

INGLÉS

Raquel LÓPEZ BELOQUI

**INTERACTIVE STORY TELLING
AMONG EFL CHILDREN IN
PRIMARY SCHOOL**

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**Grado en Maestro de Educación Primaria
/
Lehen Hezkuntzako Irakasleen Gradua**

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Preámbulo

El Real Decreto 1393/2007, de 29 de octubre, modificado por el Real Decreto 861/2010, establece en el Capítulo III, dedicado a las enseñanzas oficiales de Grado, que “estas enseñanzas concluirán con la elaboración y defensa de un Trabajo Fin de Grado [...] El Trabajo Fin de Grado tendrá entre 6 y 30 créditos, deberá realizarse en la fase final del plan de estudios y estar orientado a la evaluación de competencias asociadas al título”.

El Grado en Maestro en Educación Primaria por la Universidad Pública de Navarra tiene una extensión de 12 ECTS, según la memoria del título verificada por la ANECA. El título está regido por la *Orden ECI/3857/2007, de 27 de diciembre, por la que se establecen los requisitos para la verificación de los títulos universitarios oficiales que habiliten para el ejercicio de la profesión de Maestro en Educación Primaria*; con la aplicación, con carácter subsidiario, del reglamento de Trabajos Fin de Grado, aprobado por el Consejo de Gobierno de la Universidad el 12 de marzo de 2013.

Todos los planes de estudios de Maestro en Educación Primaria se estructuran, según la Orden ECI/3857/2007, en tres grandes módulos: uno, *de formación básica*, donde se desarrollan los contenidos socio-psico-pedagógicos; otro, *didáctico y disciplinar*, que recoge los contenidos de las disciplinas y su didáctica; y, por último, *Practicum*, donde se describen las competencias que tendrán que adquirir los estudiantes del Grado en las prácticas escolares. En este último módulo, se enmarca el Trabajo Fin de Grado, que debe reflejar la formación adquirida a lo largo de todas las enseñanzas. Finalmente, dado que la Orden ECI/3857/2007 no concreta la distribución de los 240 ECTS necesarios para la obtención del Grado, las universidades tienen la facultad de determinar un número de créditos, estableciendo, en general, asignaturas de carácter optativo.

Así, en cumplimiento de la Orden ECI/3857/2007, es requisito necesario que en el Trabajo Fin de Grado el estudiante demuestre competencias relativas a los módulos de formación básica, didáctico-disciplinar y practicum, exigidas para todos los títulos universitarios oficiales que habiliten para el ejercicio de la profesión de Maestro en Educación Primaria.

En este trabajo, el módulo *de formación básica* nos ha permitido elaborar las bases del marco teórico establecido analizando las características de las diferentes metodologías y adaptándolas al desarrollo evolutivo y psicológico del alumnado de 6º de primaria. De esta manera se ha elaborado una propuesta metodológica con unos objetivos basados en lo establecido con el currículum de educación primaria, así como acorde con las características cognitivas y psicológicas de los alumnos, atendiendo la diversidad, la motivación y los factores afectivos que pueden presentar. En definitiva, el módulo de formación básica está presente a lo largo de la revisión de la literatura y en la descripción específica del estudio realizado.

El módulo *didáctico y disciplinar* se encuentra principalmente en la propuesta pedagógica ofrecida y nos permite enmarcar las competencias, objetivos a trabajar, metodología a seguir y maneras de evaluar el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje, así como la posterior evaluación y discusión de los resultados que han sido obtenidos de la práctica en el aula.

Asimismo, el módulo *practicum* vivenciar de cerca y poner en práctica los contenidos trabajados en la carrera permitiéndonos concretar el diseño de nuestra propuesta pedagógica en el contexto del aula.

Por último, el módulo *optativo*...con la mención de inglés nos ha permitido la elaboración del presente trabajo orientado a la enseñanza del inglés como segunda lengua y específicamente de la producción oral.

Por otro lado, la Orden ECI/3857/2007 establece que al finalizar el Grado, los estudiantes deben haber adquirido el nivel C1 en lengua castellana. Por ello, para demostrar esta competencia lingüística, se redactan también en esta lengua los apartados “INTRODUCCIÓN” y “CONCLUSIONES Y CUESTIONES ABIERTAS”, así como el preceptivo resumen que aparece en el siguiente apartado.

Resumen

Este estudio se basa en la importancia que tienen la producción oral y la interacción en la adquisición de una segunda lengua. Su objetivo principal es determinar la efectividad del aprendizaje basado en tareas. Para ello, se analiza si una tarea de interacción oral con alumnos de diferente nivel genera estrategias de interacción y comunicación y feedback correctivo. Además de esto, se realiza un cuestionario final para valorar la motivación y el impacto afectivo de dicha tarea en los alumnos. La actividad que se ha diseñado consiste en la narración de historias y respeta los principios pedagógicos del aprendizaje basado en tareas. Dicha tarea es implementada por 24 estudiantes de once años, y se analiza en detalle la producción de tres parejas de diferentes niveles (alto, medio y bajo). Los resultados muestran que esta actividad promueve la interacción oral, así como el uso de estrategias comunicativas dependiendo del nivel de competencia. Sin embargo, no influencia la producción de feedback correctivo. Además, vemos que la efectividad también parece depender de factores afectivos. A la luz de los resultados podemos afirmar que es recomendable incorporar el aprendizaje basado en tareas en el aula ya que proporciona oportunidades para utilizar el inglés oral de manera comunicativa, sin embargo, es necesario tener en cuenta los niveles de competencia y los factores afectivos.

Palabras clave: Aprendizaje basado en tareas; interacción; nivel de competencia; producción oral; estrategias comunicativas.

Abstract

This study focuses on the important role that oral production and interaction play in language acquisition. The main aim is to determine the impact of TBLT by analysing if an oral interactive story-telling task generates communication strategies and provision of feedback among young learners of English with different levels of proficiency. In addition to this, a final questionnaire investigates the importance of affective and motivational factors. The story-telling task was designed bearing in mind TBLT's principles and characteristics with the aim of promoting learners' oral interaction in class. The activity was carried out with 24 eleven year-old students, from which the results from three pairs with different proficiency levels were analysed. Results show

that the task promotes students' oral interaction, as well as the use of communicative strategies, whose variety is affected by proficiency. However, it does not appear to influence students' feedback. On the other hand, affective factors also seem to play an important role in the task's success. In light of these results, we can state that it is advisable to incorporate TBLT methodologies in the language classroom because they provide learners with meaningful opportunities to communicate orally, however, proficiency levels and affective factors should be taken into account when designing specific tasks.

Keywords: Task-based Language Teaching; Interaction; proficiency level; oral production; communicative strategies.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

El aprendizaje del inglés como segunda lengua ha cobrado protagonismo en el contexto educativo español en las últimas décadas. Gobiernos y administraciones dan cada vez más importancia a su aprendizaje y los programas CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) donde aprenden la lengua a través del contenido de otras asignaturas están cada vez más generalizados. Sin embargo, tradicionalmente se le ha dado poca importancia al uso de la lengua hablada en el contexto del aula, donde el principal centro de atención han sido las formas gramaticales. Asimismo, las ratios de 25 alumnos establecidas por el sistema educativo no han favorecido la incorporación de la lengua hablada a las prácticas en el aula. El presente estudio presenta una alternativa para incluir esta habilidad tan necesaria en las clases de inglés siguiendo una metodología basada en tareas o Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). Las tareas son el elemento fundamental de la clase y son realizadas en pequeño grupo o parejas.

El presente estudio ha diseñado una propuesta pedagógica basada en TBLT que ha sido llevada a la práctica en un colegio de Pamplona con estudiantes de 6º curso de educación primaria. Para diseñar dicha propuesta se ha establecido en primer lugar un marco teórico en el cual se han incluido los orígenes e historia de dicha metodología, para establecer claramente los puntos de partida. A continuación, se ha explicado meticulosamente en qué consiste TBLT, los componentes principales y los tipos de tareas presentes a tener en cuenta para diseñar adecuadamente aquella que se va a imponer a nuestros alumnos, y finalmente las opciones de evaluación existentes para analizar el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje. Una vez los fundamentos han sido establecidos, también se ha revisado en la literatura existente estudios que apoyan su implementación en las clases.

En segundo lugar, se explica la importancia que tiene la interacción en tareas para la adquisición de un idioma extranjero, haciendo especial hincapié en las diferentes estrategias comunicativas a utilizar por los alumnos. Se ha revisado el papel principal de las mismas en la adquisición del lenguaje y diferentes estudios empíricos que

demuestran la buena influencia de éstas y de la interacción para adquirir competencia absoluta en una segunda lengua.

