A task-based approach to materials design and evaluation for upper elementary Thai EFL learners การออกแบบและประเมินสื่อการเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ แบบภาระงานสำหรับผู้เรียนชาวไทยระดับชั้นประถมศึกษาตอนปลาย

Received: May 14, 2019

Revised: *July 18, 2019*

Accepted: October 18, 2019

Pinyapat Peemmetasawad

ภิญญาพัชญ์ ภีมเมธาสวัสดิ์
Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University
คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์
pinyapat.peem@gmail.com

Melada Sudajit-apa

เมลดา สุดาจิตรอาภา

Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์ melada.s@arts.tu.ac.th

Abstract

English language teaching textbooks used in most Thai schools are grammar-driven and do not seem to support communicative skills development. This study focuses on the development and use of EFL materials that specifically aim to encourage English communication for Grade 4 students at a non-tradition school in Bangkok, Thailand. Additionally, this study intends to explore the suitability and effectiveness of the designed materials, relying on a task-based approach intertwined with Vygotsky's Sociocultural theory to determine if they fulfill the students' needs for communicative tasks. The designed materials were implemented with two English language classes taught by two different teachers and then evaluated through video/audio-based classroom observations, student questionnaires, as well as in-depth interviews with teachers and students. The research methodology was a mixed-method research methodology, focusing more on qualitative methods. The qualitative data from the classroom observations, teaching notes about the designed materials, open-ended questions in the questionnaires and the interviews were used to analyze task effectiveness, whereas the quantitative data was used to validate the analysis. The findings revealed that unstructured tasks were not suitable for beginner level learners. The learners had insufficient language to produce the output by themselves and relied heavily on Thai, their first language (L1) to perform the task. Moreover, the teacher's use of L1 and English (L2) also affected how the learners acquired the target language. When the teacher in the study accommodated the learners by translating their input and instruction into Thai, the learners could understand better but faced difficulty expressing themselves in English. Therefore, when designing EFL materials for young learners, tasks should be designed to suit the learners' language level and a teaching manual that describes a variety of appropriate feedback needs to be written for teachers to use task-based materials effectively.

Keywords: Task-based approach, EFL materials development, English language teaching and learning, young learners, communicative language teaching

บทคัดย่อ

หนังสือเรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้สำหรับการเรียนการสอนในโรงเรียนไทยส่วนใหญ่มุ่งเน้นการสอนเรื่อง ไวยากรณ์เป็นหลัก แต่ไม่ส่งเสริมการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษเท่าที่ควร ดังนั้นในงานวิจัยนี้ ผู้วิจัยจึงศึกษาความ เหมาะสมและประสิทธิภาพของสื่อการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับนักเรียนชั้นประถมศึกษาปีที่ 4 โรงเรียนทางเลือกแห่งหนึ่งในกรุงเทพมหานคร ด้วยการจัดทำสื่อการเรียนรู้ที่มุ่งเน้นการสื่อสารผ่านการจัด กิจกรรมการเรียนรู้โดยอาศัยภาระงาน ผู้วิจัยได้ประเมินและพัฒนาสื่อการเรียนรู้นี้ขึ้นตามทฤษฎีการจัดการ เรียนรู้ผ่านภาระงาน (Task-Based Approach) และการเรียนรู้แนวสังคมวัฒนธรรมของไวก็อตสกี้ จากนั้นจึง นำไปทดลองใช้ในห้องเรียนภาษาอังกฤษจำนวน 2 ห้อง ซึ่งสอนโดยครูผู้สอน 2 คนและประเมินโดยใช้ข้อมูล จากการสังเกตห้องเรียนด้วยการบันทึกเสียงและภาพวีดิทัศน์ การทำแบบสอบถาม และการสัมภาษณ์ทั้ง ครูผู้สอนและนักเรียน งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้เป็นการวิจัยแบบผสมผสานที่เน้นเชิงคุณภาพเป็นหลัก ข้อมูลวิจัยเชิง คุณภาพที่ได้จากการสังเกตห้องเรียน บันทึกการสอนของครูที่มีต่อแบบเรียน คำถามปลายเปิดในแบบสอบถาม และการสัมภาษณ์ถูกนำมาใช้เพื่อประเมินคุณภาพของภาระงาน ส่วนข้อมูลวิจัยเชิงปริมาณได้ถูกนำมาประกอบ ใช้เพื่อให้ผลการวิจัยสมบูรณ์ยิ่งขึ้น ผลการวิจัยพบว่าภาระงานที่ไม่มีรูปแบบตายตัว ไม่เหมาะสมกับทักษะและ ระดับความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนในระดับเริ่มต้น เนื่องจากนักเรียนมีความรู้และทักษะทาง ภาษาอังกฤษไม่เพียงพอที่จะสร้างชิ้นงานได้เองและมักจะใช้ภาษาไทยซึ่งเป็นภาษาที่ 1 ในการทำงาน นอกจากนี้การสลับใช้ภาษาที่ 1 และ ภาษาอังกฤษ (ภาษาที่ 2) ของครูในห้องเรียนยังส่งผลต่อการรับรู้ ภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนอีกด้วย ผลการวิจัยชี้ว่าเมื่อครูแปลข้อมูลให้นักเรียนเป็นภาษาไทย นักเรียนสามารถ เข้าใจสิ่งที่ครูพูดได้มากขึ้นแต่ก็ยังไม่สามารถอธิบายสิ่งที่ตนเองคิดเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้ ดังนั้น ในการออกแบบ บทเรียนสำหรับนักเรียนประถมศึกษาตอนปลายควรมุ่งเน้นไปที่กิจกรรมการใช้ภาษาที่มีระดับเหมาะสมและ สร้างคู่มือสำหรับครูเพื่ออธิบายการให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับ เพื่อให้แน่ใจว่าครูสามารถใช้แบบเรียนแบบภาระงานได้ อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ

คำสำคัญ: แนวคิดการเรียนรู้ผ่านภาระงาน, การพัฒนาสื่อการเรียนการสอน, การเรียนการสอน ภาษาอังกฤษ, ผู้เรียนที่เป็นเยาวชน, การสอนภาษาแบบสื่อสาร

