grades among the rest of the levels I taught at that moment. The benefits of using nonprobability sampling in education include the practical analysis of variables, the functional examination of contrasting groups, and economy and

convenience when deciding on a group of participants to be studied. A rather serious disadvantage is the introduction of sampling bias, as “there is no way of estimating the probability that each participant has of being included in the sample” (Gliner et al., 2016, p. 143).

Nonprobability sampling notes several types, yet the one taken was convenience sampling. This sub-category implies choosing members based on convenience or availability instead of thinking beforehand about the sample's arrangement (Gliner et al., 2016, p. 150). The criterion for selecting the participants was that second grades were the oldest group I taught at that time, signifying more accessibility and learners' commitment to performing distance education tasks.

Variables and Measures

Returning to the hypothesis and research questions posed at the beginning of this study, it is now possible to state that learners were exposed to three different variables: the TBLT method, vocabulary learning and speaking skill. Creswell and Creswell (2018) distinguish variables following two characteristics: temporal order and measurement. The author elucidates that temporal order variables may follow another in time, which can eventually affect or predict a second or third variable (p. 93). These variables are categorised into independent and dependent ones and measured using different instruments to analyse their relationship to a particular sample.

For this research, the evidence suggests that the independent variable corresponds to TBLT. Independent variables, also known as treatment or manipulated variables, are controlled by the investigator and applied exclusively to the experimental group. TBLT allowed the treatment group to have a sequence of tasks in the form of a booklet, influencing the two dependent variables over time. These dependent variables coincide with the concepts of vocabulary knowledge and speaking as they depend on the execution and completion of tasks. TBLT was expected to affect the experimental

learners in recognising new words and putting them into oral practice after language input was presented through monthly booklets and recorded video capsules I sent. These capsules supported the mentioned group in modelling the English language, intending to fill the face-to-face gap caused by the pandemic.

As for scales of measurement, the independent variable contemplated tasks that included vocabulary understanding and an oral presentation intended to assess the students' oral production using the vocabulary studied. The dependent variables were measured using a pretest, treatments and a posttest through diverse rubrics, attempting to examine variations in both groups regarding their remote target language development.

Data Collection Instruments

In educational research, investigators traditionally use standardised data collection instruments, such as questionnaires, interviews, tests and surveys, or data elicitation techniques including observations and focus groups, to know the students' understanding of particular contents. The first aspect to consider is that I adapted all instruments from the Cambridge University Press textbook "Guess What! 2", given the complexity to find already standardised tasks in the remote learning pandemic context. The instruments applied in this study consisted of tests, treatments and a survey for parents. These are chronologically detailed the moment they were administered in the examination:

Pretest

Prior to commencing the examination, I administered a pretest to assess the control and experimental groups' elementary vocabulary knowledge through oral production. The learners received

this instrument attached in the first booklet, where they followed a specific guideline to present orally. The instructions specified that students presented personal information, such as their names, ages, mood, pet's name or preferred animals, favourite colours and pastimes. Similarly, I instructed students to incorporate phrases of greeting and goodbye in their speech.

Parents were told to record their children using mobile phones while presenting the mentioned statements, limiting the time to a minute as maximum. To help students remember some of the answers, I attached a reminder note, enclosed following the pretest instructions, addressing some accuracy and pronunciation tips to avoid anxiety or tension among learners. Regarding the presentation videos, I requested parents not to edit, cut or modify the learners' recordings, favouring a natural speech production. Parents then sent these videos to me via e-mail and waited for feedback on their children's oral performance and vocabulary knowledge.

Though pronunciation was not crucial in this investigation, parents asked me to introduce phonetics notes next to the phrases to be used so that they would feel comfortable when teaching and guiding their children towards a successful presentation. Finally, both groups of students were evaluated according to a rubric, measuring vocabulary and speaking accuracy. The student's speech's accuracy was reflected in their awareness of connecting sentences and expressing them without problems.

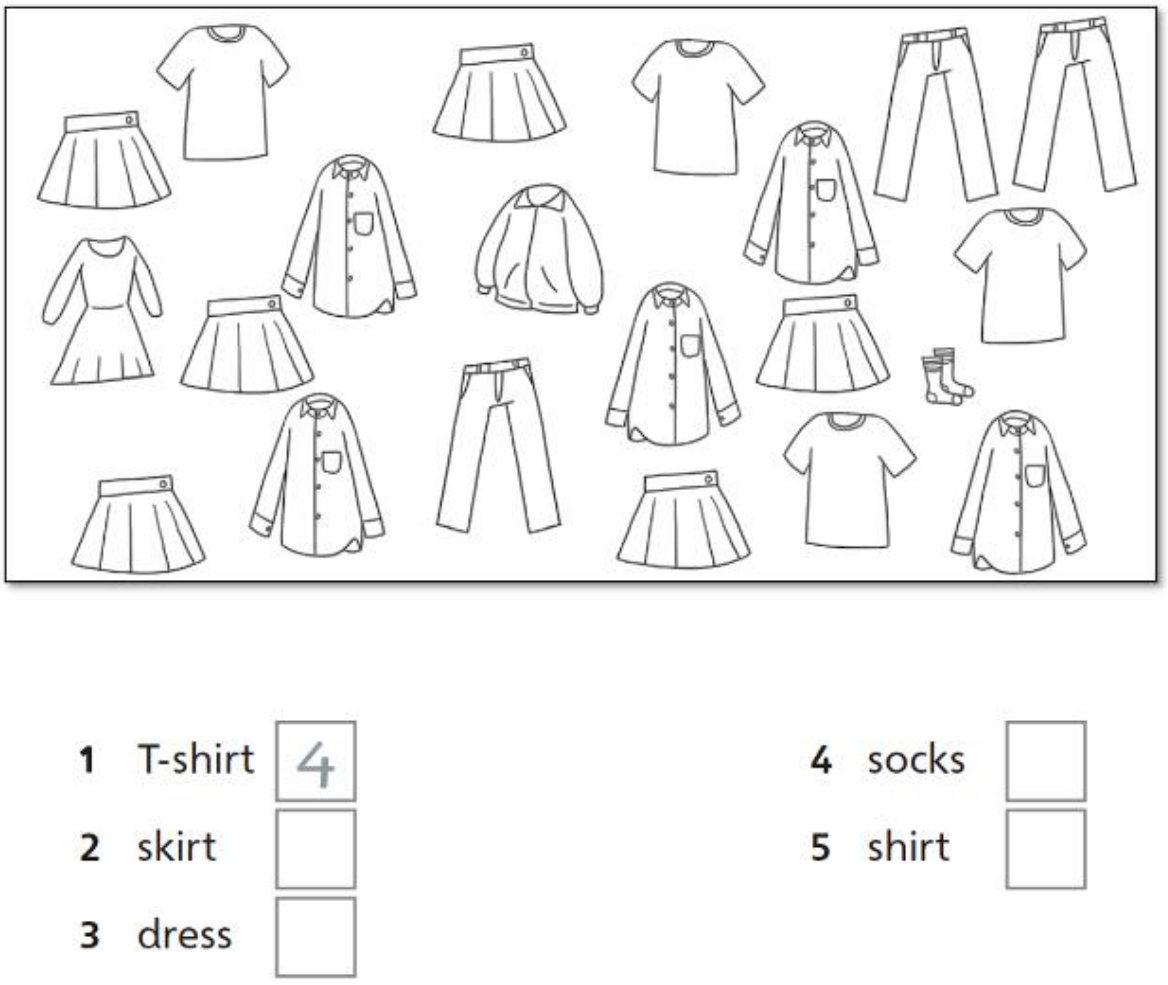
Treatment 1

This instrument was enclosed in the first booklet as well but included specific vocabulary related to clothes. The treatment group was exposed to nine new clothing words: trousers, dress, jacket, shirt, shoes, skirt, socks, jeans and a T-shirt. It is essential to indicate that the control group also reviewed these words, yet with no exposure to tasks performance and non-existing oral activities. The

experimental students completed diverse tasks related to the words above, expressly grouping, counting, colouring, identifying, and presenting clothing vocabulary. These tasks are presented below:

Figure 3

Grouping and Counting Clothes Vocabulary



Note. Figure 3 represents the first task involved in Treatment 1. Here, experimental learners were asked to identify the picture with their respective written form, count and group each image, and write the total number in the squares provided. Once students performed this task, they were instructed to check the learning capsule previously sent, asking them to colour each picture accordingly. The task was taken from "Guess What! – Activity Book 2" by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, Digital Section.