Es por ello que a lo largo de este trabajo se propone la realización de una tarea en el aula que se ha puesto en práctica con seis alumnos de 6º en un colegio de Pamplona. De esta forma, los niños realizan la tarea propuesta en parejas maximizando la producción oral de la segunda lengua en el alumnado, utilizando los conceptos aprendidos en clase y contribuyendo significativamente al proceso de adquisición de la misma. Por último analizaremos, discutiremos y evaluaremos los favorables resultados obtenidos en dicha práctica con los seis alumnos evaluados.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Task-based language teaching

1.1.1. *A rationale for Task-Based Language teaching through history.*

The field of English Language Teaching (ELT) has changed and developed during the past years. A wide range of methods and approaches have been growing and changing since the early 1900's. Indeed, we can distinguish three different phases in the history of ELT: the foundation phase (1900-46), where second language teaching basis were stabilised; the second phase (1946-70) where earlier initiatives started to consolidate; and the final phase (1979 onwards), where instruction focused on meeting the students' necessities of using language in real-life communication. Therefore, the powerful idea of communication influenced every aspect of ELT teaching such as: syllabus planning, teaching materials, testing and assessments, and so on (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

According to Van den Branden, Bygate and Norris (2009), the difference of implementation among the different methods and educational models is endless. Nevertheless, the differences can be reduced to these basic dimensions:

- Methods evolved from a discrete to a Holistic learning approach. On the one hand, the discrete approach maintains the idea that language is a compound of smaller units that need to be mastered individually before using the language functionally. On the other hand, in the Holistic approach the learner is asked to confront and use the language as a whole for functional purposes, and to induce knowledge of the smaller units from actual performances.
- Methodology can be Teacher-centred or learner-driven education. In teacher-centred classrooms, the teacher conducts the sessions deciding the content and topics covered, the students' opportunities for contributing, and he speaks most of the time. In a learner-centred methodology students' initiative is taken into account, students cooperation is stimulated and they are encouraged to

exploit input and output opportunities as methodology favours peer interaction.

- Communication-based versus Form-focused instruction. In communication-based instruction, importance is given to achieve mutual understanding of meaning. Whereas on form-focused instruction, we find the emphasis on the complexity and accuracy of linguistic forms employed.

Historically, the methods dominating during the 1950s and 1960s showed emphasis on discrete, teacher-centred, and form-focused methodologies. As Long and Norris (2009) stated, most syllabuses or teaching methods were considered synthetic methods (Grammar-Translation, Audio-lingual Method, the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, etc.) and their contents were just a series of linguistic forms. The methodology used included translation, explicit grammatical rules explanation, drills, and linguistically simplified graded readers. Therefore, the forms were the major focus; focus on forms (Long, 1991). Students learnt linguistic items separately and they needed to synthesize them for communication, consequently the term use for these syllabuses was synthetic syllabuses (Wilkins, 1976).

Towards the beginning of the twentieth century, researchers and educationalists shifted attention and gave importance to more holistic, learner-centred pedagogies as an alternative to what previously existed. Language started to be seen as more than a set of grammatical rules, with sets of vocabulary to memorize. Students were provided with holistic examples of language use and comprehensible input given by the teacher. Students were believed to induce the grammatical rules by analysing the input with their natural language-learning abilities, hence the analytic syllabuses (Wilkins, 1976). This approach has been called focus on meaning (Long, 1991) and various language programs such as the immersion education, the Natural Approach and Content-Based courses are based on it (Long and Norris, 2009)

These ideas evolved towards the importance of communication in class and therefore, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) placed functional language use as the basis in every methodology (Van den Branden, et al., 2009). The method aims to help students develop abilities and strategies to use language in real communication. CLT has four

main characteristics that reveal the evolution from earlier methods and approaches (Brown, 1987):

1. The main objective is to gain communicative competence rather than focusing on the grammatical or linguistic competence.
2. Function is the main framework through which forms are taught.
3. Fluency gains importance over accuracy.
4. The target language is used in the communicative classroom.

As the first characteristic states, Chomsky's (1965) linguistic competence, which was previously defended in pedagogy, was questioned by Hyme's (1966) theory of communicative competence. He defended that communicative competence controls the principles of language usage by not only focusing on correct speech, based on linguistic competence, but also focusing on producing it appropriately, based on communicative competence. The communicative competence gives importance to the social factor of the language, as speech is a socially situated performance. When analysing language, we have to study the forms along the ways in which they are used. According to Canale and Swain (1980) four different dimensions are identified in the communicative competence: the Grammatical competence, that refers to the grammatical and lexical competence; the Sociolinguistic competence, that deals with an understanding of the social context, the Discourse competence, that refers to the interpretation of meaning regarding the text elements; and the Strategic competence, that refers to the various strategies that communicators use to maintain and conduct communication.

Most teachers, however, rather than shifting away from traditional discrete methodologies, incorporated Communicative Language Teaching ideas to their traditional classrooms maintaining the form-focused principles. Therefore, taking into account the limitations that focus on forms and focus on meaning presented, triggered the appearance of a third approach, focus on form (Long, 1991). The pedagogic procedures used by it shift students' attention briefly to linguistic code features derived from comprehension or production problems in pedagogic tasks. It enables

teachers to create motivating and interesting content based on students' needs, while addressing language problems successfully (Long and Norris, 2009).

In this context, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), that shared the main aspects of CLT, emerged offering an alternative to the partial incorporation of communication in the SL classrooms. TBLT was a model conceptualized along holistic, meaning-focused, and learner-driven lines. Task-Based Language Teaching sought to maintain the benefits achieved by implementing meaningful communication, but providing effective communicative activities different to the ones employed to date that were not efficient enough to develop a wide range of L2 competences, such as accuracy. Therefore, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) attracted attention in research during the 1980s and 1990s as an innovative pedagogy in the field of SLA. Early publications on TBLT proposed tasks as "an appropriate unit of analysis through which just such a language pedagogy might be achieved" (Norris, Bygate and Branden, 2009: 15). According to Rod Ellis (2003: 30) "Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) constitutes a strong version of CLT. That is, tasks provide the basis for an entire language curriculum". TBLT has maintained the success from its birth to the present day. Therefore, tasks still hold a central place in both SLA research and in language pedagogy. There are a wide number of recent publications dealing with TBLT in the classroom raising many issues that affect to language pedagogy. We can state that the concept of TBLT has moved to the centre ground, and even if classroom practice is incorporating it gradually, there is still a way until it becomes rooted in classroom practice.

1.1.2. Defining 'task'

After having developed and explained the changes in SLA pedagogies and research and having arrived to the origin of TBLT and its actual importance nowadays, we need to define what a task is. There are various ways of defining tasks. However, we will explain the most note-worthy and we will specially consider those that apply the most to the current study.

The first distinction we have to highlight is that carried out by Nunan (2004). He distinguishes between real world or target tasks, and pedagogical tasks. The first refer

to uses of language in the world beyond the classroom; and the later are those that occur in the classroom. In order to create learning scenarios and opportunities we have to transform the real-world tasks into pedagogical tasks, which are the one that we are going to develop in the current study.

Various researchers have defined the concept of 'pedagogical task'. According to Ellis, a pedagogical task is:

'A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes'. (Ellis, 2003: 16)

Richards, et al. (1986: 289) define a pedagogical task as follows:

'A task is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding the language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake'.

Nunan (2004: 4) proposes this definition:

'A pedagogical task is 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, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of

completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end’.

What is important to highlight about these definitions by some of the most influential authors in the field for the current study is that tasks should mainly focus on meaning. Learners should concentrate more on getting the message through by using interaction strategies, rather than on producing accurate language forms. It is also stated that task could be both productive and receptive, but that what is important is to consider the discourse produced as a communicative act on its own, that should resemble to the language used in the real world. These aspects were all taken into consideration when designing the current task of the study.

In addition to this, Willis (1996: 23) states that ‘tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome’. This definition implies that tasks are goal-oriented, so the emphasis is on completing the task successfully by understanding and conveying meanings with the partner. This means that students are free to choose the language forms they wish in order to reach this common understanding and meaning to reach the task goal. The teacher can monitor from a distance, but learners need to feel free to experiment with the language and take risks. Therefore, errors are seen as a natural and positive part of the learning process. Accuracy does matter but it is not the main goal of the task. Language is the vehicle for reaching the task goals, but the emphasis is put on meaning and communication rather than on producing language forms correctly. The challenge of reaching a successful outcome is what makes TBLT motivating for students.

1.1.3. Task components

Once we have made clear what a task is and the most important characteristics tasks should gather, the main elements we had to take into account for tasks designing in the current study will be explained.

Nunan (2004) proposes that the main elements of a task are goals, input and procedures, and those are supported by learner and teacher roles and the settings. This idea is represented on the diagram below.

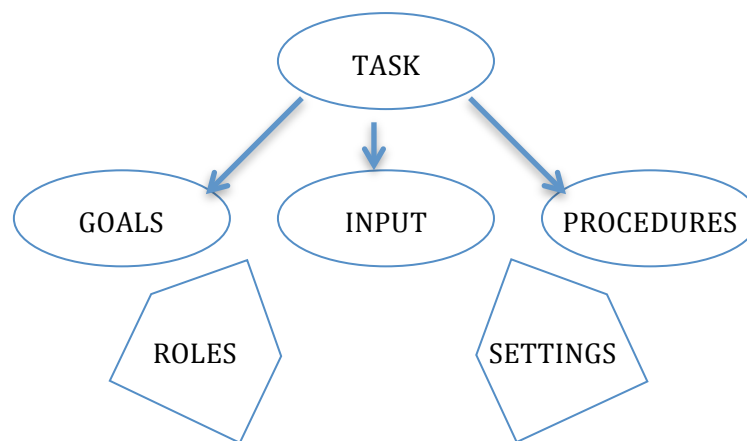


Figure 1. Task components

Goal is an important element that determines the general intentions and focus behind a task. It provides direction not only to the task itself but to the curriculum as a whole too. They usually refer to the general outcomes but they can also describe the learners' behaviour. In a task, the goal might not be specifically stated but it can easily be inferred. According to Nunan (2004: 43) 'goals may relate not just to language, but to other aspects of the learning process' and he classifies into four different types: communicative, sociocultural, learning-how-to-learn and language and cultural awareness. Nevertheless, Oxford (2006) divides task goals into three main groups defining the kind of syllabus tasks are framed into; focus on meaning, focus on form, or focus on forms:

1. **Focus on Meaning:** Students are presented with chunks of the L2 language in a communicative use without explanation of structures or grammatical rules. Students are encouraged to discover these rules by themselves. Therefore, grammar is developed naturally when the learner is ready for a specific structure.
2. **Focus on Form:** In TBLT attention is mainly focused on meaning but is shifted to form when communication breakdowns occur to take action to solve the problems. The shift to form can be either generated by the teacher or the learner, it is generally incidental, and it depends on learners'

needs. However, when the forms are preselected from the task, the focus on form does not arise from learners' needs.