1. Introduction

Since 1999, Thailand's Ministry of Education has announced plans for educational reforms to improve the overall educational system and standards (Namuang, 2010). The English language curriculum in the Basic Education Core Curriculum has continuously developed, shifting the focus from grammar instruction to a communicative approach, with the aim to strengthen learners' communicative competence. However, on referring to the annual EF English proficiency reports (https://www.ef.co.th/epi/), it can be noted that Thai learners are still considered quite low proficiency English language users who appear to lack communicative competence. Communicative competence is the integration of the grammatical, functional, sociolinguistic and strategic knowledge necessary for successful communication (Richards, 2006; Savignon, 2018). Moreover, research on English language education in Thailand (e.g. Chuanchaisit & Prapphal, 2009; Kongkerd, 2013; Nomnian, 2013; Somdee & Suppasetseree, 2013; Wiriyachittra, 2002) has shown that Thai learners, from elementary to higher education levels, often have difficulty communicating in English. Research has suggested that English language learners in Thailand find learning the language uninspiring and unchallenging due to lack of opportunities to participate and engage in the use of English (Wiriyachittra, 2002). Despite the fact that the curriculum of English language teaching and learning is based on communication, materials adopted by Thai schools are still far from effective for communicative learning. Additionally, English language teachers in Thailand are unversed in providing communication-based lessons (Biyaem, 1997, cited in Wiriyachittra, 2002). The content and methods in the textbooks are grammar-oriented. Those then determine the teacher's focus on grammar drilling and decontextualized vocabulary rote memorization. Moreover, commercial textbooks, which are designed for language learners worldwide, are irrelevant and uninteresting to Thai students as they do not fit the needs of the learners (Nomnian, 2013; Noom-ura, 2013). Hence, due to teacher's current status of skills, coupled with low motivation of the learners, and the lack of tasks integrating the use of the target language to communicate in authentic situations in the classroom context, Thai learners are not successful in learning and communicating in English (Noom-ura, 2013; Thep-ackrapong, 2005).

Plearnpattana School, a non-traditional school in Bangkok where this current study was undertaken, reflects these problems. Plearnpattana students are exposed to English as early as kindergarten, but many of the students still have difficulty communicating in English by Grade 6. The textbook *Come to Live*, with its focus on grammar and drills was used in the

elementary level despite the school curriculum highlighting six areas of language learning – reading, writing, listening, speaking, vocabulary and grammar. Such a grammar-centered textbook directly influenced how teachers conducted lessons, focusing their instruction on grammar, excluding communicative tasks. It was mutually agreed among Plearnpattana EFL teachers that learning English through grammar practice, rote memorization of vocabulary, dictation, and grammar tests lowered students' motivation to learn. The grammar-driven textbook together with the teacher's lack of experience to create effective communicative tasks from such kind of textbooks lessened the chances for the learners to communicate effectively in English. Moreover, when communicative tasks found places in the classroom, the learners had difficulty expressing themselves in English due to vocabulary limitations, while the teachers also exhibited a limited capacity to provide direct feedback for their students' language development. Consequently, the learners' ability to communicate in English was not developed properly.

Bearing these issues in mind, in this study, a set of English language learning materials was developed using task-based principles for a five-week Grade 4 EFL course. A task-based language classroom is claimed to be more likely to promote successful communicative learning than other types of instruction (Rooney, 2000) including the ones practiced at the school. In this study, the task-based materials were intended to extend the opportunities for learners to interact with both peers and teachers in meaningful situations, resembling real-life. The study involved a total of 42 fourth-graders whose English proficiency was at the 'beginner' level, in an attempt to boost their classroom interaction in the target language. This was a convenience sampling with a mix of both male and female students. To investigate whether the designed materials met the perceived needs of the learners and teachers, it was important to implement them in authentic classroom settings. The study relied on the following research instruments: video recordings, classroom observation, questionnaires and in-depth interviews with both the teachers and learners. These instruments served to discover the learners' and teachers' reactions to the tasks; how the tasks were perceived by the learners; and the roles that the teachers took to assist learners' task performance.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Young learners and language learning

Young language learners are defined as those of age from around five up to 13 years whose language learning requires tasks that are age-appropriate and interesting to maintain

their short-term motivation (Hasselgreen, 2005). Before teaching young learners, a teacher needs to understand their learning processes and language development. Young-learner researchers (Cameron, 2001; Pinter, 2017) have highlighted Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in their work; which suggests that social interactions play a significant role in child cognitive development. More than that, it states that cognitive development actually begins when the child first learns to do things through interaction with others. In order for young learners to learn new things, they need systematic support or scaffolding to make sure that they are confident enough to do a task independently (Pinter, 2017). The child then becomes more independent in doing the things they learned, a process called internalization (Cameron, 2001).

Researchers have agreed that when learning, young EFL learners are able to understand meaning without knowing every word (Halliwell, 1992; Harmer, 2001; Phillips, 1993). They also learn indirectly from the environment around them through seeing, hearing, touching and interacting with it rather than focusing only on the topic that is being taught in class. As young children lose interest easily, one way to maintain their attention is to allow them to use their imagination (Halliwell, 1992). Tasks for young learners should also be relevant to their life (Halliwell, 1992) and clear, in terms of process and purpose, including the learner's and the teacher's roles, to prevent learners from becoming off-task (Carless, 2003). Moreover, since social interactions are critical for language development in language learners (Mackey, 2006), in the language classroom context L2 learners must be equipped with opportunities to interact with others through a carefully designed series of tasks which involve them in input-interaction-output processes (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Cameron, 2001).

2.2 Task-based approach and materials development

Task-based learning has had a role in communicative language learning to bridge the gap of focus-on-forms approaches since the 1980s. Task-based language teaching aims to develop learners' L2 by engaging them in a series of communicative tasks moving from focused to unfocused tasks (Ellis, 2011), or input-based to output-based depending on their language level (Ellis, 2017). A task provides a meaningful context for communication to take place in a classroom (Bygate, 2018). It focuses on meaning rather than forms (Nunan, 2004) and involves learners' cognitive and behavioral performances to yield an outcome (Dörnyei, 2002). In TBLT, learners function as 'language users' rather than 'language learners' (Ellis, 2003; Van den Branden, 2006). Communicative tasks resemble real-life activities, allowing learners to utilize their own language resources to negotiate for meaning (Ellis, 2009a), and accumulate fluency

and form through incidental learning (Ellis, 2018), facilitating language development for L2 learners.

Apart from using tasks for oral communicative purposes, writing can also be taught through TBLT as it enables the teacher to understand the learners' language use even more clearly (Yasuda, 2018). When designing a task, the teacher should consider the following features: input, conditions, processes, and outcomes (Ellis, 2003). First, *input* is the information data contributing to the task to activate the learners' schemata, as well as words and sentence structures relevant to the topic; second, *conditions* refer to the way in which the input data or the task is going to be performed; *processes* are the cognitive operations that occur while the learners perform the task. The types of cognitive operations include selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing information, and transforming information from one form to another (Ellis, 2003; 2009a). Finally, *outcomes* are the products of a task performance. The outcomes may be in written or oral forms, with closed or open results, depending on the conditions and the task type. In addition to the features mentioned, tasks in a language course should be sequenced according to their *complexity* which demands more intricate concepts and linguistic features as the tasks progress (Robinson, 2005).

Willis (1996) suggested three phases of task-based instruction which consist of pre-task, task cycle, and language focus. The pre-task phase provides opportunities for the teacher to introduce the topic and prepare the learners for the task by activating their schema, words, and linguistic features that are relevant to the task. Here the learners perform the task using their existing linguistic and non-linguistic resources. Finally, the explicit teaching and learning of the specific language features take place in the language focus phase where learners may be given an opportunity to repeat a task in order to improve their task performance. Accuracy is the main objective practiced during the post-task phase, but, as suggested by Willis (1996), language-awareness-raising tasks or consciousness-raising tasks may be included in the pre-task phase for learners to implement the linguistic features in a controlled activity. Consciousness-raising tasks focus on grammar or pragmatic features which aid learners in understanding linguistic rules (Ellis, 2017). These tasks allow practice in using grammatical and lexical features to reduce the pressure of producing limited language output for low-proficiency learners, whereas higher proficiency learners may not need practice to aid them in performing the communicative task (Richards, 2006).