Figure 4

Identifying and Colouring Clothes Vocabulary

1 Colour the shoes black.
2 Colour the trousers green.
3 Colour the jacket yellow.
4 Colour the T-shirt purple.
5 Colour the jeans blue.
6 Colour the skirt orange.
7 Colour the shirt red.
8 Colour the socks blue.
9 Colour the dress pink.

Note. The figure above corresponds to the second task enclosed in Treatment 1. Students were instructed to recognise the pictures and colour them as the chart indicates. Before colouring, learners were asked to write down the concepts next to the images in the spaces provided. The task was taken from "Guess What! – Activity Book 2" by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, p. 30.

After completing the two previous activities, the third task involved speaking, and learners had to present and describe orally the pieces of clothes they wore at that moment. They mentioned their colours and followed the prompt: "I am wearing", in 45 seconds as maximum. Again, parents recorded the students' presentations and sent photos of the first and second task, respectively.

Treatment 1 focused entirely on vocabulary and oral production, so the experimental group was assessed to determine whether the earlier words' understanding improved their speaking as an end-product. Along with the implementation of this treatment, I prepared a capsule, formerly stated in the description of Figure 3, that reviewed vocabulary and trained learners' speaking through drillings.

Evaluation of Progress

This instrument was enclosed at the end of the first booklet and sought to compare both groups' vocabulary understanding and reflect upon whether TBLT allowed students to learn the clothes words in a short period. The tasks involved in the present instrument are depicted below:

Figure 5

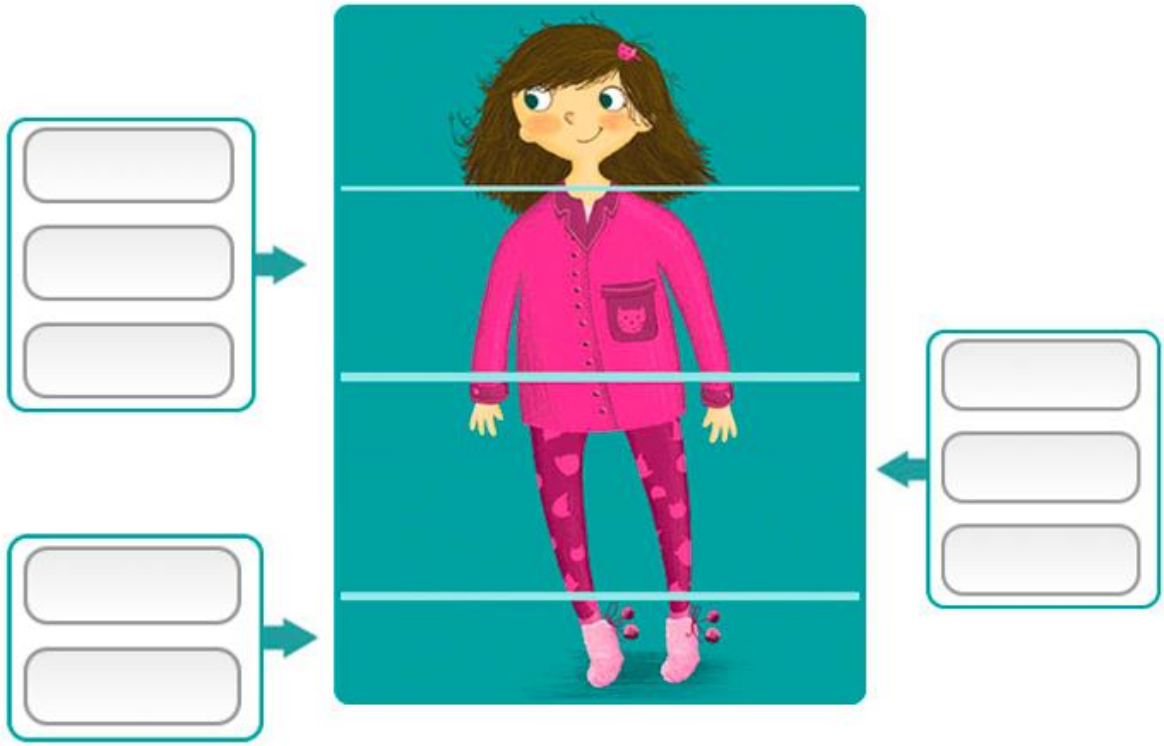
Discriminating Clothes Vocabulary from a Group

1 I'm wearing a skirt , a T-shirt and shoes .
2 I'm wearing _____ , _____ and _____ .
3 I'm wearing _____ , _____ and _____ .
4 I'm wearing _____ , _____ and _____ .

Note. When performing the task in Figure 5, the groups had to recognise the vocabulary inside the charts and write their names paying attention to the numbers and sentences below. The task was taken from "Guess What! – Activity Book 2" by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, p. 32.

Figure 6

Associating Clothes Vocabulary with Body Parts



Note. In Figure 6, the task showed a girl in pyjamas with eight charts distributed all over her body. Here, students were instructed to identify the vocabulary and write down the words according to the girls' upper and lower body. The task was taken from “Guess What! – Activity Book 2” by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, p. 31.

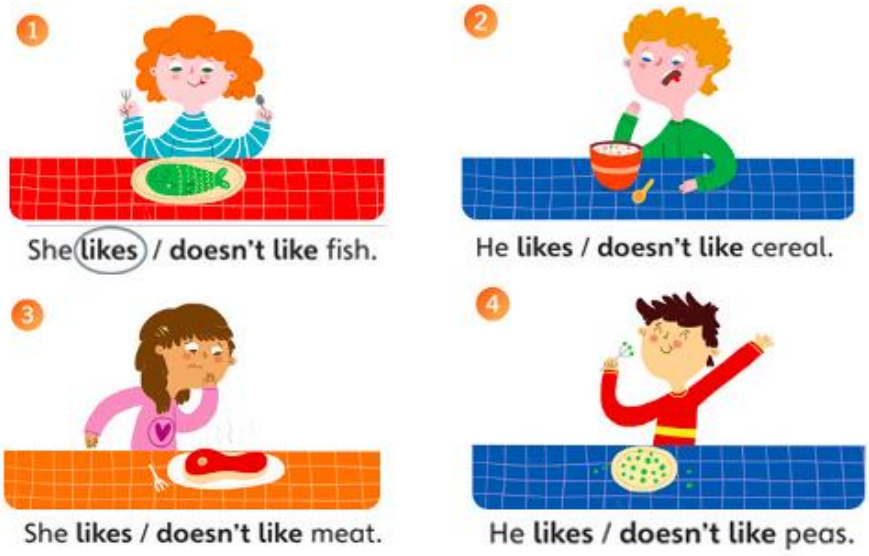
Once again, parents took photos of these tasks, sent them through e-mail, and waited for the students' feedback and grading. The school determined this booklet would be graded so as to have an official record of the learners' process in all their subjects, resulting in the conclusion of the first booklet. As formerly stated, when the experimental group reviewed the clothing words, the control learners did as well, yet with short and isolated activities to use the necessary input to accomplish their assignments. Similarly, the control learners did not practise oral production tasks, focusing on little input and vocabulary retention.