3. Focus on Forms: Presents specific preplanned forms one by one in order for the learner to master them before they need to use them for communicative purposes.

The input refers to the data, either spoken or written, that the learners receive and work with during the implementation of a task. The teacher, the textbook, or some other material or source might provide the input. Nunan (2004: 49) states that 'the combination of authentic, simulated and specially written materials provide learners with optimal learning opportunities'. The question of 'Authenticity' deals with the use of oral or written material produced for communicative purposes, rather than for language teaching. Authors have contra posed opinions about the topic. Brosnan et al (1984) propose that the texts that learners should use are in the environment around them and teachers should find authentic texts appropriate to their needs. Brown and Menasche (1993) argue, however, that the classification authentic / non-authentic is over simplified and materials should be classified along a continuum of five different points: genuine, altered, adapted, simulated, and minimal or incidental. Nunan states that simplifying input for beginning learners will help them to start acquiring the language. However, he says that there is value in exposing learners to authentic input inside the classroom to help them understand the language outside.

The procedure stipulates what learners will do with the input that is the starting point of the pedagogic task. Nunan establishes three ways of analysing learning procedures. The first one takes into account procedural authenticity. For a procedure to be authentic, it has to reproduce and rehearse in the classroom the kinds of situations that learners have to face outside the classroom. The second way of analysing the procedures is taking into account their goals or focus. We have to discern if it is skill getting, in which learners acquire the forms through memorization and manipulation; or skill using, where they apply the acquired skills in communicative interaction. A third way of analysing them is to differentiate if they focus on the development of fluency or of accuracy.

These goals, input, and procedures are supported by teacher and learner's roles. The roles are the parts that teachers and learners play while implementing the task, as well as the social and interpersonal relationships between the participants. In the communicative approach, the learner adopts an active, negotiator role that as well of receiving, has to contribute too in the interaction. Teacher and learner roles are linked and when learners play a more active role, the teacher role has to change. In the communicative classroom the teacher has three main roles: to act as a facilitator of the learning process, to act as a participant, and to act as an observer or learner.

The settings refer to the classroom arrangements made specifically for the implementation of the task. In TBLT we have to make the distinction between 'mode' and 'environment'. The mode refers to the student grouping, taking into account if they are operating on an individual basis, pair group, small group, or as a whole class. The setting of the actual classroom will depend on this, as well as on practical considerations such as classroom size. The environment refers to where the learning actually takes place. It might be in the actual classroom, outside it, or in a specific centre.

1.1.4. Methodology

Now we will consider the methodological procedures for teaching tasks and for converting tasks in task-based syllabus into actual lessons. According to Rod Ellis (2003) in a lesson we can distinguish three main phases or stages of a lesson that have a task as their principal component: The 'pre-task' phase that are the activities undertaken before the students start the actual task, the 'during task' phase that centres the attention on the task itself, and the 'post task' phase that involves procedures for following up the task performance. They are not all obligatory but they ensure task's efficiency. We will now explain thoroughly each of the different phases and the components or alternatives included on each:

1.1.4.1. The pre-task phase

The main objective of this phase is to prepare students to perform the task in a way that will ensure acquisition. Lee (2000) states the importance of 'framing' the task

providing an advanced organizer for students to be aware of what they will be required to do and the nature of the desired outcome. In this phase we find different strategies to prepare the task:

- *Performing a similar task:* Students will be asked to complete a task of the same kind with a similar content to the main task as a whole group.
- *Providing a model:* Students observe a model of an ideally performed task without having to perform it themselves. The fact of just observing it can reduce the cognitive load on the learner. The model text can also be followed by activities thought to raise the learners' consciousness about specific strategies or features of the task performance.
- *Non-task preparation activities:* There is a wide range of preparation activities teachers can choose from. They centre on activating learners' prior knowledge on the subject or providing them with background information on the area of a task. They can also be focused on the linguistic demands of the task, concentrating generally on vocabulary rather than on grammar by predicting, developing a cooperative dictionary search, or matching words with their definitions. Such activities help students focus on other important goals such as fluency or content learning preventing the struggle with new words.
- *Strategic planning:* Learners can be given time to plan how to perform the task. It involves the provision of linguistic strategies or forms they need to use being the task workplan already known by them. This strategy differs from the former on the fact that the learners have access to the task unlike in the non-task preparation activities phase. Skehan (1996) suggest that learners need to be made explicitly aware of what aspect such as fluency, accuracy, or complexity they should be focusing on, as if they are not made aware, results show that priority is being given to content over form. In Yuan, F. & Ellis, R. (2003) results showed that pre-task planning promotes grammatical complexity and a more fluent and lexically varied language, whereas during task planning positively influences accuracy and grammatical complexity.

1.1.4.2. The during-task phase

In the during-task phase there are two different kinds of methodological options: the ‘task-performance options’, relating to how the task has to be implemented and can be planned and selected with priority; or ‘process options’ that involve the teacher and the students making decisions while performing the task that has to be completed.

- Among the ‘task-performance options’ there are three different considerations:
 - Setting a time limit. It concerns whether to require the learners to perform the task under time pressure. Research shows that setting a time limit is beneficial depending on the task objective. If teachers want to emphasize accuracy, learners should complete the task in their own time, whereas if they want to encourage fluency, they need to set a time limit (Yuan and Ellis, 2002).
 - Accessing the input data. Allowing students to access the text or pictures that represent a source of input. This could influence the complexity as tasks supported by texts or pictures are easier than those that are not.
 - Introducing some surprise element into the task. It serves as a way of extending the length of the task and the amount of talking and may also enhance students’ intrinsic interest on the task.
- The process options cannot be prescribed with certainty, however, we can identify the kinds of processes that students’ need to aim for:
 - A discourse that is ‘conversational’ in nature.
 - Explicit formulation of messages on discourse.
 - Opportunities for students to take linguistic risks.
 - Occasions for students to focus on specific linguistic forms.
 - Shared goals for the task.
 - Effective scaffolding of the participants’ efforts to communicate in the L2.

1.1.4.3. The post-task phase

The post task phase affords a number of options:

-
- Repeat performance. When repeating a task, learners' production improves in a number of ways, such as complexity, fluency or accuracy. The repetition can be carried out under the same conditions as the first time or changing them, like performing it publicly. Public performance is likely to encourage the use of a more formal style.
 - Reflecting on the task. Willis (1996) states that it is important to ask students for a report on their discoveries and decisions about the task. Reports should focus on summarizing the main outcome of the task and students should reflect on and evaluate their own performance.
 - Focusing on forms. Once the task is completed, the students can focus on forms with no danger of losing the benefits of TBLT. This stage is needed to counter the danger of developing fluency at the expense of accuracy. Teachers should select the forms that students used incorrectly for them to focus on them. There are four ways of focus on forms:
 - Review of learner errors: While the students perform the task, the teacher can move from group to group to note down some of the errors students make in order to address them with the whole class later on.
 - Consciousness-raising class: It can be used as a follow up activity to make students attend explicitly to a specific form that has been used incorrectly in the main task. A number of students' utterances will be presented to them in order for them to identify the errors, correct them and provide an explanation.
 - Production practice activities: The main goal is to provide more traditional practice of selected forms. Traditional activities may help learners to automatize forms.
 - Noticing activities: Teachers ask students to make transcripts of an extract from their task performance. After transcribing it, they are asked to make edit changes and then compare it to the teacher's reformulated version. Most of the changes students make involve editing slips and reformulation.

1.1.5. Task types

1.1.5.1. Task Typology

There are many different task types classifications. In this section we are going to describe the most influential ones that will be the ones that we will use to categorize the task this study implements. In addition to this, we will also analyse the different starting points of a task as well as the distinctions between one-way or two-way tasks, and open or closed tasks.

Pattinson (1987) established seven task types:

1. Questions and answers: An information gap is created by letting a student choose from a list of language items that all fit into one frame and having another student guessing the secret choice.
2. Dialogues and role-plays: They can either be scripted or improvised, however, the later gives a higher chance of thorough learning and willing participation.
3. Matching activities: Here the learner has to match items or complete pairs or sets.
4. Communication strategies: These activities are designed for students to acquire communication strategies such as paraphrasing, borrowing words, using gestures, asking for feedback and simplifying.
5. Pictures and picture stories: Pictures can stimulate many communication activities such as spot the difference, sequencing, or memory test.
6. Puzzles and problems: These activities require learners to make guesses, use their imagination, make logical reasoning or use their personal knowledge or experience.
7. Discussions and decisions: Learners are asked to share and collect information to reach a common decision.

Recently, Richards (2001: 162) has proposed the following task classification:

- Jigsaw tasks: These tasks involve learners in combining different pieces of information to form a whole (e.g. three individuals or groups may have three different parts of a story and have to piece the story together).