To determine the quality of designed tasks and materials, a process of materials evaluation must take place. Task-oriented materials allow teachers to see how learners use

language and perform tasks; thus, teachers can garner empirical evidence of what reactions learners have towards implemented tasks and materials leading to verifiable materials evaluation (Rooney, 2000). McGrath (2002, pp.14-15) suggested a systematic way to evaluate teaching and learning materials in three phases: *pre-use evaluation, in-use evaluation* and *post-use evaluation*. The pre-use evaluation is when the decision is made about what materials to be used in the course. Meanwhile, the in-use evaluation, which is the focus of this study, is carried out while the materials are being implemented to evaluate whether it is working well for the learners, what should be removed or added to enhance the effectiveness of the materials. Lastly, the post-use evaluation takes place after the course to evaluate the effects of the materials on the learners' motivation, retention or application.

As mentioned above, TBLT highlights the process of meaning making and negotiation allowing learners to structure their own L2 resources and, through interactions, restructure their utterances; and in so doing, the learners develop their L2 proficiency (Ellis, 2009b; 2018). A type of interaction between teachers and language learners is a naturalistic conversation where the teacher plays the role of an interlocutor, not instructor, treating learners as equals (Boxer & Cortes-Conde, 2000). During communicative interaction and meaning negotiation in the task-based classroom, learners may receive corrective feedback that helps them develop their language in different areas ranging from phonology, lexical and semantic aspects (Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000). Corrective feedback is necessary to be promoted by the teacher to help raise the learners' self-awareness of their utterances (Mackey, 2006) assisting learners in acquiring target language through the process of internalizing forms (Ellis, 2018; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster, 2004). This interactional process between the teacher and the learners is beneficial for language development especially for low-proficient learners as they can learn how to express themselves appropriately through corrections from the teacher. The corrective feedback needs to be given in a variety of forms relying on both explicit (i.e. explicit correction, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation) and implicit (i.e. recast, repetition and clarification request) feedback to meet individual learners' needs to improve their language use (Ellis, 2009b; Tedick & De Gortari, 1998).

In summary, it is essential for language teachers to provide opportunities for their EFL learners to use English to interact with one another and with the teacher through meaningful communicative tasks, focused or awareness-raising tasks, as well as processes of negotiation for meaning. This allows language development to occur. In this present study, the task-based approach was implemented in developing English language teaching materials to replace the

grammar-based ones previously used at Plearnpattana School. The effectiveness and appropriateness in developing the learners' classroom interaction in the target language were further evaluated.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The teaching and learning process in the classroom involved two teachers teaching two separate classes, each with 20 – 22 students. The two teachers, one of whom was the main researcher, implemented the designed tasks and materials in 90-minute classes each week throughout the period of five weeks. To triangulate and validate the data collection, there was another teacher, who had 11-years teaching experience, to observe the classes and take note of what happened. Video recordings were made if the teacher observer was not available. The interpretations of both teachers' and learner's behaviors were analyzed along with the observation notes.

3.1.1 Learners

The participants in this study were 42 fourth-graders, aged 9 – 10, instructed by two teachers. The two classes involved in the study consisted of students whose English proficiency ranged from basic to lower intermediate level. The language proficiency of the learner participants was determined prior to the study through the normal work cycle of class observation and discussion with the teachers in the previous year coupled with the results of the school's language proficiency test at the beginning of the year. That English language proficiency test aims to determine each learner's overall language proficiency in reading, writing, listening and speaking. The results showed that the participants' English language proficiency was lower than the grade level average. Table 1 shows the scores of the school's proficiency test of the learner participants. Compared to the non-participant groups, the participants had lower English proficiency and showed lower motivation towards learning English. The learner participants were convenience sampled, meaning that they were the available population in the context of this study. Table 2 displays the learner participant gender distribution in this study.

Table 1 The results of the proficiency test from the school

	Grade 4 students' proficiency	s' proficiency Learner participants' proficiency	
	test results (N = 95)	test results (N = 42)	
Maximum score	98%	68%	
Minimum score	20%	20%	
Average score	61%	45%	
Median	60%	45%	

Table 2 Learner participants

Class	Male	Female	Total
Class A	12	8	20
Class B	12	10	22
	24	18	42

3.1.2 Teachers

The designed materials were implemented by the two teachers (referred to as Teacher A and Teacher B, and the teaching and learning observation was carried out by another teacher (referred to as Teacher C) to triangulate the data collection procedure. Table 3 presents the teacher participants' age, nationality, educational background and teaching experience.

Table 3 Teachers' general information

Teacher A	Teacher A Teacher B	
(Teacher participant)	(Teacher participant)	(Non-participant observer)
Thai	Filipina	Filipina
28 years old	33 years old	34 years old
BA in Liberal Arts	BA in Secondary Education	MA in Reading Education
5 years of teaching	13 years of teaching	11 years of teaching
experience	experience	experience

3.2 The design of the materials

The tasks and materials were designed in an attempt to increase learners' opportunities to interact in English as the tasks in the designed materials put an emphasis on communication. The process of materials design followed the task-based materials planning by Ellis (2003) incorporating the learners' background information that was obtained through observation, teacher discussion and a proficiency test prior to the study. The materials implemented in this study were designed according to the task-based framework (Ellis, 2003):

- 1) The objective was to write and talk about food and drink recipes.
- 2) The determined theme was food and drink.
- 3) The language and skills that were developed were listening, speaking, reading and writing.
 - 4) The tasks were sequenced from word level to discourse level.

The tasks were partly structured, in which learners were instructed to use the target language features in performing the tasks. During group tasks, the learners' roles were to plan and manage the tasks within their groups. Group leaders were assigned to monitor the work progress in each group. In individual tasks, the learners were asked to carry out the tasks independently but could consult a peer when they had some difficulty. The teacher's role was to provide opportunities for English dialogue between the learners and the teacher, and also among the learners themselves, as well as facilitate the learners in completing the set task.

The learner participants in this study had limited vocabulary to perform communicative tasks; therefore, vocabulary build-up pages were included in the designed materials for individual learners to expand their vocabulary about the topic. As the designed materials sought to gradually enhance the learners' necessary vocabulary and language in order to perform the final task, the texts were presented in order of complexity, from short and precise to longer and more complicated, with more linguistic devices and lexis. The language focus was on conjunctions, imperative sentences and quantifiers, all related to creating food and drink recipes. The task-based instruction was divided into pre-task, while-task and post-task phases. Table 4 shows how the tasks were sequenced, and Table 5 describes the task design.