Treatment 2

This instrument was attached to the second booklet and concentrated on meals vocabulary. The experimental group was exposed to ten new words related to food: toasts, cereal, rice, fish, peas, carrots, potatoes, meat, sausages and beans. Likewise, I comprised grammar functions such as likes and dislikes, encouraging learners to describe their preferences regarding the concepts above. It is relevant to state here that the control group also learnt these words and grammar patterns; however, lacking exposure to tasks and missing oral performance activities. The tasks attached in this instrument are illustrated as follows:

Figure 7

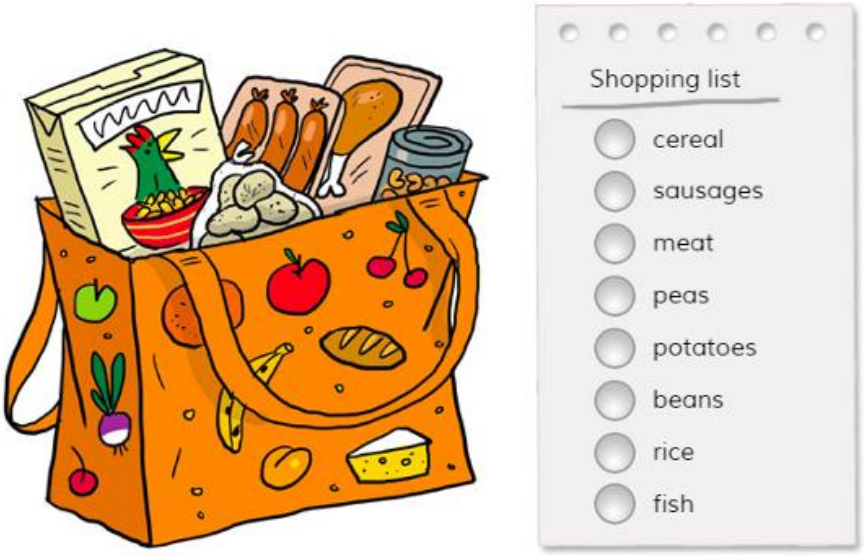
Likes and Dislikes



Note. The figure above exemplifies the grammar function in the second booklet. The experimental learners were asked to identify the vocabulary and recognise the boys' and girls' facial expressions to determine their meals' preferences by circling the correct answer. The task was taken from "Guess What! – Activity Book 2" by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, p. 50.

Figure 8

Finding Food Vocabulary



Note. In Figure 8, the experimental group was instructed to identify the food inside the bag and find them in the shopping list beside. Learners were asked to colour the dots green if they could match the food illustration with the written form; however, they had to colour the dots red if the matching was impossible. The task was taken from "Guess What! – Pupil's Book 2" by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, p. 61.

Treatment 2 focused on vocabulary learning for the experimental group, which allowed students to put vocabulary into practice and be prepared for the upcoming final test. Exactly as accompanied in Treatment 1, I designed a learning capsule that guided students to learn the words dynamically and understand the prompt: "I like/do not like". Parents and their children had access to this capsule by browsing the school website and using it as much as they wanted. Last, parents were requested to take photos of the tasks and send them through e-mail.

Posttest

To conclude the investigation, I tested both groups' vocabulary learning and speaking, focusing on the previous food wordlist. This final instrument was enclosed after Treatment 2 in the second booklet and comprised two main sections: a written and oral presentation. The written part addressed three sections where control and experimental students identified, filled in the gaps, and matched the target vocabulary, as depicted below:

Figure 9

Recognising Meals Preferences

Note. In Figure 9, the groups had to read some instructions that stated the children's preferences concerning the food on the table. The students had to draw a happy or sad face concerning the children's preference and then trace the line matching the people with the vocabulary. The task was taken from “Guess What! – Activity Book 2” by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, p. 50.

Figure 10

Identifying Meals Vocabulary

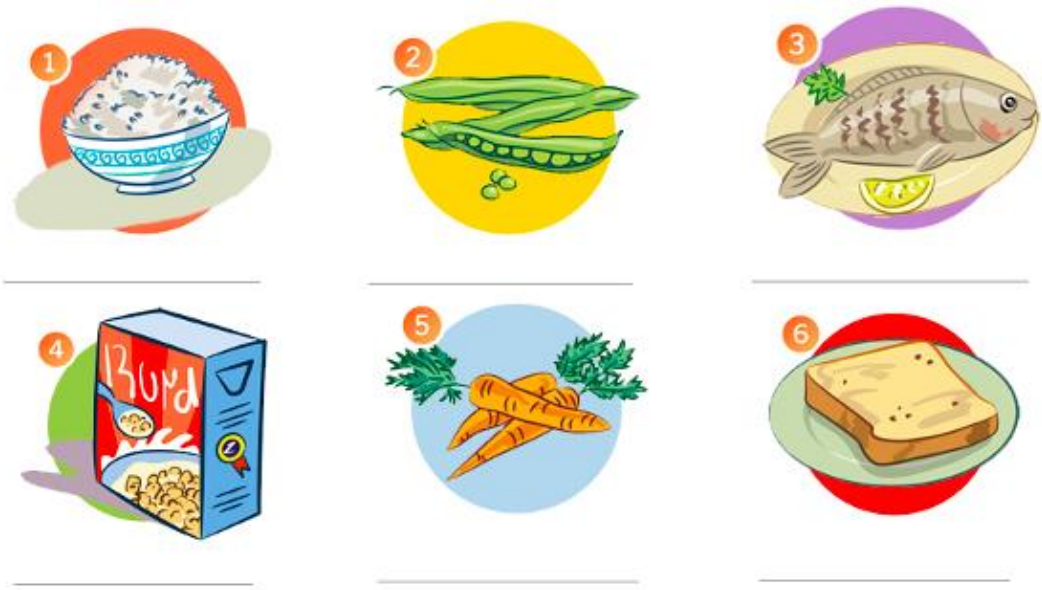
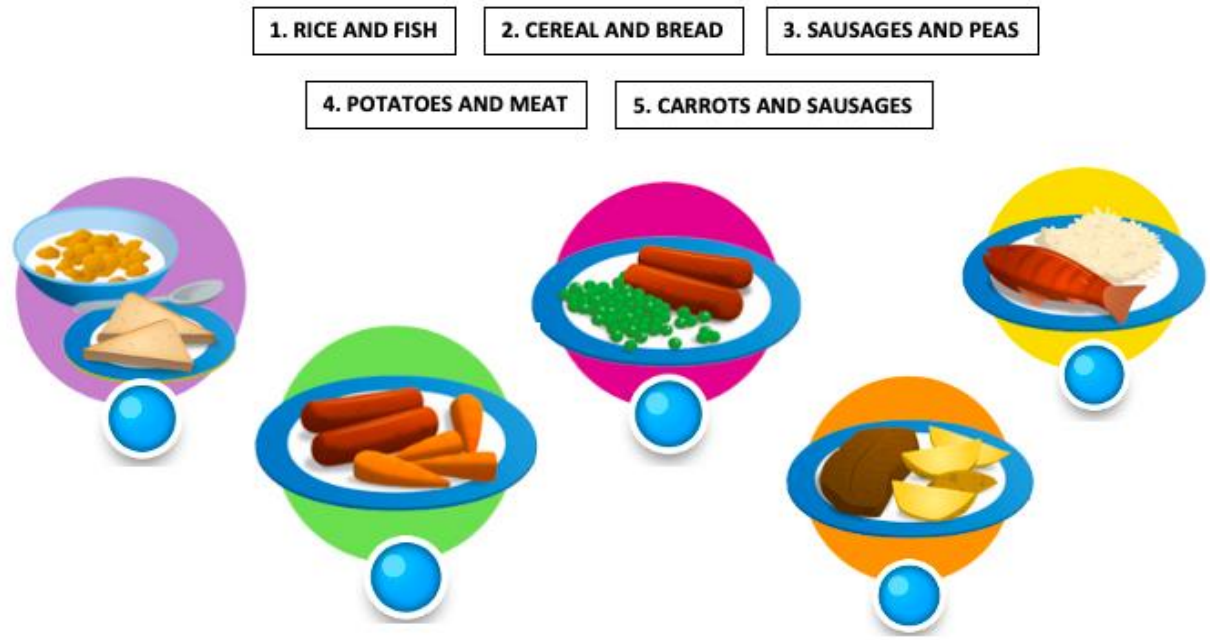


Figure 11

Matching Meals Vocabulary



Note. As portrayed in Figure 10, both groups had to identify the meal concept and write their names in the spaced provided. On the other hand, Figure 11 depicts a matching task in which students were instructed to associate the written concept with the illustration below. The tasks were taken from "Guess What! – Activity Book 2" by S. Rivers, 2015, *Cambridge University Press*, p. 48 and Digital Section.