- Information-gap tasks: These are tasks in which one student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity.
- Problem-solving tasks: Students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem. There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.
- Decision-making tasks: Students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.
- Opinion exchange tasks: Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach an agreement.

We have included these two different task classifications because somehow, they complement each other, as ones offer some task types that others do not.

1.1.5.2. Closed vs. open tasks

Independently of the type of task we choose to propose to students, we need to decide whether to propose them as closed or open tasks. Closed tasks have very precise instructions with restricted information where the goal is very specific and the procedure generally highly structured. Open tasks have a less specific goal and a loose structure. Even if they are open, tasks can have a determine outcome to achieve.

1.1.5.3. One-way vs. two-way tasks

In the same way than in the previous section, this classification is independent of the task type the target task presents. In one-way tasks, the responsibility of completing the task successfully depends mostly on the participant who holds the information, even though other participants in the task can contribute by demonstrating when they understand and when they do not. Opposite to this, two-way tasks oblige to all participants of the tasks to participate in order to successfully complete the task.

1.1.5.4. Starting point of tasks

Tasks have five basic starting points:

- Personal knowledge and experience: Tasks are based on what students know and have experienced about the world outside.
- Problems: The starting point on some tasks is the statement of the problem. In order for students to overcome the task more easily and with a higher confidence, it is advisable to let them a few minutes of individual thinking.
- Visual stimuli: Tasks can be based on pictures, photographs, videos, tables or graphs. Tasks such as 'Spot the difference' or 'Describe and arrange' share this starting point.
- Spoken and written texts: Recordings of spoken English or reading texts also represent a good starting point. With this starting point learners can be required to listen or read the first part of the story and to discuss and create an invented ending. They can also be required to spot the differences between different versions of texts.
- Children's activities: Younger students enjoy hands on activities, games, participative tasks, and engaging proposals. Therefore, if instructions and materials for these kinds of activities can just be obtained when using the target language, the motivation towards the communicative process will increase.
- Combinations of starting points: In some occasions we can find tasks that combine more than one of the described before starting points, such as texts and personal experiences, questionnaires with controversial topics, visual data and personal or professional experiences, or problem solving tasks based on a written text in combination with a map, picture, table or graph.

1.1.6. Assessment in task-based language teaching

In this last section, once we have established what a task is, its components, the methodology that should follow and task types, we are going to deal with task assessment. The goal of TBLT assessment is not to measure the display of linguistic

knowledge, but to determine if students can employ the L2 language to accomplish the intended tasks. Indeed, language accuracy, complexity and fluency only play a role in TBLT assessment if they are integrally linked to the accomplishment of the assessment task. It takes the task itself as the fundamental unit of analysis (Long and Norris, 2009). Taking these aspects into account, Long and Norris (2000: 598) proposed a definition of task-based assessment:

‘Task-based language assessment takes the task itself as the fundamental unit of analysis motivating item selection, test instrument construction, and the rating of task performance. Task-based assessment does not simply utilize the real-world task as a means for eliciting particular components of the language system which are then measured or evaluated; on the contrary, the construct of interest in task-based assessment is performance of the task itself’.

Norris et al. (1998) claim that task-based testing is comprised in a broader approach to assessment known as performance assessment. The essential characteristics of performance assessment according to Nunan (2004: 145) are:

1. ‘It must be based on tasks’.
2. ‘Tasks should be as authentic as possible’.
3. ‘Success or failure in the outcome of the task, because they are performances, must usually be rated by qualified judges’ (Norris et al., 1998: 8)

They also developed a set of specifications for designing and grading tasks that take four factors into consideration: code, cognitive complexity, communicative demand, and overlapping variables.

Nunan (2004) affirms that in spite of the context and situations in which TBLT is carried out being varied, the assessment of learning outcomes should always take the following aspects into account:

- Assess students’ performance directly.
- Be criterion-referenced, comparing students taking into account how well they performed on a specific task rather than against each other.

- Focus on students' accomplishment of specific objectives rather than assessing general proficiency on the language.
- Be formative.

There are several techniques and procedures for collecting assessment data in TBLT classrooms. Genesee and Upshur (1996) enumerate observation, portfolios, conferences, journals, questionnaires, and interviews as appropriate tools. Brindley (1989: 169-71) lists the following:

- Observation followed by recycling of work.
- Informal discussions with learners about their progress.
- Teacher-constructed classroom tests.
- Student self-assessment procedures.
- Teacher journal.
- Learner journal.
- Oral proficiency rating.
- Feedback from others outside the classroom
- Standardized published tests.

Nunan (2004) considers the following tools including performance scales, production tasks, observation schedules, journals and portfolios. However, in addition to these teacher assessment tools, he also considers self- and peer assessment. They foster learner autonomy and focus both on learning processes and outcomes. Cram (1995: 282) defended self-assessment benefits for learners to involve learners in their own learning process:

'The major purpose of self-assessment is to provide the opportunity for learners to develop an understanding of their own level of skill, knowledge or personal readiness for a task in relation to their goals. This level will often be compared with a previously determined level and incorporated either into a summative report of gains made during a course or into a cumulative record of learner achievement.'

Ellis (2003) presents some practical and educational advantages of this practice. It is less time-consuming and less expensive to carry out than procedures that require

external ratings. It also helps fulfilling educational goals, as help students take control of and reflect on their own learning. Therefore, self-assessment can be seen as formative assessment. In the current study, we will take into account the characteristics set by Nunan (2004) to design the assessment process, as well as the idea of self assessment defended by Cram (1995) and Ellis (2003).

In conclusion, there are several factors that we need to consider in order to implement TBLT and use communicative tasks in the current classrooms. Not only task typology should be taken into consideration when designing a lesson, but also other important components such as the main goal we seek to accomplish, the type and quality of input and procedure determined for the task, and the kind of assessment that we are going to propose to learners considering the effect of such on learners' production and acquisition. They will all have to be implemented from a learner-centred perspective so that we promote autonomous, participated and active students.

1. 2. Interaction

In this section, we will explain the role that interaction though negotiation of meaning plays in language acquisition. As we have previously stated, tasks are viewed as facilitators of interaction between L2 learners, and therefore affecting the course of acquisition. In the following section, firstly we need to explore the relationship between interaction and language acquisition and then the relationship between task and interaction.

1.2.1. Interaction and language acquisition

Along the years, interaction has been seen as a central element of acquisition in SLA. Interactionist theories see language learning as a direct outcome of participating in discourse. The Interaction Hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1977) stated that humans were able to acquire language by either understanding messages or receiving comprehensible input.

Long (1996) modified this hypothesis including aspects such as the output hypothesis. It is stated that interaction facilitates acquisition, as learners receive input and feedback from their interlocutor and by means of negotiation are able to produce

output and modify it. Initially the Interaction Hypothesis by Long (1983) stated that 'comprehensible input that arises when the less competent speaker provides feedback on his/her lack of comprehension assists acquisition' (Ellis, 2003: 79).

The Interaction Hypothesis determines that the more opportunities for negotiation, both meaning and content, are given, the more likely acquisition is. However, the hypothesis is very limited and it faced a lot of criticism. Ellis (2003) explains that the hypothesis is very restricted as it only considers that acquisition is being held in situations when the less proficient student is responding and providing feedback to the more proficient speaker. Consequently, the hypothesis has been extended to take into consideration occasions when problem arises in the production of the less proficient speaker.

The interaction hypothesis is also closely associated with the work of Pica (1992 and 1994), as it shows how meaning negotiation assist language learners affecting input, feedback and output mainly in three different ways:

- Meaning negotiation opportunities help learners obtaining a comprehensible input. It is stated that modification takes place when breaking down the input into smaller units that speakers can easily process.
- Negotiation also provides feedback to learners on their own use of the L2. And when learners receive feedback, acquisition is facilitated.
- Negotiation makes speakers modify, adjust, and manipulate their own output. When learners are pushed to reformulate their own utterances, output is more comprehensible and therefore more target-like, thus acquisition is promoted.

These statements set a basis for investigating tasks and especially those that stimulate negotiation, because they provide comprehensible input, and push learners to reformulate their utterances. Indeed, there is some evidence in research for modified pushed output to promote language acquisition. Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) showed that learners who modified their utterances because of negotiation improved their past tense use accuracy. Ellis and Takashima (1999) concluded that pushed output helped learners to acquire past tense forms. Nevertheless, Van den Branden (1997)

found that making learners to modify their output had no significant effect on their syntax or grammatical accuracy.

In spite of all these problems presented, the Interaction Hypothesis still takes a central place in SLA research and offers a theoretical basis as well as defined discourse categories for analysing task interactions in task-based research. As interaction and meaning negotiation assists language acquisition, it is determined that classroom activities must be designed to provide students with optimal opportunities to engage in interaction, and not only talk, but also negotiate meaning with them. The best way to foster this this interaction is to propose communicative tasks in the language classroom.

1.2.2. Tasks and Language interaction

Regarding the relationship between task and language use, we have analysed two major aspects: the negotiation of meaning when there is a breakdown in communication and the communication strategies to overcome the language difficulties. The use of these strategies will be assessed in primary education students of the current study.

1.2.1.1. The Negotiation of Meaning

It is known as the discourse work that is being done to resolve a communication problem or a non-understanding sequence. Ellis (2003: 71) focused his research on mainly four different strategies:

1. *Comprehension checks*: are expressions or utterances that students use to check whether the speaker's own preceding utterance has been understood. For example: 'I was really chuffed. *Know what I mean?*'
2. *Clarification request*: are expressions that ask for a clarification of the previously used utterance. Lightbown and Spada (2006) add that teachers can also use clarification request either because the student's utterance has been misunderstood or because it is incorrect in some way and it should be reformulated. It includes phrases such as 'Pardon me...' or 'What do you mean by...' The example set by Ellis (2003: 71) is:

A I was really chuffed.