The pre-task phase, which allowed the teacher to introduce the topic of the task by activating the learners' schemata, relevant words and phrases, included:

- Unlocking vocabulary
- Input of reading texts

- Watching a cooking demonstration
- Performing a similar task

In the while-task phase, during which the learners were given the chance to perform the task relying on their own knowledge, the tasks were:

- Role-play
- Writing a recipe

Finally, the post-task phase, where the language focus takes place for explicit vocabulary and language points, teaching included:

- Brainstorming nouns and verbs related to food and drinks
- Sequencing words (i.e. first, next, then, after and finally)
- Imperative sentences
- Quantifiers (e.g. a slice of bread, a can of condensed milk)

Table 4 The designed tasks

Task	Pre-Task	During-Task	Post-Task
Task 1	- Lexical input: Food	- Role-play:	- Brainstorm verbs
Shopping and Verb	items	Shop for	that can be used
Mind-Maps	- Brainstorm what	ingredients	with other
	ingredients from the		ingredients and
	lexical input are needed		present in the form
	for the recipe		of mind-maps
			- Presentation of the
			mind-maps
			- Language focus:
			Verbs about cooking
Task 2	- Review <i>The Toys'</i>	- Write a recipe of	- Presentation of
Food for Kipper's	Party	the food you'll	recipes
Party	- Read <i>Strawberry Jam</i>	bring to Kipper's	- Language focus:
	Toast recipe	party	1) Imperative
	- Awareness-raising		sentences
	activity: Notice how to		2) Sequencing words
	write a recipe		

Task	Pre-Task	During-Task	Post-Task
			3) Making corrections
			to your recipe
Task 3	- Review:	- Write a drink	- Presentation of
Writing a Drink Recipe	Arrange the steps of	recipe	drink recipes
	how to make (grill a		- Language focus:
	steak, red lime soda,		1) Quantifiers
	paper dragon puppet,		2) Make corrections
	strawberry jam toast)		to your recipe
	- Teacher's		
	demonstration of a		
	cooking show		
	- Read <i>Red Lime Soda</i>		
	recipe		
	- Awareness-raising		
	activity: quantifying the		
	ingredients		

Table 5 Task design features of the developed tasks

Task	Input	Conditions	Processes	Outcomes
Task 1	Pictorial (flash	Discussion with	Select the	Open, written
Shopping	cards) of the food	groupmates the	needed	results of verb
and verbs	items and	drink/sandwich	ingredients, then	mind-maps of the
mind-	dialogic	they want to	brainstorm for	ingredients each
maps	discussion about	recreate, role-	verbs related to	group purchased
	them	play (learners are	the food items	
		shoppers and		
		teachers as		
		shopkeepers) to		
		buy ingredients,		

Task	Input	Conditions	Processes	Outcomes
		and writing of		
		mind-maps		
		associating the		
		purchased food		
		items with verbs		
		related to them		
Task 2	Text input (How	Writing a	Sequence the	Open, written
Writing a	to Make	sandwich/drink	steps of	results of
recipe for	Strawberry Jam	recipe based on	sandwich/drink	sandwich/drink
Kipper's	Toast) containing	the purchased	making and	recipes consisting
party	target linguistic	ingredients from	clarify the	of different
	features (i.e.	Task 1, using	procedure of the	ingredients
	sequencing words	imperatives and	recipe	
	and imperative	sequencing words		
	sentences)	to write the		
		recipe		
Task 3	Demonstration	Writing a drink	Sequence the	Open, written
Writing a	(oral and action)	recipe using	steps of drink	results of clear
drink	and text input	sequencing	recipe, and clarify	instruction
recipe	(How to Make	words,	the amount of	(containing
	Red Lime Soda)	imperatives and	ingredients and	sequencing words
	containing target	quantifiers	the procedure of	and imperative
	linguistic features		the recipe	sentences) and
	(i.e. sequencing			specific amount
	words, imperative			of each
	sentences and			ingredient (using
	quantifiers)			quantifiers)

(Adapted from Ellis, 2003)

3.3 Data collection and analysis

This study was carried out using a mixed-method research methodology. The justification for this choice is that it was essentially qualitative research with quantitative data incorporated to reduce data interpretation subjectivity. The classes were observed by a non-participant

observer, Teacher C, who made notes of the learners and teachers' behavior during each phase of the tasks. When Teacher C was absent, the classes were video-recorded and transcribed. Questionnaires, which contained both closed-ended questions for statistical data and open-ended questions for qualitative data, were given out to the learners at the end of each task. Then, semi-structured interviews were carried out and transcribed, both with the teachers and the learners, who were classified as 'active', 'neutral' and 'passive'. This research was set out to evaluate the effectiveness of the tasks and materials - whether they were able to increase learners' communication during the actual implementation (in-use evaluation). The data collection and analysis, therefore, focused mainly on the teachers' and learners' reactions, regardless of learners' improvement in test scores. The aforementioned data was then interpreted and examined to find out the reactions of the learners and teachers towards the tasks and materials as an in-use evaluation (McGrath, 2002) and how they motivated the learners to learn English as a post-use evaluation (McGrath, 2002), which showed whether the designed tasks and materials were effective in terms of developing learners' communicative competence and motivation.

4. Findings and discussion

In this section the analysis of the materials evaluation during the actual implementation will be discussed in greater detail, in relation to how the learners responded to the tasks and materials, and also how the teachers interpreted and interacted with the learners. The effects of the designed tasks and materials on learners' motivation will be examined through both the learners' perceptions and teachers' roles.

4.1 Learners' reactions to the designed tasks

4.1.1 Pre-task phase

Prior to having the learners participate in a role-play task in which they acted as customers deciding on their recipe and buying the required ingredients from the shopkeeper played by the teacher, they were guided through flashcards (Figure 1) to build up the necessary vocabulary.

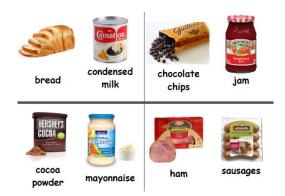


Figure 1 Examples of the flashcards used during the lexical input

However, the learners appeared to have difficulties keeping up with the lexical input of Teacher A and Teacher B. To be precise, there were 42 words presented and the whole process took about 30 minutes in both classes. This process of lexical input was too long, and the learners lost focus. Both Teacher A and Teacher B reported in their teaching notes that the learners appeared to be interested in the flashcards at first, but they became disengaged shortly after the first few words were introduced. Moreover, according to Teacher C, fewer students looked at the flashcards as more words were presented to them, and the small talks between the students increased towards the end of the lexical input part. Excerpts from the observation notes are as followed:

"The students seemed to be excited when the teacher showed them pictures of food. But less students read and repeated after teacher after a while.....[Student A, Student B and Student C] did not look at the flashcards anymore and they talked to each other all the time..... More students began to talk about what they wanted to make." (Teacher C, Task 1)

It was also revealed that the learners had limited vocabulary and often used Thai as the main language to interact with the teacher during the lexical input. Excerpts from an interview with the teachers are shown below:

"The kids very much liked to answer in Thai. They had difficulties answering in English even though the words were just written there. Their first responses were in Thai and I had to help them read the words out. There was also no retention of the words which made it difficult for them to read or write the words during the task." (Teacher A, Task 1)