The speaking section covered a guideline for learners to execute the phrase: "I like/do not like" using food vocabulary. Here, the instructions stated that learners chose three foodstuffs from home they liked and three they did not. Once learners selected the food, parents recorded them presenting the vocabulary and expressing their likes and dislikes on the topic.

Parents again took photos of the first section of the posttest and sent them through e-mail along with the recordings. I provided learners and their parents with distinctive comments when replying to these e-mails, highlighting their consistency and dedication every time they sent the assignments. The school also wanted this second booklet graded, so parents received their children's marks afterwards.

Survey to Parents

When giving the comments mentioned earlier via e-mail, I attached a non-compulsory little survey to parents consisting of six questions. These inquiries asked parents about their perceptions of the students' tasks involvement and the activities' suitability in the pandemic context. The six questions were scaled from 1 to 7, in which the former conveyed low and the latter good scoring.

To answer this survey, parents selected their preferences by typing a cross (X) in each question's corresponding number. Indeed, I did not want to include specific terms for each option, such as a Likert scale, since parents considerably struggled when replying to e-mails. As a result, I designed and adapted this survey for parents to answer simply by just determining a number and putting a cross on it.

Research Procedures

For the sake of clarity, the present section has been organised into three main parts. The first section deals with the rationale before the investigation. The paper then moves to the steps taken during the examination and concludes with the actions performed when the study finished.

Before the Investigation

The rationale behind the selection of TBLT as the central approach in the current study was determined primarily because the school where I work focused on booklets rather than online sessions when teaching contents. Before planning the tasks, I thought of vocabulary as the predominant language focus in the activities, as lexicon constitute a fundamental aspect of learning an L2. Even though students were expected to acquire new words, I believed it was insufficient to measure and analyse a particular impact at the end of the study, so I decided to complement vocabulary with oral production. As the research participants were in second grade, the only skill available to be working on was speaking since they did not master the reading and writing skills yet, not even in their mother tongue. On the other hand, working on listening involves educators' constant presence in the class along with technological devices to play the recordings, unlikely to occur in these pandemic conditions.

During the Investigation

After deciding upon TBLT, vocabulary learning and speaking, the learners worked with two booklets in a period of eight weeks reviewing clothes and meals vocabulary. In the first week, the control and experimental groups were administered an oral pretest to examine their elementary

vocabulary knowledge and speaking level. By the second week, I introduced and exposed students to clothes input as the first booklet's main content. The experimental group focused on tasks about classifying and enumerating some clothing. In the third week, the same group identified and coloured the target vocabulary following specific instructions. In addition, I applied Treatment 1, asking learners to prepare and present a video describing the clothing they wore. The following week, I administered the evaluation of progress test to both groups to verify whether tasks affected the experimental group.

On completion of the first booklet, the process was repeated with another booklet, including meals words. The second booklet also lasted four weeks, yet with shorter tasks and two autonomous work weeks. The school instructed teachers to reduce the number of activities in order to prevent parents and students from feeling overwhelmed by the end of the semester. In weeks five and six, learners were acquainted with food vocabulary, through which the experimental group was exposed to tasks regarding recognising likes and dislikes and matching food. In these weeks, Treatment 2 was applied to this group consisting mainly of the identification of vocabulary. The final two weeks considered the posttest administration to the two groups of learners, including the written and oral sections, to see if their vocabulary retention and speaking accuracy improved during the process.

Shortly after the learners sent their assignments and were given feedback about their outcomes, I forwarded an e-mail to parents asking for their collaboration to answer a survey. Few parents responded to the survey, which allowed me to collect information regarding the clarity of instructions, whether tasks were more challenging than feasible, and other inquiries.

After the Investigation

Finally, the obtained data from tests and treatments were collected with rubrics and eventually examined to cross-check if there was any impact on the students' vocabulary and speaking during the

investigation. The survey previously stated that parents responded, allowed me to have a global perspective of the learners' remote progress and parents' appraisal of the distance learning tasks.

The analysis of results was done by identifying and comparing instruments as follows:

1) The control and experimental groups' pretest results were statistically analysed to check their initial level in the investigation by having percentages in the two groups.
2) The experimental group's Treatment 1 was also statistically examined to corroborate whether students were familiarised with the new vocabulary and oral production performance.
3) Both groups' evaluation of progress scoring was measured and analysed to confirm any vocabulary improvement.
4) Treatment 2 results were compared with the scoring obtained early in Treatment 1.
5) Both groups' posttest scores were contrasted with the results attained in the pretest.
6) The parents' survey answers were averaged at the end, aiming to know their appraisal of tasks comparing parents from both groups of students.
7) Conclusions were drawn in terms of vocabulary learning and speaking accuracy level achievement through distance learning tasks. Averages from both groups were revealed in detail using different tables and figures illustrated in the analysis chapter.

Validity and Reliability

These terms are imperative when designing effective research so researchers can authenticate the measurements of their investigation. The first part of this section addresses the meaning of validity and its respective type for quantitative procedures followed in this examination. On the other hand, reliability covers the second fragment, anticipating a definition and proper classification regarding this study's development.

As reported by Cohen et al. (2018), validity refers to a demonstration in which an instrument measures “what it intends, purports or claims to measure”, giving data collection instruments a clear theoretical construct in research contexts (p. 245). Considering the vast number of validity types found in the research field, I selected only two that fulfilled the current study's purposes: face and internal validity.

In face validity, the learners' past experiences in the classroom go hand in hand with the investigation instruments. In this research, I prepared some learning capsules that exposed the experimental students to vocabulary and speaking, familiarising the group with contents and task instructions as if they were given inside the classroom. Face validity is then represented using capsules, exposing the treatment group to contents and addressing language functions in distance education.

Internal validity hints at independent and dependent variables and how these affect the study's results. Furthermore, this type of validity embraces the comparison of groups based on treatments (Gass & Mackey, 2016, pp. 160-161). As previously indicated, this research contemplates an independent variable (TBLT) and two dependent ones (vocabulary and speaking), which were analysed continuously to see language target variations in the control and experimental groups. With respect to results, vocabulary and speaking were assessed through rubrics, previously validated by an expert in research methods, to analyse the learners' language performance over time.

The term reliability appears in methodology under several alternative labels; however, I adopted Gass and Mackey's (2016) definition and explanation. In research contexts, conforming these authors, reliability symbolises instruments' consistency (p. 180). For instance, by determining this consistency on a singular instrument (test), the participant taking it is expected to have identical scoring even when administered twice, thus indicating the instrument to be reliable for collecting that person's evidence. Gass and Mackey acknowledge three types of reliability for testing, being the equivalence of forms, the one I selected for this investigation.

When choosing the equivalence of forms, I decided to pretest and posttest the students, compare their results and analyse their performance in the whole process. These tests were administered at the beginning and end of the investigation, maintaining the same difficulty in the two versions. In terms of difficulty levels, Gass and Mackey (2016) encourage researchers to design these tests with the same degree of complexity, given that if designed unbalanced, results would be "artificially high or artificially low" (p. 182).

This chapter provided an overview concerning the pandemic scenario, labelling it as the major drawback while conducting the research. Notwithstanding such a considerable limitation, the implementation of TBLT, accompanied by vocabulary and speaking, was still conceivable in distance education among socially vulnerable students. Likewise, I traced the development of varied data collection instruments affecting the sample, assessing the independent and dependent variables during the eight weeks the groups were studied. The research procedures were adapted from the action research design and conducted following the quantitative method, executing the frameworks proposed by Bryman, Swann, and Tomal, respectively. Ultimately, the design of tasks and recorded capsules, the measurements of variables, and the administration of instruments and rubrics were regulated under the validity and reliability concepts.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Analysis and Results

Extensive empirical data was gathered once the instruments previously detailed were administered to the sample. The respondents' tests, treatments, and survey were carefully analysed and given their corresponding results afterwards to compare students from both groups' target language performance. This chapter begins by indicating the criteria of analysis chosen and its respective justification. It will then go on to the analysis and results of every instrument, concluding with the comparison of both groups' outcomes throughout the investigation.