Interactive story telling among EFL children in Primary School

B *Uh?*

A Really pleased.

3. *Confirmation checks*: are expressions that follow the speaker's utterance to confirm the correct understanding of it. For example:

A I was really chuffed.

B *You were pleased?*

A Yes.

4. *Recasts*: are defined by Long (1996: 436) as an utterance that rephrases a previous one 'by changing one or more of its sentence components (subject, verb, or object) while still referring to its central meanings'. For example:

A I go to cinema at weekend.

B *You went to the cinema. What did you see?*

A 'Gladiators'. It was great.

According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), teachers can also use recast as a form of corrective feedback. They reformulate the whole student's utterance minus the error. They are generally implicit and they are not introduced by specific expressions such as 'You mean' or 'You should say'. For example (Lightbown and Spada, 2006: 126):

S1 Why you don't like Marc?

T Why *don't you* like Marc?

S2 I don't know. I don't like him.

In all four negotiation strategies, the main problem has to do with the language and the meaning of the word 'chuffed'. However, when similar problems appear relating to content or knowledge, there is a negotiation of content. Nevertheless, it is not easy to distinguish the difference between negotiation of meaning or content. Sometimes it is difficult to determine for sure whether the listener has not understood a word or a concept or that he is questioning the actual content of the utterance.

These strategies can motivate a reformulation of the initial speaker's utterance producing a more grammatically accurate version of it. This term was coined by Swain (1985) as pushed output and is defined by Ellis (2003: 72) as 'output that reflects what learners can produce when they are pushed to use the target language accurately and

concisely'. The negotiation and the reformulation of the utterances helps learners reach a comprehensible input.

1.2.1.2. Communication strategies

While meaning negotiation is usually considered listener-oriented, communication strategies are usually associated as speaker-oriented. Speakers use them when they have to communicate ideas or meanings for which their linguistic knowledge is not high enough. The strategies identified by Ellis (2003) are:

- Reduction strategies: Speaker abandons a specific message or gives up a topic.
- Achievement strategies: 'the learner decides to keep the original communicative goal and attempts to compensate for insufficient means for achieving it'. These include:
 - Approximation: when a word is substituted by a similar one in meaning.
 - Paraphrase: when a specific words is substituted by an expression that explains its meaning.
 - Word coinage: when a word is substituted by a simple utterance.
 - Conscious transfer: the deliberate use of L1 in the middle of an L2 sentence.
 - Appealing for assistance
 - Miming

Poulisse (1997) suggests that learners seek to reach the principles of communication of clarity and economy. Nevertheless, taking into account their language skills and strategies they will have to sometimes sacrifice being informative and clear for being brief and economical, that is sacrifice economy to achieve clarity.

Taking into account the facts previously explained, we can state that students' engagement in the negotiation of meaning and their use of communication strategies will affect the overall communicative effectiveness. However, the relationship between task and acquisition is indirect.

1.2.3. Interaction and TBLT with young learners

Once the basis and principles of interaction have been established along with the general ideas about communication strategies, we will focus on what research and empirical studies have stated about TBLT in the classroom and interaction benefits to establish the references for the current study.

Oliver, 1998, conducted a pioneering study to investigate whether children can negotiate meaning, the strategies they employ the most, and possible differences they present with adults learners. Results showed that, like adults, children also benefit from the meaning negotiation process, providing comprehensible input, output and obtain feedback on their productions. Therefore, as the author states (Oliver, 1998: 372) 'there is a valid argument for making use of such pedagogical practice in L2 teaching for this age group of learners'. Findings showed that the most used strategy of all was the self-repetition (23.98%), followed by other repetition (23.62%), conversational adjustments (11.99%), confirmation checks (5.72%), clarification requests (5.71%), and comprehension checks (0.86%). These results do not match with those provided by Long (1983) of adults use. School children are thought to focus more on these strategies because rather than focusing on facilitating their partner's construction of meaning, they focus more on constructing their own meaning.

In 2002, Oliver did a follow up study of the previous investigation on the effects of language proficiency, age, and gender among other facts on the negotiation of meaning strategies used by learners. Participants were the same from the previous research; 192 students aged 8 to 13 years who had been paired together carrying out a one-way and a two-way task. Results regarding language proficiency showed that as students' proficiency on the target language increased, the amount of negotiation employed gradually decreased, being more used among low proficient students. These results differ from students carried out with adult learners. Age and gender, however, showed no significant differences. The current study seeks to confirm whether in the actual context, primary education students will also use communication strategies to boost conversation and whether their proficiency level will influence in their usage.

Bouffard and Sarkar (2008) concluded in their study that the use of corrective feedback on young learners was beneficial and that through group interaction and form and meaning negotiation, students were able to identify and repair their errors identifying

the language features involved. Lexical errors were found to be the main link between meaning negotiation and form negotiation. They prompted them to produce a modified output and negotiate the adequate form. Grammatical errors and L1 transfers were also analysed.

Mackey, Kanganas and Oliver (2007) found that task familiarity has an influence on use of meaning negotiation strategies. Results in the study showed that students working with unfamiliar tasks, both in content and procedure, produced more clarification requests and confirmation checks. However, students working with procedurally familiar tasks had more opportunities to use feedback, and those working with familiar tasks in both content and procedure, showed a greater use of feedback. Therefore, it is concluded that teachers should consider the familiarity of tasks when designing their lessons. Pinter (2007) also stated that task repetition in peer-peer interactions when dealing with low proficient learners can bring various benefits and teachers should consider their implementation in the classroom. Pinter states that students were motivated during the task implementation; they gradually learned to pay attention to each other and respond more carefully. Positive changes were seen in students' performance as they repeated them, such as fluency. The repetition of the task provided students with a scaffold and a vehicle for displaying their growing ability for interaction.

Therefore, current studies on the field conclude that primary education students are perfectly able to employ communication strategies to provide comprehensible input and output, being favoured among students who maintained lower proficiency levels. In children, as proficiency increases, strategy use decreases. The familiarity students have with the target task is also influential, as with unfamiliar tasks the meaning negotiation strategies use increases and with familiar ones the use of corrective feedback is more generalised. The current study seeks to confirm whether similar results are obtained in the current context with primary education students in Pamplona.

1.3. Key factors in successful SLA with children

In addition to the aspects that had already been taken into account such as task type, task components, background knowledge and proficiency level, learner factors that influence in the communicative process will include affective factors such motivation, attitude, anxiety and self-confidence in the task and topic. It will be important to take these factors into account when analysing results as they may influence students' performances.

1.3.1 Affective factors

Krashen (1985) stated that the 'affective filter' is a metaphorical barrier that prevents learners from acquiring language even if appropriate input is available. These affective factors include certain emotions such as motivation, emotional states of anxiety or self-confidence of the learner. If a learner is tense, anxious, or bored, his affective filter will be high and therefore it will lower his intake. Negative emotions prevent efficient processing of language input, whereas positive emotions promote efficiency in the process. Therefore, language learners with high motivation, self-confidence and low levels of anxiety have low affective filters so receive and produce plenty of input.

- Motivation: Most researchers and teachers agree that motivation is one of the most important factors in language learning without whom, learners cannot accomplish long-term goals. Gardner (1985) defined motivation in SLA as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity". Thus, it drives and directs behaviour.
- Anxiety: In SLA research, Gardner & MacIntyre (1993) see language anxiety as the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient. Consequently, students with anxiety in class will feel nervous and afraid to cooperate with teachers so they cannot concentrate on the learning points.
- Self-confidence is a factor that profoundly influences the learners' language performance. Students who lack of confidence are fearful and timid, being reluctant to express their opinions and unable to complete meaningful

sentences in class. On the other hand, self-confident learners dare to communicate in the target language and their gains are bigger.

2. TESTING INTERACTION EMPIRICALLY: STORY TELLING WITH 11-YEAR-OLDS

We have widely discussed the importance of TBLT establishing its principles and main characteristics along with the gains and strategies that interaction offers to students. In this second part of the project, the value of interaction will be tested with a group of students in a CLIL school in Pamplona. A task consisting of cooperative picture story-telling and focusing on the simple past was implemented with a group of 11-year-olds working in pairs and the performance of three of these pairs was carefully analysed. This section describes the implementation of the task, the objectives we had when implementing it and the results obtained.

2.1. The study

2.1.1. Participants

The study has been carried out in a Public School from Pamplona. The participants were 24 students from the upper level of Primary Education, 6th grade, aged 11 years old. However, data was only recorded from three different pairs of students, 6 students in all. The selection of the pairs took into account several aspects.

All students had the same language background or a common L1, being Spanish in all cases. This was fundamental because L1 transfers may have been a possible interaction strategy used by students. Therefore, we did not want to introduce an extra variable to the study.

Proficiency levels were also taken into account. The selected students had been attending the same school since they were 3 years old in kindergarten level. This school participates since the school year 2004-2005 in the bilingual education

program, the British program, designed by the Spanish Ministry of Education and Culture and the British Council for some schools in Spain. Therefore, students study half of their curriculum in Spanish and half in English (14 sessions a week), introducing a CLIL methodology for the subjects of science, math, art, and PE. As students have been in the same school since kindergarten level and they have not received informal tuition, we could affirm that they have received the same amount of L2 input. We could state that they have an intermediate proficiency level. However, even if they are in the same classroom, some of them present higher proficiency levels than others. The three selected pairs intended to be representative of high, intermediate and low proficiency level.