Another pre-task activity was brainstorming. A brainstorming activity assisted the learners to prepare for the task. From the observation notes, the learners were engaged in discussing among their group during brainstorming activities. For example, based on Teacher C's observation notes, while brainstorming about the recipe and ingredients, the learners were eagerly planning for their shopping list. They, then, enthusiastically wrote in the ESL shopping slip, shown in Figure 2, to prepare for their shopping task. It was remarked that this activity increased the learners' participation compared to the previous activity, as shown in an excerpt from the observation notes below:

"[The learners] are very active in discussing and explaining to each other during the preparation for the shopping. The talk about what ingredients they want and then enthusiastically write on their shopping list. The learners seem to be more engaged than the flashcard activity." (Teacher C, Task 1)

In addition to Teacher C's comment, the video recordings revealed that while brainstorming in groups, the learners used Thai as the main language of discussion. This could be the reason why the learners became more engaged in the discussion whereas when the task required them to use English, fewer students were engaged in the task (see 4.1.2).

Another pre-task activity was *performing a similar task*. This kind of activity serves as a step-by-step guide on how to perform the task (Ellis, 2006). From the video recordings, both teachers selected bread as an example to explain the Verb Mind-Maps. Figure 3 shows an example of the pre-task outcome that acted as a guide for the learners before doing the actual task. The video recordings showed that both Teacher A and Teacher B guided the learners to come up with the things that could be done with bread and wrote them in a mind-map on the board. The extracts below showed how the teachers asked questions to generate the verbs from the students:

T: What can we do with bread?

L1: Kin eat.

Translation: Eat. Eat.

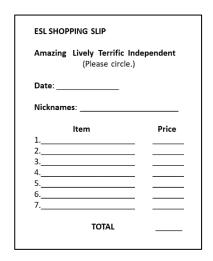
L2: Cook.

T: Cook? How?

L2: Cook!

T: We don't say cook the bread. We say bake.

(Teacher A, Task 1)



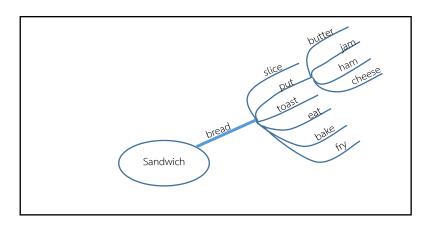


Figure 2 ESL Shopping Slip

Figure 3 Example for the pre-task outcome: Verb mind-

Additionally, text input was used as an awareness-raising activity for Tasks 2 and 3, allowing learners to notice a form that would be useful for the writing. Figure 4 shows an example of the text input that contains the target sentence structures for Task 2 writing output - sequencing words and imperative sentences. Unfamiliar words were also 'unlocked' to assist the learners in understanding the text better. The extracts below illustrate an example of how teachers 'unlocked' new words with their classes:

T: Okay so first of course you have to prepare bread, jam and butter. Next, toast the bread. What do you use to toast the bread? Anyone? What do you use to toast the bread?

L1: Knife.

T: Knife? Toast...toast plae wa arai?
Knife? Toast...toast แปลว่าอะไร?

Translation: Knife? Toast...what does toast mean?

L2: *tha*

Translation: Spread.

T: How do you toast the bread? Huh? Look at your [workbook] here. You use a toaster to toast the bread. Right?

L2: ping khanom pang ปั้งขนมปัง

Translation: Toast the bread.

- T: So toast the bread! Next spread butter. This is a bread. You spread butter. <Use her hand to act out how to spread butter.>
- T: Can we say prepare? Prepare plae wa arai anyone? Can we say prepare? Use your dictionary! Go!

Can we say prepare? Prepare แปลว่าอะไร anyone? Can we say prepare? Use your dictionary! Go!

Translation: Can we say prepare? What does prepare mean, anyone? Can we say prepare? Use your dictionary! Go!

(Teacher B, Task 2)

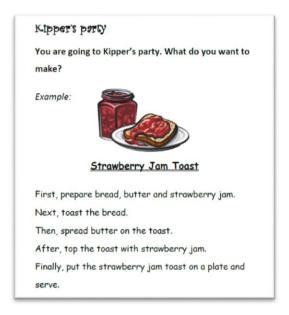


Figure 4 Example of text input in the pre-task phase

The last preparation activity before the writing task was watching a drink-making demonstration by the teachers. The learners appeared to be interested in the demonstration and participated in the dialogue with the teachers. Excerpts from Teacher B's class illustrated the interaction between the teacher and the learners during the demonstration.

- T: ...So today you will be watching a cooking show with Teacher [B]. Imagine I am on TV and you are watching a show. So what do I have here? What is this?
- L1: Bottle.
- T: Huh? <ppens the bucket>
- L2: Ice!
- T: Ice! Okay so what do you call this one? <points to the bucket>
- L2: Bottle.

T: A bucket of ice. Can you say it? A bucket of ice.

L2: A bucket of ice.

T: OK. What else? Oh...what is this?

SS: Hale's Blue Boy!

T: In English how do you call this?

L3: Sala...

T: Sala syrup. Okay? So sala syrup. But we only need one cup of this. So I'll pour it. I'll use only one cup because we cannot use the whole bottle. It's very sweet. And oh...what is this?

L4: Soda!

T: What's this?

Ls: Soda!

T: This is lime soda. What do you call...is this a bottle?

L5: Can.

(Teacher B, Task 3)

After preparing the learners with input and the above pre-task activities, the learners were led to carry out the task by themselves. Despite the aforementioned input, the learners still appeared to have difficulty carrying out the task (the while-task phase) due to inadequate vocabulary to express themselves both orally and in written work. This will be discussed in the next section.

4.1.2 While-task phase

Following the learning preparation in the pre-task phase, two types of tasks were implemented: communicative (Task 1) and writing (Tasks 2 and 3). After the lexical input described in the preceding section, the learners performed a role play with the teacher in which they were the customers at a grocery store and the teacher was a shopkeeper. Based on the observation notes of Teacher C, the learners showed interest in shopping and were very much involved in choosing which items to buy. However, according to the video recordings, while they worked within their groups to select the required ingredients they used Thai, and the only time they tried to communicate in English was when they engaged in the role play at the checkout with the teacher. The group leaders were the ones who communicated with the teachers in English and translated for their groupmates. The extracts

below show that the learners switched their language to English when they talked to the teacher but not to their classmates.

T: What did you get?

L1: Bread, ham, sausage.

T: So, you're making a sandwich?

L2: Yes.

T: One hundred fifty.

L1: <Speaks to groupmates> Roi ha sip <Speaks to groupmates> ร้อยห้าสิบ

Translation: One hundred fifty.

(Teacher B, Task 1)

Teacher A reported in her teaching notes that due to time constraint, she could not interact with all of her learners.