Criteria of Analysis

Quantitatively measured, the control and experimental learners' data was examined following the descriptive analysis. To quote Dynarski et al. (2017), “the goal of descriptive analysis is not deep understanding of personal perspectives of a phenomenon, but a more general understanding of patterns across a population of interest”, in other words, “data simplification” (p. 1). By its simple form, Gass and Mackey (2016) assert that information in the descriptive analysis is not revealing; thus, it is necessary to organise and describe it to present the findings properly (p. 293).

Within the descriptive analysis, I selected the measure of frequency technique, which Chambliss and Schutt (2010) define as “the notion of the numeral display that shows the number of cases, and usually the percentage (relative frequencies) corresponding to each value or groups of values of a variable” (p. 161). As Gass and Mackey (2016) maintain, the common practice to represent a frequency sample is in a table format, yet there are other alternatives. Besides tables, frequencies may also be depicted graphically, namely in the forms of histograms, bar graphs, or frequency polygons (p. 293).

In terms of analysis criteria, tests and treatments were examined concerning the learners' results in the vocabulary and speaking sections. The evidence is presented by the scoring obtained in these parts and percentages of achievement in the two groups' performance. About the survey, the parents' responses are also portrayed by means of percentages in relation to their tasks-preferences on the already stated scale of 1 to 7. Next, the results in the different instruments are illustrated as follows:

Pretest Analysis and Results

In the first week of October, the pretest instrument was given to both groups and consisted mainly of oral production and elementary vocabulary awareness. This test considered a total of 12 points, four regarding vocabulary and eight assigned to speaking. Learners were assessed using a particular rubric (see Appendix 1) that included the concept of accuracy in the oral production category. The control and experimental students' results are depicted below:

Table 1

Pretest Results

	Control Group *n* = 27		Experimental Group *n* = 25	
Test Focus	*Obtained Score*	*Approval Percentage*	*Obtained Score*	*Approval Percentage*
Vocabulary	89/108	82%	88/100	88%
Speaking	165/216	76%	163/200	82%
Total	254/324	78%	251/300	84%

As Table 1 indicates, both groups' elemental vocabulary use was somewhat equivalent, in which the control learners achieved 82%; whilst the experimental students attained 88%. Regarding the speaking performance, the control obtained 76% and the experimental 82%, outperforming the former

group in both language functions covered on the test. The final result depicted the control group a couple of percentage points below with 78% compared to the experimental group who scored 84%. It is proper to note that the uneven distribution of both groups' vocabulary and speaking test scoring was produced when excluding the participants for not sending task completion evidence. Indeed, as explained in the methodology chapter, the two groups did not have the same number of students for such reason, repeating this inconsistency whenever these groups involve comparing their results.

Treatment 1 Analysis and Results

Two weeks after the pretest, the experimental group was told to perform Treatment 1, which covered vocabulary on clothes and oral presentation describing these new words. Treatment 1 aimed at 12 points, being four assigned to vocabulary and eight to the speaking part. Students were evaluated with a rubric (see Appendix 2) that comprised accuracy in the oral production component. The table below illustrates the experimental group's results in their first treatment:

Table 2

Treatment 1 Results

	Experimental Group *n* = 25	
Test Focus	*Obtained Score*	*Approval Percentage*
Vocabulary	79/100	79%
Speaking	148/200	74%
Total	227/300	76%

Table 2 shows closely related results in vocabulary and speaking among experimental learners. These students reached 79% in vocabulary, whereas in the oral presentation, they accomplished 74%.

When analysing the final result in both language functions, the group managed 76% of vocabulary learning and speaking performance approval.

Evaluation of Progress Analysis and Results

This instrument was instructed to be completed in the fourth week of October. The test only dealt with clothes vocabulary, scoring eight points involving vocabulary range and instructions identification with four points each, according to the rubric's structure (see Appendix 3). As for results, the following table reveals both groups' vocabulary outcome:

Table 3

Evaluation of Progress Results

	Control Group *n* = 27		Experimental Group *n* = 25	
Test Focus	*Obtained Score*	*Approval Percentage*	*Obtained Score*	*Approval Percentage*
Vocabulary	166/216	77%	161/200	81%

The table above displays slightly close results when comparing the two groups. The control students attained 77%, while the experimental learners obtained 81% in recognising clothing vocabulary. It is relevant to mention that the experimental group was already exposed to the first treatment at this stage, which covered the same lexicon presented in the evaluation of progress instrument.

Treatment 2 Analysis and Results

With the second booklet implementation, in weeks 4 and 5 correspondingly, experimental learners were exposed to Treatment 2, which focused on meals vocabulary and grammar patterns, including likes and dislikes sentences. This treatment comprehended a total of eight points, distributed in vocabulary range and identification of instructions with four points each, being later assessed with a specific rubric (see Appendix 4). Next, the experimental group's results:

Table 4

Treatment 2 Results

	Experimental Group *n* = 25	
Test Focus	*Obtained Score*	*Approval Percentage*
Vocabulary	175/200	88%

As Table 4 depicts, most experimental learners identified the meals vocabulary with 88% after the second treatment exposure, recognising nearly all the last booklet's wordlist.

Posttest Analysis and Results

In the final two weeks of the investigation, control and experimental learners were administered the posttest. This last evaluation included a total of 12 points, four to vocabulary and eight to speaking. Both groups were measured using a particular rubric (see Appendix 5) that included the concept of accuracy in the oral production category. The findings are detailed as follows:

Table 5

Posttest Results

Test Focus	Control Group *n* = 27		Experimental Group *n* = 25	
	Obtained Score	*Approval Percentage*	*Obtained Score*	*Approval Percentage*
Vocabulary	89/108	82%	88/100	88%
Speaking	163/216	75%	163/200	82%
Total	252/324	78%	268/300	89%

From the data in Table 5, it is apparent that the experimental group surpassed the control one in all the sections covered on the posttest. As for vocabulary learning, the control learners scored 82%, whilst the experimental students achieved 88%. The speaking performance results were not entirely different; the control group obtained 75% and the experimental 82%. The conclusive findings revealed that the learners from the control attained 78% compared to the experimental students who accomplished 89%.

Survey Analysis and Results

The survey included six questions (see Appendix 6), in which parents were asked to scale them from 1 to 7. The former numeral represented a low scoring, whereas the latter conveyed the higher result from the grading scale. Although the selected sample consisted of 52 students classified into two groups, only 20 of their parents responded to the survey. Given that not many answered it, I determined to label this instrument as optional since it did not have the whole sample's total representativeness. The six statements are depicted next and symbolised with a letter (A-F) to appreciate the tables that follow in a better way:

A) The activities were appropriate for the distance-learning context.

B) The written tasks were easy to do as the vocabulary was simple to learn and put into practice.

C) The oral tasks were easy to perform as the vocabulary was simple to learn and put into practice.

D) The learning capsules were helpful for the students' understanding, allowing an improvement in their results.

E) The activities in both working booklets 4 and 5 helped learners to enhance their autonomy level at home.

F) Are you satisfied with what your child achieved during this process?

For the sake of clarity, the parents' results obtained in the groups were organised into two distinctive tables, as they incorporated extensive numeric evidence. The implications of these results will be detailed in the following chapter.

Table 6

Survey Results - Control Group Parents

	Control Group Parents *n* = 9						
Questions	Grading Scale						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	–	–	–	–	33%	11%	56%
B	–	–	–	12%	–	44%	44%
C	–	–	–	–	22%	22%	56%
D	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
E	–	–	–	11%	11%	45%	33%
F	–	–	–	–	11%	–	89%

As Table 6 conveys, question A was measured from 5 to 7. Here, five parents selected the maximum score (56%), one of them chose 6 (11%), and the three remaining preferred 5 (33%) in the

grading scale. In question B, four parents chose 7 (44%), and four picked 6 (44%), while one of the parents decided on 4 (12%). Concerning question C, five parents nominated 7 (56%), two selected 6 (22%) and the remaining two established 5 (22%) as their preferred choice. Moving to question D, parents were asked not to respond to it, as the statement referred to learning capsules, and the control group was not exposed to these. As for question E, the results showed diversity when parents decided on an answer. Three of them chose the maximum grade (33%), four chose 6 (45%), one selected 5 (11%) and the other one designated 4 (11%). In the last question, parents deliberately preferred 7 (89%), while one picked 5 (11%).