The aspect of gender was not taken into account, as the literature reviewed before (Oliver 2002) concluded that this aspect concerning young learners is not significant. The high proficient students were both female and the intermediate and low proficient were all males (F=2, M=4).

Among the CLIL subjects they implement, they also have five sessions per week devoted to English as a second language learning itself. Along the sessions they try to work with the four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. One of the sessions of the week is generally devoted to grammar explanations and drills.

2.1.2. Instrument

The researcher, who acts as a helper teacher once a week in the examined classroom, designed the task taking into account the characteristics of the classroom. She considered the context the task was going to be implemented in, the materials and software needed, the length of the lesson and the content that students were working on.

The task itself was contextualized in a didactic unit that dealt with the past simple. The target task is an open task whose main goal is to make students produce a simple story using the past simple tense. Taking into account the previously revised literature, we are going to define and determine the task's goals, typology, features, and needed material.

2.1.2.1. Goals:

- To watch a short video and retell the story to the partner.
- To work cooperatively during oral interaction.
- To produce verbs adequately in past tense.
- To identify mistakes in their partner's speech and provide feedback.
- To use communication strategies to understand each other.
- To understand their partner's story and sequence the story pictures adequately.
- To be able to retell what they understood of their partner's story.

2.1.2.2. Task characteristics

- Task typology: Taking into account the classification by Pattinson (1987), this task would be included in 'Pictures and picture stories'.
- Task features:
 - Open task: The task has a specific goal, but also a loose structure. Students' speech is free and they have autonomy to structure it freely.
 - One-way task: one student tells the story to the partner and then they swap roles so both have to produce a story.
 - Starting point of tasks: visual stimuli based on a short video.
 - Contextual support: Story pictures to sequence while watching their part of the video and also while listening to their partner for checking understanding.
 - Pair work.
 - Familiar procedure and content. Students are already used to tell stories in class using linking words and verbs in past tense. They are familiar with the vocabulary needed to tell the story.
- Materials:
 - Video: 'Bridge' <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ByBbUK4jJMg>
 - Pictures to sequence: 12 copies, 3 for the tested pairs.
 - Frames to sequence the pictures: 24 copies, 6 for the tested pairs.
 - Self evaluation questionnaire: 24 copies

Name: _____

SEQUENCE THE STORY

At the beginning...

Later...

Then...

At the end...

SEQUENCE THE STORY

At the beginning...



Later...



Then...



At the end...



Figure 2: Frames to sequence the pictures

Figure3: Pictures to sequence and solution.

2.1.3. Procedure

While designing the procedure, the reviewed methodology proposed by Ellis (2003) was taken as a basis, and the procedure of the task took into account the three main phases described for lesson planning; pre-task, during task, and post-task.

2.1.3.1. Pre-task

During the two previous weeks, the students studied the past simple tense in class, dealing with both regular and irregular verbs in affirmative, negative or interrogative form. The teacher presented them with several grammatical drills, listening activities, reading practice and writing exercises, but they had not employed it in oral interaction yet.

Among the reading comprehension activities, they read a book from the collection “Diary of a Wimpy Kid” and then, they had to write a similar diary entry about their own personal experiences in the past. In order to write the entries, the teacher had introduced them to several linking words and expressions they had previously worked with in different mini-tasks. Thus, the students did what Ellis (2003: 246) called ‘non-

task preparation activities' preparing students for the linguistic demands the target task is going to request, such as verb accuracy; as well as 'performing a similar task' by writing their own story in past.

Once they finished writing it, they read it out loud in class and the rest of the students had to evaluate the accuracy of the verb tense. When they listened to a mistake, the teacher asked them to clap their hands once and produce what should have been the correct verb form. Consequently, students are already used to identifying mistakes and to providing the appropriate corrective feedback. Therefore, this activity could also be considered as 'performing a similar task'.

During the session when the task was implemented, the teacher also framed the task explaining what the students should do and the main goal of the task. She gave the same directions to all partners so that they precisely know what they had to do, as well as what the main goal of the task was. The teacher will also introduce the characters of the video they are about to watch to refresh their animal vocabulary showing pictures of each of them (bear, rabbit, elk, and raccoon).

2.1.3.2. During task

For the task implementation, the group will be divided into two subgroups, group A and group B. Firstly, group A will remain in the classroom with the researcher to watch the first part of the video, up to 1:45, and group B will wait outside with the teacher. When group A finishes watching the first part, we invert roles and group B watches the short film until the end while group A waits outside. Once they finish watching the video twice each group, they are requested to sequence the story pictures to have them as a visual help while telling the story. Each group will only be given the pictures needed for their part of the video.

Student A will be the one starting to produce his part of the story. Beforehand, the teacher will remind student A to tell the story using past tense and student B to ask or intervene when he is not understanding the content of his partner's production. While listening to his partner, student B will be handed the first part of the story pictures and will be asked to sequence them in order to show understanding of their partner's

production. Once student A finishes, the roles change and student B will be the one telling the ending part of the story and student A listening and sequencing the pictures.

In the second part of the task, to check students' understanding of their partner's production, student B will be asked to retell the story that had originally heard from student A following the picture sequence he has as a help. Meanwhile, student A will act as a teacher checking the accuracy of the verb tenses and making sure that student B is retelling the story adequately. After that, the roles will be inverted and student A will retell student B's story and he will act as the teacher this time.

Taking into account the task performance options set by Ellis (2003) for designing this phase of the task, we did not set a time limit, as the main focus was accuracy rather than fluency. We also considered beneficial for students to count with the help of the story pictures to support their speech, as this was the first time implementing a task of these characteristics.

2.1.3.3. Post-task

Once all pairs finish the task implementation, the teacher will ask them to fill in an auto evaluation chart to reflect on their own performance of the task. The questionnaire made them reflect on the different roles adopted:

Table 1: Self-evaluation questionnaire

SELF EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE			
	Yes	No	A bit
Did you like the task?			
Did you find difficult to tell the story?			
Did you find difficult to understand your partner's story?			
Did you find difficult to retell your partner's story?			
Did you find difficult to correct your partner?			

As a big group, they will also review some of the learners' errors the teacher and the researcher have written down while listening to the different pairs, focusing on forms and especially on verb tense accuracy.

Repeating performance would be really interesting and advisable to do, as students would be more familiar with the task and with the fact of being recorded. In addition to this, as Mackey, Kanganas and Oliver (2007) stated that task repetition was familiar to boosts students' use of communicative strategies. However, it was impossible to do it for this specific task because of organizational reasons external to the research.

2.1.3.4. Assessment

As there are two teachers in the classroom at a time, they will focus on six different pairs each. They will assess their performances directly and will write down the mistakes they make. They will check for understanding by checking if the students have correctly sequenced the picture stories and for verb accuracy as it is one of the main goals of the task. In addition to this, the self-evaluation questionnaire will be taken into account to determine what students reflected upon their communicative process.

2.1.4. Objectives of the study

Based on the literature review that had been described in the previous section and bearing in mind the details of the present study, our main purpose was to find an answer to the following questions:

1. Are English as a Second Language students in a public school in a Spanish setting able to successfully interact in English in the classroom?
2. Do they use interaction strategies when they face communication breakdowns? If so, which strategies? Does proficiency level have an influence on the use of strategies?
3. Do they provide corrective feedback to their partners on the target structure?
4. Do they effectively understand each other?

2.1.5. Data analysis

Interactions were recorded in their classroom by the researcher with only one pair at a time. The researcher transcribed all the utterances produced by the three different Interactive story telling among EFL children in Primary School

pairs of students and several aspects were analyzed. In order to analyze the results, we will name them according to their level. Students of the high proficiency levels will be named as follows HP, intermediate proficiency level students will be IP and low-level students will be LP.

2.2. Results and discussion

Regarding the first research question about students' interaction using the L2, results showed that effective communication between primary education students is possible. Recordings of utterances produced proved that students shaped the great majority of their discourse in the target language; 97% of the total number (107) of performed utterances was in English. High proficient students (HP1 and HP2) did not transfer any expression or word from their L1, being their discourse formulated all in English. Neither did the low proficient (LP1 and LP2) students. However, the intermediate proficient students (IP1 and IP2) transfer from their L1 three different expressions, mainly as a strategy to continue with their discourse in the target language. Consequently, we can state that in spite of children's usual egocentric attitude, they can engage in conversation. Indeed, evidence from data suggests that primary education students seek mutual understanding and work cooperatively using a variety of strategies to do so.

The second research question sought to answer whether students employed interaction strategies to keep the flow of the discourse. Results gathered in table 2, clearly show that students belonging to the three different proficiency levels employed both negotiation of meaning strategies and communication strategies to facilitate mutual understanding. Our data therefore supports Oliver's (1998) study since it is also stated that children also benefit from the meaning negotiation process. The gathered data showed that the proficiency level students held, mattered in the type and quantity of strategies employed. In order to analyse the results, we obtained the percentage representing the total number of strategies implemented of each of the proficiency levels. It was obtained by considering the number of strategies implanted by a specific group and comparing it to the total number of strategies

produced among all students, and then calculating the rule of three. The couple that used the highest number of interaction strategies was the intermediate proficiency one. The strategies they used represented a percentage of 54.16%. Among these strategies, 84.6% of them were communication strategies and 15.4% meaning negotiation strategies. To obtain the former percentages, we considered the number of strategies of each type implemented by students and the total number of strategies applied in total, and then calculating the rule of three. The highest proficient couple also employed interaction strategies, but their presence represented 41.67% of the total number of strategies used. Among this 41.67%, 60% of them were meaning negotiation strategies and 40% were communication strategies. So, the high proficient learners favour meaning negotiation strategies over communication strategies, while intermediate proficient levels favour the opposite. The low proficient couple implemented the lowest use of strategies, which represented 1.17% of the total.