"Only a few students from each group got to talk to me in English because it was quite chaotic during that time. The shop was small, and all students were shopping at the same time. I couldn't try to push all of them to have a conversation with me because we were running out of time." (Teacher A, Task 1)

When working together in a group setting, the learner participants who led the task performance were the ones who could contribute the most, hence, they engaged the most. Table 6 compares the roles of the learners who were highly motivated and acted as group leaders with the ones who were less motivated. The video recordings in both classes showed that the group leaders represented their groups in communicating with the teacher in English, helped to translate the words between Thai and English for their groupmates as well as managed their groups in terms of assigning roles for others. Meanwhile, some of the learners had difficulty contributing mainly due to their insufficient proficiency in English. As a result, they showed minimal involvement in the task procedure. Below is an excerpt from an interview with the learners about their involvement in the tasks:

Student J: "I wanted to help more but I did not know how to say what I think in English. I spoke what I thought in Thai but couldn't help much

after that. My groupmates did not listen to me, so I did something else." (Student J, Task 1)

Table 6 Comparison of learners' roles

Group leader	Other group members
- Communicated with the teacher	- Contributed ideas
- Assigned roles for group members.	- Followed the directions from the
- Provided translation for group	group leader
members	

Aside from communicative tasks, the learners were also engaged in writing tasks (Tasks 2 and 3) during the task cycle. Following the text input in which the forms and function of the sandwich and drink recipes were presented, the learners created their own sandwich and drink recipes using the ingredients they had purchased from the shop. Based on the teaching notes of Teachers A and B, the learners struggled with writing English sentences due to their limited vocabulary and difficulty spelling words. The excerpt from an interview showed that language limitation was a significant problem in performing the tasks:

Student J: "I didn't understand what teacher said so I couldn't answer...I couldn't do much during the groupwork because I didn't know how to say it in English. I could only share ideas with my friends." (Student J, Task 3) Student A: "I could not write a lot because I didn't know the words. I had to ask friends and teacher to help me with English words." (Student A, Task 2)

Hence, they required constant assistance from the teachers in translating from Thai to English and in spelling English words while performing the task, as Teacher B commented in her teaching notes:

"Some students could write a simple recipe, but many of [the students] were unable to describe how to make a sandwich though they were very creative. I had to provide them with English words and phrases so that they could write their recipes." (Teacher B, Task 2)

4.1.3 Post-task phase

After the learners had produced language outputs, the task outcomes – verb mindmaps and recipes – were presented during the post-task phase. Apart from the presentation of the task outcomes, there was language focus for learners, to notice the forms in their task outcomes. This process assisted the learners in utilizing the target linguistic features better. They had an opportunity to correct grammatical and lexical mistakes in their work, helping them to internalize those correct forms. According to the questionnaires, the learners reported that they developed their understanding of the target language better during the post-task phase. Excerpts from the interview also showed that the learners valued the post-task phase as it helped them learn the language better.

Student B: "I learned more words when they shared their work in front of the class. Therefore, I could write more verbs that they used with their ingredients in my mind-maps. I learned many new words from that." (Task 1)

Student N: "[When I revised my writing,] I could make changes to what I wrote before. I could use what Teacher explained to write again." (Task 3)

4.2 Learners' perceptions of the tasks

This section unveils the underlying reasons for learners' task preferences and comprehension based on their feelings. The results may be useful when incorporated with the in-use evaluation for future task selection and also pedagogical instruction to support young Thai learners' language learning. A questionnaire was given to the learners directly after each task, as part of an introspective evaluation, to gather data on the learners' immediate feelings about the implemented tasks.

In the questionnaires, the learners cited the reasons related to their desire to learn and comprehension. Tables 7 and 8 present detailed learner perceptions of each task.

Table 7 The reasons for task satisfactory

Reasons	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3
Desirable			
Fun / enjoyable task	35.9%	47.5%	51.3%
Doing groupwork	35.9%	10.0%	2.6%
New activities	-	22.5%	2.6%
Teacher's easy / fun explanation / teaching	-	5.0%	2.6%
Learning new things from the task	-	-	7.6%
Others (e.g. tasting teacher's drink)	-	-	7.6%
Undesirable			
Boring / not fun / repeated task	17.8%	15.0%	15.4%
Inability to read / write	-	-	10.3%
Inability to come up with recipe	2.6%	-	-
Understanding only some parts	2.6%	-	-
Others (e.g. crammed shop)	2.6%	-	-
N/A	2.6%	-	-
Total	100%	100%	100%

Table 8 The reasons for task understanding

Reasons	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3
Understand			
Get to do task (i.e. mind-maps, writing)	12.8%	7.5%	-
Start to understand something after the task	53.8%	-	33.3%
Translation was given	2.6%	-	-
Teacher's explanation made it easy / fun	2.6%	22.5%	53.8%
Friend's explanation	5.0%	-	-
Doing groupwork	-	7.5%	-
Easy task	2.6%	27.5%	-
Not understand			
Too many words presented before the task	2.6%	-	-
Don't understand what to do	15.4%	22.5%	10.3%
The task is boring	2.6%	-	-

Reasons	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3
Inability to read / write	-	12.5%	2.6%
Total	100%	100%	100%

According to the questionnaires, the tasks were mainly enjoyed due to 'fun' and interesting topics. The learners also found group activities and new, exciting tasks favorable for their language learning experience. However, aside from the positive perceptions, the responses indicated that the task difficulty and complexity did not match many learner participants' ability. First, the need for further explanation and translation from teacher and peers denotes unclear task instructions. Furthermore, not knowing what to do, as cited by some learners (15.4% in Task 1, 22.5% in Task 2 and 10.3% in Task 3), shows that the task conditions were vague, with no specific roles identified for the learners. Second, learners' reporting inability to come up with recipes, and insufficient language and skills to perform reading/writing tasks means that the task complexity – concepts and linguistic demands – of Tasks 2 and 3 was too advanced for their level. The learners' cognitive development was not matched to the task as complexity progressed. Lastly, boring and repetitious tasks tended not to be motivating for some learners. Some respondents (17.8% in Task 1, 15% in Task 2, and 15.4% in Task 3) reported that they found the tasks unenjoyable and they were bored.

In addition to the learners' questionnaires, the teachers also reported some similar occurrences in the classrooms. The teachers reported learners' high engagement during tasks that resembled real-life situations. However, when it came to skill-related tasks such as reading and writing, the learners did not seem to enjoy the task much. Teacher C reported her observation on the learners' reactions to different tasks in the observation notes as shown below:

"Students were interested in shopping and were very much involved in the decision-making process. They were discussing, explaining to each other, and going around the room enthusiastically." (Teacher C, Task 1) "Students re-engage in the "cooking show". They are motivated by the ingredient realia. They are able to name the ingredients....Students don't seem to be engaged [in writing their own drink recipe] maybe because they have a negative concept of writing activities." (Teacher C, Task 3)

Moreover, the teachers found that complicated tasks that required multiple steps were difficult for learners to understand. The excerpts from the teaching notes revealed the difficulty

both the teachers and the learners came across when a complex task was introduced to the learners:

"[1] had to repeat the instructions three times for the students who couldn't follow multi-step instructions. The students were only able to do the activity due to the sample output shown by the teacher." (Teacher B, Task 3).