Table 7

Survey Results - Experimental Group Parents

	Experimental Group Parents *n* = 11						
Questions	Grading Scale						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	–	–	–	–	–	9%	91%
B	–	–	–	–	–	18%	82%
C	–	–	–	–	–	36%	64%
D	–	–	–	–	–	–	100%
E	–	–	–	–	19%	36%	45%
F	–	–	–	–	–	9%	91%

In Table 7, the findings are pretty revealing because parents selected their preferences from 5 onwards, unlike Table 6, which considered lower results. Regarding the first question, ten parents decided on 7 (91%), and one selected 6 (9%). In question B, nine parents chose 7 (82%), and two preferred 6 (18%). As for question C, seven parents determined 7 (64%) as their predilect choice, while four selected 6 (36%). The results in question D were unanimously given to 7 (100%). When responding

to question E, two parents chose 5 for the first time on the grading scale (19%), four decided on 6 (36%), and 5 selected the maximum score (45%). Most parents opted for 7 (91%) as their preferred alternative in the last question, whilst one favoured 6 (9%).

Considering the results obtained in each instrument, their corresponding analysis, and the evidence shown in the respective tables, I will now discuss the findings and present deductive arguments to accomplish this study. The succeeding chapter addresses the results' interpretation, attempting to determine whether TBLT influenced vocabulary learning and speaking on the experimental students when performing the tasks.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Discussion

Unquestionably, the remote learning pandemic environment, the lack of interaction between students when learning a second language, and the absence of technological devices to support possible online lessons were identified as the main problems in this study's realisation. In order to overcome these obstacles, I formulated some research questions that satisfactory outlined and guided the present research into the implementation of TBLT, vocabulary and speaking among the experimental learners. The questions posed at the beginning of the paper are tackled and answered below:

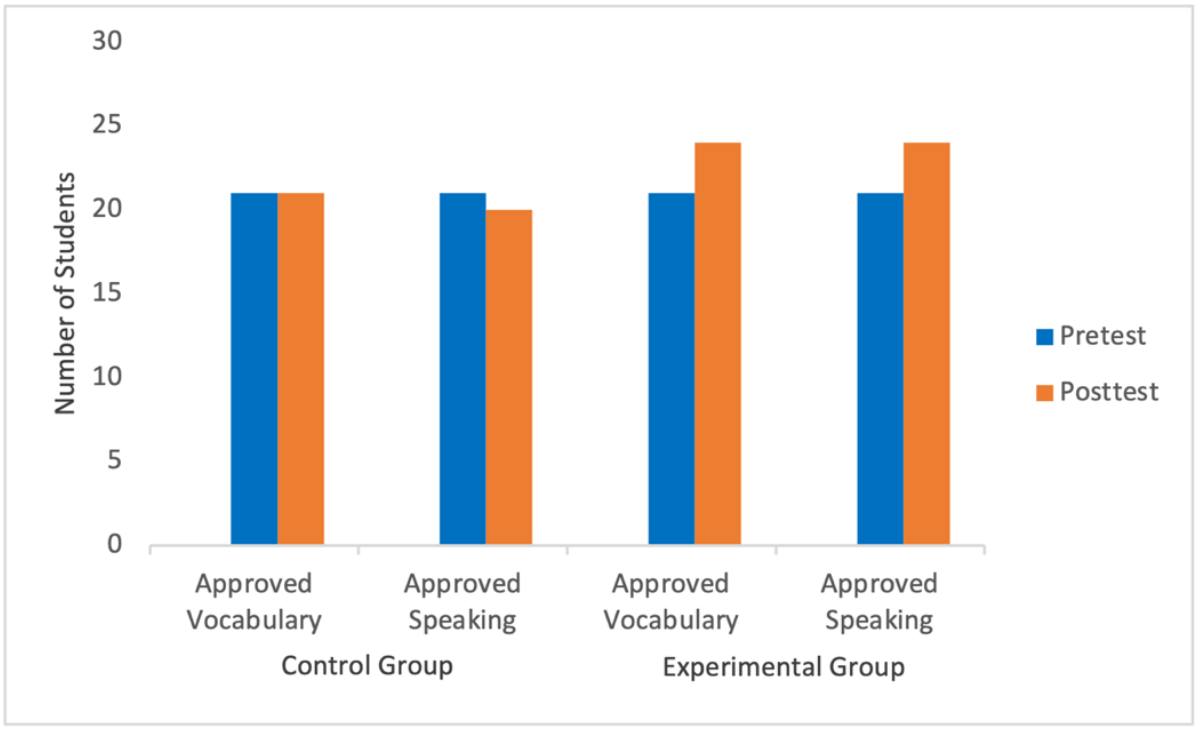
According to the first enquiry regarding the significant effect on the students' vocabulary when using TBLT compared to those not using it, the results demonstrated two things. First, there were no meaningful outcomes when contrasting the two groups, given that experimental students slightly increased their vocabulary learning after the posttest administration. Second, the control learners remained consistent during the investigation, not altering their vocabulary results when the pretest and posttest were applied.

The second research question focused on to what extent speaking was developed through TBLT as an end product. The findings were equal compared to the first question's results as no significant improvement was achieved either. Experimental students were only exposed to one treatment involving speaking, specifically Treatment 1, indicating an unsuccessful attempt to promote speaking as an end product. By contrast, control students did not have speaking tasks during the study; however, their oral performance was not inferior compared to the other group when the examination finished, only having difficulties with sentences construction in terms of accuracy. From the results obtained in the posttest by the experimental group, it is clear that the more vocabulary the group learnt and retained, the more comfortable the group presented the contents in the videos. If the investigation had lasted a semester or a year, the speaking performance would have been considerably different and perhaps labelled as an

end product success among the young learners tested in this study. The previous observations about the groups' results in vocabulary and speaking are represented in the following figure:

Figure 12

The contrast between Pretest and Posttest



When looking at Figure 12, a minor change is appreciated in both groups' language performance results, as earlier stated. The control learners continued to have similar results during the whole investigation compared to the experimental students, who moderately improved their scores by the end of the examination.

The small gap is even more precise when identifying the number of students who approved and failed the pretest and posttest per group. Regarding the control group, specifically in the pretest vocabulary focus, 21 learners properly managed the basic vocabulary, and six struggled when putting the words in context. In the oral presentation, the same 21 students accurately delivered the speaking skill, whilst the six very same learners mentioned earlier failed at the oral presentation task. The

experimental group pretest did not change that much, given that 21 learners approved the vocabulary section, and four failed at identifying the words. In terms of the speaking part, 21 students presented without problems, whereas four could not produce their ideas correctly.

As for the posttest results, 21 learners achieved the vocabulary part in the control group, and six students failed when recognising certain concepts. When orally presenting the specified vocabulary, 20 learners did it appropriately; however, seven delivered their speech with difficulty. Contrary to the experimental group that considered only one student failing in each category, depicting 24 learners who accurately attained vocabulary and speaking. In consequence, only one student of the total sample passed neither of the two categories.

An important issue associated with the experimental learners' posttest results was the modest improvement of accuracy in the presentation tasks. As an unexpected finding, accuracy was almost accomplished by all group members in contrast to the other group's results. This could be explained by the learning capsules the experimental group was exposed to when doing the tasks. These capsules focused on complex functions, such as pronunciation, pieces of advice when connecting words, and a more concise review of clothes and meals vocabulary. Indeed, the mentioned capsules could have improved the students' speaking performance at the end of the study, allowing learners to feel calm when speaking the L2.