Table 2: Interaction strategies according to proficiency levels

	HIGH PROFICIENCY		INTERMEDIATE PROFICIENCY		LOW PROFICIENCY		TOTAL
MEANING NEGOTIATION	6	60%	2	15.4%	0	-	33.28%
Comprehension Check	2	20%	2	15.38%	-	-	16.64%
Clarification Request	1	10%	-	-	-	-	4.16%
Confirmation Check	1	10%	-	-	-	-	4.16%
Recast	2	20%	-	-	-	-	8.32%
COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES	4	40%	11	84.6%	1	100%	66.72%
Reduction	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Approximation	3	30%	1	7.69%	-	-	16.64%
Paraphrase	-	-	4	30.76%	1	100%	20.8%
Word Coignage	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Conscious Transfer to L1	-	-	3	23.07%	-	-	12.48%
Assistance	1	10%	1	7.69%	-	-	8.32%
Miming	-	-	2	15.38%	-	-	8.32%
TOTAL USE OF STRATEGIES	41.67%		54.16%		4.17%		100%

These results are in line with Oliver (1998), where communication strategies used by primary education students did not match with those employed by adults. It was thus, concluded that strategies employed by children focused on constructing their own meaning rather than facilitating their partner's. The results obtained in the current research support those in the study, as intermediate proficient learners employed a much higher number of communication strategies, which are speaker-oriented, rather than negotiation meaning strategies, which are listener-oriented. Nevertheless, results regarding the more proficient learners contradict the previous, as findings showed the opposite outcome, with learners producing more negotiation meaning strategies. Therefore, a possible reason for this main difference could fall on the different proficiency levels shown by students. The more proficient students showed more fluency and facility to express their ideas in the target language. Therefore, rather than focusing on their own discourse, they focused more on the process of interaction and on the goal of the task itself. Indeed, rather than just employing quantitatively more meaning negotiation strategies, they also implemented a more varied range. They included all four types of strategies, while intermediate proficient learners only employed comprehension checks. Intermediate proficiency learners showed a higher concern about their own discourse and low proficient learners showed difficulties to use interaction strategies at all. Consequently, it seems that proficiency level influences on the amount of communication strategies employed. Apparently, the highest the proficiency level of a student is, the highest amount of communication strategies will be found in their discourse, specially meaning negotiation ones. On the other hand, the lowest the proficiency level is, the fewest amount of strategies will be produced. These results are consistent with the findings of Oliver (2002) that stated that communication strategies were more present among low proficient students than among high proficient ones. Nevertheless, findings cannot be considerate consistent as the main limitation of the study is the number of participants involved. However, it would be interesting to reproduce the study with a higher number of primary education students with different proficiency levels.

The second research question also sought to find which strategies were the most commonly employed by students. In order to obtain the results, the specific number of strategies of each type is considered. Then, we take into account the total number of strategies performed to apply the rule of three. Strategies were divided in two different groups: meaning negotiation strategies and communication strategies. The former represented 33.28% of the total and the later represented 67.72% (Table 1). Among the first group, the most employed strategy were the comprehension checks (16.64%), followed by recasts (8.32%), clarification requests (4.16%) and confirmation checks (4.16%). These findings contrast with those reported in Oliver (1998) where the most employed meaning negotiation strategies were confirmation checks followed by clarification requests, and comprehension checks. The paraphrase strategy (20.8%) represented the highest percentage among the communication strategies. The second most employed strategy was approximation (16.64%) conscious transfer to L1 (12.48%), followed by miming (8.32%), and appealing for assistance (8.32%).

Among meaning negotiation strategies, comprehension checks were both equally employed by high and intermediate proficient learners to assure optimal understanding of their previous explanation when a concept they were not very sure about how to explain was introduced. Both the HP and IP learners employed them to check if the other student had understood whether the speaker referred to the elk by the approximation of calling him Rudolph or reindeer. In the second excerpt, the speaker asks for the second time to check for understanding on the approximation employed. It is interesting to note how the listener answers with a confirmation check to let the other know what he understood by the approximation employed. Once that mutual understanding was confirmed, the communication process continued.

Excerpt 1. Comprehension check in HP performance

HP1: Because they were a bear and a... a... like Rudolph. Yes?

HP2: Yes.

Excerpt 2. Comprehension and confirmation checks in HP performance

HP1: Then, Rudolph, well it was not Rudolph. *Yes?*

HP2: *Yes. The reindeer?*

Excerpt 3. Comprehension check in IP performance

IP1: There was a bridge that was passing eh... one bear and one elk, that is like a reindeer, *ok?*

IP2: Yes

The intermediate proficiency learners also employed a comprehension check to assure understanding of an extra explanation given on where the animal had been thrown. It was mainly used to assure clarity, as it was an important part of the story.

Excerpt 4. Comprehension check in IP performance.

IP1: And the bear throw the animal out of the bridge. On the earth, not down, *ok?*

IP2: Yes.

The recasts and clarification request that HP students used were employed when corrective feedback was being given. However, results concerning corrective feedback will be discussed later on. As we stated before, proficiency level matters when talking about strategy use. Accordingly, only HP students were able to produce recasts, as they require a more solid and accurate knowledge about the target language. As the following excerpt shows, HP learners are able to provide and understand an accurate recast providing modified output. Nevertheless, as the recast is not understood the first time, a clarification request is employed.

Excerpt 5. Recast and clarification request in HP performance

HP2: The two animals want to pass through the bridge.

HP1: The two animals *wanted* to pass.

HP2: *Eh?*

HP1: *Wanted* to pass.

HP2: Ah! The two animals wanted to pass.

The communication strategies most employed of paraphrase, approximation, and L1 transfer were all employed for the same reason. Both HP and IP students employed them when they did not know how to name the 'elk' and the "raccoon" and they had to refer to them in speech. As we saw before in excerpts 1 and 2, the HP learners recurred to the approximation strategy of instead of calling it 'elk', calling him Rudolph and reindeer. In the same line, IP students employ paraphrases and L1 transfers when having to refer to 'raccoon' as they forgot the name. Out of 12 times that they had to refer to racoon, in 5 occasions they employed a paraphrase like in excerpts 6 and 7, and other 7 times used their Spanish equivalent of 'mapache'. Out of all L1 transfers, three of them were carried out by IP1, and four of them by IP2 who did not employ another strategy to refer to this animal. Nevertheless, what it is important to highlight is that learners are able to employ strategies and therefore maintain the flow of conversation rather than stopping interaction.

Excerpt 6: Paraphrase in IP performance.

IP1: It pushed the bear and the bear throw the... ma... *the animal*.

Excerpt 7: Paraphrase in IP performance.

IP1: And then... *the animal on the side of the bear* and the rabbit cut... cutted the rope.

Miming and appealing for assistance (excerpts 8 and 9) were the two communication strategies the least employed by learners. Indeed, only IP students incorporated them in their discourse. The use of both strategies denoted that the learner's proficiency level did not match the discourse expectations; nevertheless, he is able to recur to them to make himself clear and understood. Both strategies are not as complex and do not require linguistic knowledge or strategies to be employed. Indeed a L1 transfer is

also being made in this utterance. Thus, this is the reason why we believe that only students with lower proficiency levels employ them.

Excerpt 8: Miming in IP performance.

IP1: ... one elk, that is like a reindeer, ok? With the horns (*hand gesture*).

Excerpt 9: Appealing for assistance in IP performance.

IP1: They are, mmmm cross... *¿Cruzar cómo se dice? Cross?*

IP2: Uhmm (affirmative)

In addition to the interaction strategies that had been classified by Ellis (2003), students also employed two extra strategies or communicational resources that had not been considered beforehand. Low proficient students in addition to the only paraphrase they had produced to refer to the word 'racoona' as 'an animal' two invented words were employed to refer to this same animal, 'gurback' and 'rogabt'. Their use of strategies improved as conversation flowed as the paraphrase was employed after both word inventions. In order to keep conversation flowing, LP and IP learners tried to help their partners on retelling the part they had previously explain by trying to elicit the information from their discourse as shown in excerpt 10.

Excerpt 10: Elicitation in IP performance.

IP1: And the rabbit and the animal, what?

IP2: I don't know.

IP1: At the beginning of your part the bridge is cut.

IP2: Yes.

IP1: So, the bridge is cut because the mapache and the rabbit... cutted...

The main target structure learners had to produce was verb tense in past simple tense. The third research question sought to find whether students were able to produce appropriate corrective feedback when their partner produced a mistaken utterance.

Table 2 summarizes the use of verbs in past, whether is correct or incorrect and the feedback received by their partners.

As in other research questions, proficiency level mattered in the amount of feedback produced among the partners. Both HP and IP provided only one single utterance of feedback. In the case of the HP learners, it only represented 1.61% of the total amount of verbs with a wrong tense produced. In the case of IP learners, feedback was provided in 2.56% of utterances that employed a wrong verb tense. Low proficient learners did not provide any feedback when the verb tense was not correct. Therefore, we can state that young learners are not able to produce feedback on the target structure, as it is almost non-existent. These results contrast with those reported by Bouffard and Mela (2008) where young children are able to produce and receive feedback and its use was beneficial.