"The instruction was too complicated. [There were] too many things to do and focus on, and more than one possible answer." (Teacher A, Task 3)

In conclusion, tasks that were effective for the learner participants (1) have interesting topics and activities, (2) allow group work, and (3) include various new activities. On the other hand, task implementation was ineffective due to (1) their unfitted complexity, (2) unclear conditions and (3) being repetitive and boring. Therefore, simplifying task instructions, clarifying more specific task conditions and roles for the learners, and more gradually increasing task complexity may help make the tasks more comprehensible and motivating for the learners.

4.3 Teachers' roles supporting task performances

The role of the teacher is worth examining as part of task and materials design in a way that she is also a materials user, and the role she takes directly affects how materials are used and how learners perceive the tasks. Based on the analysis of the learners' perceptions (see 4.2), the learner participants perceived teacher's explanations, translations and interactions with them as useful for their learning. In this section, the teacher participants' role and its effect on the learners will be discussed. For the TBLT to be carried out in class, the role of the teacher must shift from lecturer, which is common in the Thai school context, to a learning facilitator. In fact, to facilitate task-based learning and language acquisition, the teacher must act as an interlocutor and feedback provider to encourage learners to interact in classroom dialogues for them to develop fluency and accuracy in English.

4.3.1 Teacher as an interlocutor

One of the key factors that facilitate successful learning for learners is the teacher. During the implementation of tasks in this study, the main role of the teacher was as interlocutor to promote naturalistic dialogues in the classroom setting. Both Teacher A and Teacher B encouraged their learners to interact both among themselves and with them throughout the class for learning to take place. Below is an extract from Teacher A and Teacher B's classes that highlighted their role as interlocutor.

T: ... And when you go shopping, you talk to your friends...what do we want to buy? We have three hundred baht. Can you use more than 300?

Ls: No.

T: And I don't take credit.

L1: Teacher, discount?

T: No discount, too. Say...you want bread, you want jam, you want condensed milk. You want three things, you write the price...how much. Then you pay for that. Okay?

(Teacher A, Task 1)

T: Okay so you slice the strawberry. Then, that's the time that you put the strawberry in the jug. ...after, what will I do now? Are you going to use the blender?

Ls: Yes.

T: Okay...let's put the strawberry in the blender. After, what else?

L1: Ice.

T: So put strawberry and ice in the blender. What's next? Ice and strawberry together. Yes, [Learner 2]? After that what will I do?

L2: Put sugar.

T: Put sugar. Okay. Put or add?

L2: Add.

T: Add is better, right? Finally what will I do now? So strawberry in the blender. Add sugar. Shake again. Finally, what will I do?

L3: Eat.

T: Eat? Or drink?

L3: Drink.

(Teacher B, Task 2)

According to the extracts above, the learners were engaged in the conversation when the teachers turned from traditional lecturers to be interlocutors. Some of the learners could chime in the jokes that the teacher made and produced more than just the target language required for the task. For learners whose language proficiency is low, they can still engage in the conversation using words and phrases when the purpose is to make meaning.

This helps expand their ability to express themselves fluently and engage them in a meaningful conversation.

4.3.2 Teacher as a feedback provider

Another form of the interaction between the teacher and the learners that occurred throughout both Teacher A and Teacher B classes was providing feedback. According to the video recordings of the classes, corrective feedback was mostly given throughout the pre-task phase as the learners tried to understand the input. The table below illustrates the frequency of each corrective feedback used by the teachers.

Table 9 Corrective feedback used by the teacher participants

	Teacher A	Teacher B	Total
Explicit correction	6	0	6
Recast	10	9	19
Elicitation	6	3	9
Repetition	3	1	4

From the video recordings, explicit corrective feedback was used repeatedly as it clearly indicated young learners to correct their utterances when the implicit feedback failed to make them restate their utterances. Extracts from the video recordings show a clearer illustration of how the teachers used explicit correction:

L: [mayong]naise

T: mai dai ahn wa ma-yong-naise. It's mayonnaise.

ไม่ได้อ่านว่ามา-ยอง-เนส. It's mayonnaise.

Translation: It's not read ma-yong-ness. It's mayonnaise.

L: Mayonnaise

T: What are these?

L: sai krok

ไส้กรอก

Translation: Sausage

T: sai krok mai chai. It's SAUSAGES.

ใส้กรอก ไม่ใช่ (.) it's SAUSAGES

Translation: Sausage. No. It's SAUSAGES.

L: sausages

(Teacher A, Task 1)

Often, implicit corrective feedback like recast did not help learners in making corrections due to their inability to notice the form, as shown in the excerpts below:

T: Kipper. Why do you think Kipper is having a party with his toys? Why? Why is he having a party with his toys? [Learner 7]?

L7: Because ... because it's Floppy's birthday.

T: It's Floppy's birthday. Can be. Yes, [Learner 8]?

L8: Because nobody come to his party.

T: Because nobody came to his party.

L8: Nobody come.

(Teacher A, Task 2)

Hence, other types of correctives were used in addition to the implicit ones. The extracts below show how a mix of implicit and explicit feedback was provided in class:

L: Co[ca]...powder

T: Co[ca]?

L: Hmmm...

T: It can make a drink that you like. Co-?

L: Cocoa!

T: Where else?

L: Teacher... talat

Teacher... ตลาด

Translation: Teacher...market.

T: What is 'talat' in English?

What is 'ตลาด' in English?

Translation: What is 'market' in English?

L: Market food.

T: Market.

(Teacher A, Task 1)

Based on the above extracts from the video recordings, it could be concluded that when implicit corrective feedback was given to the learners, they were often unaware of the errors they

had made. However, when explicit corrective feedback was provided, they attempted to make corrections. Moreover, the extracts from the video recordings as shown above further reveal that Thai was used as a means to communicate by both the learners and the teachers. From the video recordings, the learners mainly used Thai to express themselves, describe the pictures or required Thai translation to help them understand what was going on in class. The observation notes from Teacher C also commented on the excessive use of Thai in class. She wrote that the learners only listened to translated instructions and asked clarification questions in Thai. Despite the fact that input modification can be done through simplification (simplifying the complexity of the text, sentence structures or lexis) or elaboration (e.g. providing further details for the learners to understand more), the teachers tended to accommodate the learners with L1 when the learners showed uncertainty about their input and conditions. Table 10 presents the frequency and occasions where the teachers decided to use Thai during the pre-task phase of Task 1.

Table 10 Video-recording results of the occasions on which Thai was used in class by the teachers

Occasion	Giving instructions	Class management	Explaining meaning of words	Checking understanding	Explaining ideas or concepts	Total
Teacher A	7 (18%)	10 (26%)	9 (23%)	4 (10%)	9 (23%)	39 (100%)
Teacher B	2 (10%)	0 (0%)	7 (33%)	10 (47%)	2 (10%)	21 (100%)
Total	9 (15%)	10 (17%)	16 (27%)	14 (23%)	11 (18%)	60 (100%)

The use of L1 was also viewed positively by the learner participants. According to the questionnaires, one-fourth of the students wrote about how the language used in class affect their learning. Around 8% of the students said that the Thai translation helped them understand the task, while around 15% of the learners commented that they could not understand when the teachers explained in English. Meanwhile, around 5% of the learners wrote that they could understand better when their classmates translated for them.