Dealing with the parents' survey, it could reflect that most parents in the experimental group agreed with the questions as they opted for the two maximum scores in almost all the questions, implying a positive reception of the tasks, vocabulary, oral presentations, and learning capsules. As for these capsules, all parents from this group stated these recordings were advantageous in remote lessons since they guided them to strengthen vocabulary and speaking noticeably. Last, when referring to autonomy, the parents' results indicated that the tasks' proper design helped their children's self-sufficiency when working from home. Conversely, parents in the control group averaged most of the

questions with low scores, reflecting a disapproval attitude regarding some procedures. In this group, parents explicitly stated that learning capsules could have aided their children when performing the tasks, as they found the English tasks absolutely challenging. Some of the control students did not understand the contents, causing a feeling of demotivation and detachment from the activities, lacking dynamic ways to review the contents, expressly referring to the learning capsules.

Interestingly, even when the control students did not know my teaching methods as I never had lessons with them, the group could balance their results compared to the experimental learners' who had already been my students the previous year. In this case, executing TBLT in a remote context could signify that the two groups' results were harmonised, indicating that none of them completely fell behind regarding the school contents they were supposed to learn that year. The mentioned discussion implies that TBLT in a distance learning environment could replace the interaction gap only when urgent situations merit, attempting to fulfil any negative outcome when teaching students.

Overall, the findings described in this chapter demonstrate that the paper's hypothesis contradicted the actual results. Even though there were no significant improvements when contrasting the two groups' final scores, there was a slight difference between their performance after being exposed to vocabulary and speaking through tasks. The implementation of TBLT allowed these language components to affect the students' L2 development in a remote context, resulting in a helpful and complete pedagogical approach.

As most studies covered in the theoretical framework chapter encompassed high school students and adult learners in on-site lessons, the execution of TBLT in this investigation involved young learners from a second grade in a distance education setting. The method is characterised by adapting itself regarding the learners' needs and adopting suitable strategies to address any inconvenience. Although the investigations cited in the literature review discussed notable findings by the researchers,

my examination affected the learners to a minor degree and succeeded in a pandemic context, inferring TBLT to work under any complicated scene.

To conclude the chapter, the results obtained throughout my investigation revealed parents' importance in supporting their children when completing the tasks. Unfortunately, in socially vulnerable contexts, students spend most of their time alone or in the company of other relatives after school since parents tend to work all day. The majority of the learners depend exclusively on the teachers to guide them and do their assignments. Nevertheless, in the current pandemic situation, families were forced to be together, favouring students to feel supported and encouraged by their parents to develop the activities properly. Concurrently, the two groups' results in this research would serve as an example whenever another major worldwide drawback emerged in the future, letting educators know that TBLT is a suitable and reasonable method that guides students to learn the school contents in challenging environments.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Conclusion

Assuredly, in Chile, the COVID-19 pandemic has been a serious drawback and particularly challenging for the educational system. Despite TBLT's successful implementation during the research, distance learning and the absence of interaction among students considerably affected the nature of the study, resulting in relevant problems when designing and conducting it. Learners had no choice but to work with the school contents individually from home, given the class suspension order to isolate the population and control the disease.

This study was undertaken to carry out tasks remotely following the TBLT approach and evaluate the control and experimental speaking and vocabulary group performance. Based on quantitative analysis and the administration of pre and posttests, the emerging conclusion is that TBLT had a minor effect on the two previously mentioned language components, favouring the experimental learners to a slight degree. The findings indicate a positive outcome, demonstrating that these students could develop their vocabulary knowledge and oral production from home, yet I expected more notable differences between the two groups.

From my perspective, the whole process was arduous to achieve, given the uncertain scenario to teach students remotely as the Ministry of Education policies and proposals were constantly changing. A sense of fulfilment arose when I finished examining my learners due to the tremendous effort required to design tasks, prepare and record learning capsules, receive students' photos and videos, and administer different data-gathering instruments to conduct this research properly. These methods made me feel enthusiastic principally because the learners could still comprehend the school contents through distance education, attempting to improve their target language skills as much as possible in a limited period. What is more, I considerably appreciated the parents' support as they responsibly sent all the evidence for this study to succeed.

Despite the optimistic claims mentioned earlier, I experienced dissatisfaction after noticing and confirming that both groups scored almost similarly at the end of the investigation. This inevitable little frustration was born once perceiving that TBLT did not significantly boost students' vocabulary and speaking in a remote context; thus, implicating that some adaptations should be made in order to achieve a meaningful outcome in a group of learners. Although the differences between both groups were not significant, TBLT proved to function under stressful conditions and manageable in terms of the necessary adjustments that had to be made to suit the teacher and learners' needs.

The presumed hypothesis for the experimental learners' minimal effect is that their tasks might have not been as challenging as I thought they would be. It is likely that parents helped students more than they should, making tasks to be somewhat easy to complete and causing no instances to develop the learners' autonomy. Considering the remote learning, the context restricted me to plan demanding tasks since I had to prioritise students' motivation to learn the contents and not incur in frustration episodes due to not having mastered the concepts. The latter could perfectly cause the English subject to be avoided by parents, and thus give importance to other subjects, knowing that English is not mandatory in terms of grades up to fifth grade according to the national curriculum.

Further Research

Further investigation should show whether TBLT could be applied with young learners in a face-to-face environment boosting any of the four language skills. Even though there was a minor impact on the experimental students in this study, on-site lessons and interaction among learners should be vital to take the target language development to a higher degree.

When referring back to the minor effect, it is proper to note that the pandemic put students and parents under nerve-racking situations. The 'stress' concept was neither measured nor considered in this

research, affecting learners considerably regarding their learning process. This unknown variable should provide practitioners with a practical insight when applying a pedagogical method through a mandatory distance education caused by any potential disease soon. The previous suggestion reflects that learning is ultimately affected when we are under threat, so we must be in optimal conditions to learn a second language and not in a threatening or dangerous context.

Based on my conclusion, practitioners should only consider focusing on one language component at a time in distance education. In this research, I focused on two important language skills and assessed both simultaneously which led to extensive numerical analysis and minimal effects. Perhaps, by concentrating on one language component first the results could have been quite different and more meaningful when contrasting both groups' performance. In this manner, students could benefit from this proposition knowing beforehand that they are going to be evaluated on one skill first and when such component is satisfactory developed, the following language skill will take place to reinforce the preceding one and corroborate any changes.

Limitations

A number of limitations need to be acknowledged regarding the present investigation, highlighting the evident Coronavirus outbreak as the ultimate hindrance when commencing the study. Together with it, the lack of on-site classes caused an imminent shortage of interaction and group work, forcing learners to do their tasks and practice vocabulary and speaking individually. Also, the absence of technological devices at the students' places triggered a non-existing instance to monitor their development in real-time, generating a sense of detachment between educator and learners. The technology gap brought substantial consequences, which included the lack of observation in terms of the ongoing assessment of the learners' progress and the privation of didactic online tasks. As for the

latter, students were unable to accomplish their tasks using virtual platforms that could have helped them to practice all contents more easily. Last, there was a limitation that became significantly advantageous throughout the examination and corresponded to convenience sampling. Though second grades were the oldest groups I had at that moment, it allowed me to focus on young learners and study their progress when acquiring an L2. In this case, I could provide practitioners and researchers with another perspective when referring to children and the exposure to English as a foreign language.

Personal Contribution

This work contributes to existing knowledge in the TEFL field by postulating tasks as a reliable means to enrich students' language skills. TBLT was highly relevant to fill the face-to-face gap caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, letting students continue learning from their homes despite the country's confinement order. Though the findings should be interpreted with caution, this research has several strengths, including the conceivable development of vocabulary and speaking in distance education. After these language components were examined in the theoretical framework chapter, the paper confirms these cannot only be advanced in on-site lessons but remote contexts as well.