Table 3: Verb tense and feedback provided depending on proficiency levels

		VERBS IN PAST		WRONG TENSE		FEEDBACK PROVIDED	
HIGH P.	HP1	9	30%	21	70%	1	4.76%
	HP2	10	31.25%	22	68.75%	-	-
	TOTAL	19	30.65%	43	69.35%	1	1.61%
INTERMEDIATE P.	IP1	9	25.71	26	74.28%	1	3.84%
	IP2	1	7.14%	13	92.85%	-	-
	TOTAL	10	20.41%	39	79.59%	1	2.56%
LOW P.	LP1	11	44%	14	56%	-	-
	LP2	2	28.57%	5	71.42%	-	-
	TOTAL	13	40.63%	19	59.37%	-	-

The students that produced the highest number of correct verbs in past were the high proficiency students who produced 19 verbs, followed by the low proficient students (13) and the intermediate proficient students (10). Nevertheless, it should be explained that variety of verb forms was almost non-existent among the low proficient students, as 11 out of the 13 correctly produced verbs were forms of the verb to be. In contraposition to this, HP and IP produced a much more varied quantity of verbs. It is

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important to note that some of the verb forms considered in the research as correct were a modified output produced out of self correction at the same instant of production, such as shown in excerpt 7. Even though, 'cutted' is not the correct verb form of the verb cut in past, it is considered as correct, as this irregular verb had not been previously introduced to the learners, but the intention of using past tense is present in the utterance. Although past tense and verb forms in past had been introduced before in class and worked through all the different skills, we can state that further practice and task repetition would be advisable for optimal acquisition as evidence shows that the concepts are not fully acquired yet.

The last research question seeks to determine whether mutual understanding is achieved between learners. To check this mutual understanding, we have principally examined the utterances produced to explain the second part of the story and those that the listener employs to retell it. It is meaningful to take this short part as a reference as the rabbit jumps over the racoon as it bends down to cross to the other side and it might induce some confusion unless it is well explained. High proficiency learners showed that originally they had not understood the process of crossing the bridge and it is necessary for them to retell the story and use communication strategies.

Excerpt 11. HP production

HP1: The bridge was broke so the rabbit jump and go through the other side?

HP2: No. The racoon comes through the bridge so they were like angry. But the racoon like... gets down (body gesture) to jump him (hand gesture) so like this they can pass the two.

HP1: Ah ok! So the racoon and the rabbit were angry, so the racoon em... get down... slide down... so that the rabbit can jump.

In this specific example we can see how repetition and strategy use can boost mutual understanding. IP learners, however, are not able to produce utterances as complex and explanatory as the previous partner and they do not use communication

strategies, thus mutual understanding is not achieved (excerpt 12). It is understood by the listener that the racoon falls down and the speaker does not explain the contrary.

Excerpt 12. IP production.

IP1: They cross so... so they can't pass but the mapache falls and the rabbit pass.

IP2: Yes.

Low proficiency learners do not reach understanding either and there is no presence of strategy using or reformulating (excerpt 13).

Excerpt 13. LP production.

LP1: The rabbit... eh the...find a racoon and they start to see him and they... they jump.

LP2: Yes, ok.

As we can see high proficient learners are more willing and are able to employ a higher range of strategies and have a more elevated number of resources to achieve understanding.

The self-evaluation questionnaires were a good resource for the teacher and the researcher not only to check on the students' opinion about their own progress, but also to give light and confirm the explanations we had given to results obtained. The table below shows the results of students' questionnaires.

Table 4: Self-evaluation questionnaires' results

	QUESTION	1	2	3	4	5
YES	HP	2				2
	IP	2	1	1	2	2
	LP	2	1	1	2	2
	TOTAL	100%	33%	33%	66%	100%
NO	HP		2	2	2	
	IP		1	1		
	LP		1	1		
	TOTAL	0%	66%	66%	33%	0%

Taking into account results for the first question, all six students reported to have liked the task, so a positive motivation towards it was being held in all cases. This is a very important factor in task implementation, however, we must note here that the task was proposed and implemented with the helper teacher so this fact might have biased students' answers to the question.

In questions 2, 3 and 4 dealing with difficulty with the story telling process, the understanding and retelling process of it, only students from the intermediate and low proficiency levels reported to have found difficulties in the task. The reason for this answer could depend on a various number of factors. However, we must note that students who admitted to find it difficult are very shy students that were tense, anxious, and intimidated during the process of recording. Thus, their attitude, feelings and emotional state towards the task might have varied. The actual performance might have also been deteriorated because of this affective filter barrier.

Regarding results concerning corrective feedback, all students agreed that they found it difficult to provide corrective feedback. This coincides with the results obtained for the last research question, and we can consider it as an explanation to the few amount of corrections provided.

2.2.1. Pedagogical implications

The present results have implications for educational practice. TBLT is proved to be a beneficial and adequate approach to implement in the classroom as it provides good opportunities for students' interaction. The study confirms that learners are able to successfully interact in the L2 language. Results and excerpts provided show that primary school children are capable of developing mutual understanding in their L2 using strategies and modifying their interactions, and in doing so, providing comprehensible input for their conversational partners. The production of this modified output using more appropriate forms promotes successful acquisition of language forms. Learners by implementing these authentic pedagogical tasks are acquiring and developing their own communicative strategies that can be used in discourse outside the classroom.

Corrective feedback was not generally found in the utterances produced by students; however, it is believed to improve learners' acquisition of grammatically correct forms in learners. Teachers should have this into account when designing the pre-task procedure of the task to show students how feedback could be provided for further occasions. Task repetition would also be advisable as familiar tasks provide learners with more opportunities to provide corrective feedback.

Other aspects such as motivation, anxiety, and self-esteem should be also taken into account as they highly affect learners' production. Teachers should try to design a task that takes into account learners' interests and proficiency levels for them to be comfortable with during the process. Tasks should also be presented in a motivating way for students to engage eagerly from the start in a classroom with an anxiety free environment, where learners know that the learning process is more important than the assessment or outcome. Learners should feel comfortable to express themselves in the target language without the fear of being judged when doing so.

CONCLUSIONES Y CUESTIONES ABIERTAS

Para concluir el estudio, queríamos poner de manifiesto la importancia de la práctica del lenguaje oral como un recurso pedagógico más en el contexto de las clases de inglés como segunda lengua. Tradicionalmente, y tal y como se ha explicado en la primera parte de la revisión de la literatura, se le ha dado poca importancia a su práctica en las aulas. La atención se ha focalizado principalmente en el aspecto gramatical de la lengua. Sin embargo, es importante dotar a los alumnos de posibilidades para aplicar en el contexto del aula los conocimientos aprendidos a través de prácticas pedagógicas que ayuden a los alumnos a adquirir estrategias para aplicarlas en la vida real.

El presente estudio ha propuesto una alternativa a esta enseñanza tradicional que ha habido en las aulas, diseñando un enfoque basado en tareas o 'Task-based Language Teaching'. La utilización de este enfoque se ha basado en los fundamentos teóricos explicados anteriormente acerca del mismo y en los numerosos estudios que han probado que la interacción de los alumnos a través de dichas prácticas favorece la adquisición del lenguaje. La utilización de tareas en la clase de inglés supone el diseñar las mismas utilizándolas no sólo como medio si no también como fin. Es decir, las tareas forman el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje.

El diseño de la tarea propuesta para el estudio se ha basado en los aspectos resaltados de la revisión de bibliografía, como los componentes principales de las tareas a tener en cuenta, los tipos de tareas principales y los beneficios de las mismas, la metodología a seguir y el proceso de evaluación ideal. Por ello, se ha hecho una propuesta a los alumnos que incluye una motivante forma de presentar la tarea a través de un corto animado y una serie de objetivos a cumplir que favorezcan la utilización de un lenguaje funcional y significativo. El proceso de la tarea ha sido diseñado de tal forma que los alumnos tuvieran que incluir los conocimientos adquiridos en las clases y necesitaran utilizar estrategias comunicativas que favorecen la adquisición.

A través de la implementación de la tarea en el aula se ha podido demostrar los beneficios que aportan las mismas al aprendizaje de idiomas. Los alumnos y alumnas han desarrollado eficazmente las tareas aumentando significativamente el lenguaje

producido en lengua inglesa. Se ha demostrado que los estudiantes son capaces de interactuar y trabajar cooperativamente para lograr el objetivo deseado. A su vez, han sido capaces de utilizar estrategias comunicativas que aumentan la adquisición del lenguaje. Sin embargo, hemos visto como el nivel de competencia de los estudiantes en la lengua influye en el uso de las mismas, ya que se marca una tendencia general de mayor uso entre los hablantes con un nivel más bajo. Sin embargo, no podemos afirmar que esto sea generalizado debido a la influencia de los factores afectivos en los sujetos del presente estudio y el reducido número de participantes. De esta manera se ha demostrado que la motivación la auto-estima y la ansiedad que la tarea pueda producir en el sujeto, son aspectos destacables a tener en cuenta. El uso de feedback correctivo no ha sido generalizado tampoco, posiblemente por lo demandante que resultaba en estudiantes de nivel intermedio.

Por último, para futuros estudios sería interesante incorporar los factores afectivos como variables y ver el grado en el que influyen en la implementación de la tarea. Asimismo, sería necesario comprobar la tendencia presentada por los resultados actuales con un número de participantes mayor y más representativo.

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