The results add to a growing body of literature on establishing young learners as suitable participants to improve oral production where input is conveyed through a task-based design approach. Indeed, these learners should not be placed aside in TEFL settings, as they substantially contribute to different perspectives when educators teach a foreign language. Finally, the empirical evidence gathered in this study provides a modern understanding concerning TBLT's theory. Being the method first applied nearly 30 years ago, TBLT continues evolving up to date, which personally allowed me to adopt the best strategies for my students to overcome any difficulty when learning the contents in a pandemic scenario, updating my pedagogical skills as well to the needs of a demanding 21st century.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Pretest Rubric

CATEGORY	4	3	2	1	TOTAL
VOCABULARY RANGE	The student has a good range of vocabulary for the activity. They include specific contents and show awareness of the vocabulary by putting it into practice, developing an effective presentation.	The student uses a moderate level of vocabulary with a few irregularities. They refer to the specific contents with occasional minor slips. The student has problems identifying some words.	The student denotes a limited use of vocabulary, causing considerable problems in the speech. The message is hampered due to these difficulties.	The student shows an insufficient vocabulary repertoire. They demonstrate a scant understanding of the words used in the presentation.	
SPEAKING	The student speaks clearly and distinctly all the time (100-90%). They readily express spoken words while presenting.	The student speaks clearly most of the time (90-60%), but with a few mistakes. They evidence some problems to articulate ideas; however, these do not interfere with the development of the presentation.	The student frequently conveys their ideas with difficulty (60-30%). They present numerous issues to connect ideas and produce them orally, making the speech hard to understand.	The student does not succeed in conveying ideas in the whole presentation (30-10%). They are unable to produce simple phrases and give a straightforward description of the topic. The message is hard to understand.	
ACCURACY: COHERENCE	The student always speaks in complete sentences (100-95%). They know how to link words or groups of words using very basic linear prompts.	The student mainly speaks with complete sentences (95%-80%). They have a few problems linking phrases; however, the message is understood.	The student sometimes speaks with complete sentences (80-40%). They show a variety of issues when linking phrases which can interfere with the message.	The student rarely uses complete sentences when speaking (40-10%). The message is consistently interrupted by severe problems when connecting phrases.	

Appendix 2

Treatment 1 Rubric

CATEGORY	4	3	2	1	TOTAL
VOCABULARY RANGE	The student has a good range of vocabulary for the activity. They include specific contents and show awareness of the vocabulary by putting it into practice developing an effective presentation.	The student uses a moderate level of vocabulary with a few irregularities. They refer to the specific contents with occasional minor slips. The student has problems identifying some words.	The student denotes a limited use of vocabulary, causing considerable problems in the speech. The message is hampered due to these difficulties.	The student shows an insufficient vocabulary repertoire. They demonstrate a scant understanding of the words used in the presentation.	
SPEAKING	The student speaks clearly and distinctly all the time (100-90%). They readily express spoken words while presenting.	The student speaks clearly most of the time (90-60%), but with a few mistakes. They evidence some problems to articulate ideas; however, these do not interfere with the development of the presentation.	The student frequently conveys their ideas with difficulty (60-30%). They present numerous issues to connect ideas and produce them orally, making the speech hard to understand.	The student does not succeed in conveying ideas in the whole presentation (30-10%). They are unable to produce simple phrases and give a straightforward description of the topic. The message is hard to understand.	
ACCURACY: COHERENCE	The student always speaks with complete sentences (100-95%). They know how to link words and describe the topic by employing the structure: "I am wearing + clothes + colour" correctly.	The student mainly speaks with complete sentences (95%-80%). They have a few problems when linking and describing the structure: "I am wearing + clothes + colour". However, the message is clearly understood.	The student sometimes speaks with complete sentences (80-40%). They show a variety of issues when using the structure: "I am wearing + clothes + colour", which can interfere with the message.	The student rarely uses complete sentences when speaking (40-10%). The structure: "I am wearing + clothes + colour" is not present in the student's speech. The message is entirely interrupted by severe problems when connecting and describing the topic.	

Appendix 3

Evaluation of Progress Rubric

CATEGORY	4	3	2	1	TOTAL
VOCABULARY RANGE	The student succeds when putting the themed vocabulary into practice. They can identify all of the clothing words in every section of the evaluation.	The student makes some mistakes when recognising the themed vocabulary. As the errors are not considerable, the student can identify the clothing words in most of the sections of the evaluation.	The student demonstrates limited use of the themed vocabulary. Errors are presented in almost all sections of the evaluation.	The student lacks the use of the themed vocabulary. They show a scant understanding of the clothing words, presenting major errors in the whole evaluation.	
IDENTIFICATION OF INSTRUCTIONS	The student clearly identifies the vocabulary to be put into practice in each of the statements.	The student recognises the vocabulary to be put into practice in most of the statements.	The student struggles with the vocabulary to be put into practice in several of the statements.	The student makes several mistakes according to the vocabulary used in all the statements.	

Appendix 4

Treatment 2 Rubric

CATEGORY	4	3	2	1	TOTAL
VOCABULARY RANGE	The student succeds when putting the themed vocabulary into practice. They can identify all of the meals words in every section of the evaluation.	The student makes some mistakes when recognising the themed vocabulary. As the errors are not considerable, the student can identify the meals words in most of the sections of the evaluation.	The student demonstrates limited use of the themed vocabulary. Errors are presented in almost all sections of the evaluation.	The student lacks the use of the themed vocabulary. They show a scant understanding of the meals words, presenting major errors in the whole evaluation.	
IDENTIFICATION OF INSTRUCTIONS	The student clearly identifies the vocabulary to be put into practice in each of the statements.	The student recognises the vocabulary to be put into practice in most of the statements.	The student struggles with the vocabulary to be put into practice in several of the statements.	The student makes several mistakes according to the vocabulary used in all the statements.	

Appendix 5

Posttest Rubric

CATEGORY	4	3	2	1	TOTAL
VOCABULARY RANGE	The student has a good range of themed vocabulary for both the written assignment and oral presentation. They correctly include specific contents such as meals vocabulary, developing an effective presentation and written evaluation.	The student uses a moderate level of vocabulary with a few irregularities. They refer to the specific contents with occasional minor slips. The student has problems identifying some words in the presentation and written evaluation.	The student denotes a limited use of vocabulary in the presentation and written evaluation. Errors are presented in almost all sections of both assessments.	The student lacks the use of the themed vocabulary. They show a scant understanding of the meals words, presenting major errors in both evaluations.	
SPEAKING	The student speaks clearly and distinctly all the time (100-90%). They readily express spoken words while presenting.	The student speaks clearly most of the time (90-60%), but with a few mistakes. They evidence some problems to articulate ideas; however, these do not interfere with the development of the presentation.	The student frequently conveys their ideas with difficulty (60-30%). They present numerous issues to connect ideas and produce them orally, making the speech hard to understand.	The student does succeed in conveying ideas in the whole presentation (30-10%). They are unable to produce simple phrases and give a straightforward description of the topic. The message is hard to understand.	
ACCURACY: COHERENCE	The student always speaks with complete sentences (100-95%). They know how to link words and describe the topic by employing the structure: "I like/don't like + food" correctly.	The student mainly speaks with complete sentences (95%-80%). They have a few problems when linking and describing the structure: "I like/don't like + food". However, the message is clearly understood.	The student sometimes speaks with complete sentences (80-40%). They show a variety of issues when using the structure: "I like/don't like + food", which can interfere with the message.	The student rarely uses complete sentences when speaking (40-10%). The structure: "I like/don't like + food" is not present in the student's speech and written form. The message is entirely interrupted by severe problems when connecting and describing the topic.	

Appendix 6

Survey to Parents

EVALUATION STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a) The activities were appropriate for the distance-learning context.							
b) The written tasks were easy to do as the vocabulary was simple to learn and put into practice.							
c) The oral tasks were easy to perform as the vocabulary was simple to learn and put into practice.							
d) The learning capsules were helpful for the students' understanding, allowing an improvement in their results.							
e) The activities in both working booklets 4 and 5, helped learners to enhance their autonomy level at home.							
f) Are you satisfied with what your child achieved during this process?							

Appendix 7

Instruments Validity

Ref.: Solicitud de validación de
instrumento de investigación

Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación
Facultad de Historia, Geografía y Letras
Departamento de Inglés

Santiago, 17 de diciembre de 2020

Christian Vega Sepúlveda
Departamento de Inglés
Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación
PRESENTE

A través de la presente valido los instrumentos de investigación (rúbricas y encuesta) propuesto para la Tesis de Postgrado "The Effect of Task-based Language Teaching through Distance Education on Young Learners' Vocabulary and Speaking" bajo la supervisión de la Profesora Lery Mejías García.

Atentamente,

_____
Dra. Verónica González Temer
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