From the interviews with the teacher about their decision in using Thai to accommodate their learners, the teachers said that the learners could relate to the topic and task better when Thai is used in class. Teacher A talked about the use of Thai in her class:

"I was afraid that some [of the learners] would not understand what I was talking about. So, I adjusted some of my instructions even when they didn't show that they couldn't follow. I would give them translations when I felt like the language was too hard or when they seemed to lose interest in listening. Inserting some Thai really helps grab their attention." (Teacher A, Task 2)

Although it is acceptable to use L1 in the language learning class, in this case, too much reliance on L1 indicates that the task instructions were too difficult for the learners.

5. Conclusion and suggestions

A significant insight from the findings shows that the implemented tasks have effective and problematic characteristics as follows:

Table 11 Tasks evaluation

Effective areas of the tasks			Problematic areas of the tasks		
(1)	The themes about food and cooking	(1)	The task instructions are too difficult		
	are enjoyable for the learners.		for the learners to understand and		
(2)	Tasks that allow group work are viewed		follow.		
	as supportive for learning.	(2)	The task complexity progresses too fast		
(3)	Creative use of activities makes the		for the participants with language		
	tasks more interesting for the learners.		limitation, requiring them to apply		
			multiple linguistic features in task		
			performance.		
		(3)	The conditions of the tasks are not		
			clearly stated, making young learners		
			uncertain of their role in the task or		
			what is expected out of them.		
		(4)	There is no teaching manual for the		
			task implementation. Therefore, the		
			teachers did not know how to interact		
			with the learners. Hence, they relied		
			heavily on L1 and translation.		

Therefore, for materials revision, the designed tasks still need to be improved in the as follows:

- (1) Simplify task instructions and guide learners through similar tasks prior to actual task performance. Moreover, for EFL learners with limited language, the instructions may be given in Thai first, then translated into English with direct and simple explanation as scaffolds. Thai instruction may be slowly removed as the tasks progress.
- (2) Sequence tasks with gradually increased complexity from the first task to the final task. This is to suit learners' cognitive development better (Robinson, 2005).
- (3) Include more structured tasks with less open answers. For better guidance, prior to task performance, explicitly teach words and sentence structures necessary for task performance so that the learners have some language resources for the task.
- (4) Clarify the task conditions and assign clear roles for the learners before the while-task phase to help learners become more focused and aware of what to do (Carless, 2003).
- (5) Produce a teaching manual to guide teachers for task implementation and interactions with learners. Appropriate corrective feedback should be provided to help learners develop in phonological, lexical and semantic areas for progressive language proficiency development (Mackey et al., 2000).

Teaching materials steer the direction of the classroom. To enhance learners' communication, TBLT materials prove to be more suitable for language development compared to traditional grammar-based textbooks. Nevertheless, this study attests to the crucial aspects of designing TBLT materials together with teacher implementation, and their impact on learners' classroom interaction in the target language. The tasks should be designed to cater to specific learners' needs and limitations, and sequenced by increasing complexity to suit learners' cognitive development throughout the course. Meanwhile, the teacher should be knowledgeable about task-based teaching and how to provide appropriate assistance to learners with diverse interests and different language proficiency in order to implement task-based materials successfully. Therefore, a teacher training or a task-based teaching manual should be provided for teachers using TBLT materials, so that they can make use of the task-oriented materials to the fullest to maximize the language learning of their students.

References

- Biyaem, S. (1997). Learner training: Changing roles for a changing world, educational innovation for sustainable development. In *3rd UNESCOACEID International Conference, Bangkok*.
- Boxer, D. & Cortes-Conde, F. (2000). Identity and ideology: Culture and pragmatics in content-based ESL. In J. K. Hall & L. S. Verplaelse (Eds.) *Second and Foreign Language Learning through Classroom Interaction* (pp.203-220). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Bygate, M. (Ed.) (2018). *Learning language through task repetition* (Vol. 11). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carless, D. (2003). Factors in the implementation of task-based teaching in primary schools. *System, 31*(4), 485-500.
- Chuanchaisit, S., & Prapphal, K. (2009). A study of English communication strategies of Thai university students. *MANUSYA: Journal of Humanities, 17*, 100-126.
- Dagarin, M. (2004). Classroom interaction and communication strategies in learning English as a foreign language. *ELOPE: English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries*, 1(1-2), 127-139.
- de la Colina, A. A., & García Mayo, M. D. P. (2007). Attention to form across collaborative tasks by low-proficiency learners in an EFL setting. In M. del P. G. Mayo (Ed.), *Investigating tasks in formal language learning* (pp.91-116). Clevedon: Mutilingual Matters Ltd.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2002). The motivational basis of language learning tasks. *Individual differences and instructed language learning*, *2*, 137-158.
- Ellis, R. (2003). Task-Based language learning and teaching. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2006). The methodology of task-based teaching. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly, 8*(3), 19-45.
- Ellis, R. (2009a). Task based language teaching: Sorting out the misunderstandings. *International journal of applied linguistics*, 19(3), 221-246.
- Ellis, R. (2009b). Corrective feedback and teacher development. L2 Journal, 1(1), 3-18.
- Ellis, R. (2011). Macro-and micro-evaluations of task-based teaching. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), Materials development in language teaching (pp.212-235). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2017). Position paper: Moving task-based language teaching forward. *Language Teaching*, *50*(4), 507-526.

- Ellis, R. (2018). Taking the critics to task: The case for task-based teaching. In I. Walker, D. K. G., Chan, M. Nagami & C. Bourguignon (Eds.), *New Perspectives on the Development of Communicative and Related Competence in Foreign Language Education* (pp.23-40). New York: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *28*(2), 339-368.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition: An Introduction* (pp.180-206). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Halliwell, S. (1992). Teaching English in the primary classroom. London: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2001). The practice of English language teaching. London: Longman.
- Hasselgreen, A. (2005). Assessing the language of young learners. *Language Testing*, *22*(3), 337-354.
- Kongkerd, W. (2013). Teaching English in the era of English used as a lingua franca in Thailand. *Executive Journal*, *33*(4), 3-12.
- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies* in second language acquisition, 26(3), 399-432.
- Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing and instructed second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *27*(3), 405-430.
- Mackey, A., Gass, S., & McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback?. Studies in second language acquisition, 22(4), 471-497.
- McGrath, I. (2002). A systematic approach to materials evaluation. In I. McGrath (Ed.), *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Namuang, A. (2010). Educational reform in Thailand. *Princess of Naradhiwas University Journal,* 2(2), 112-121.
- Nomnian, S. (2013). Review of English language basic education core curriculum: Pedagogical implications for Thai primary level teachers of English. *Kasetsart Journal. (Soc. Sci.), 34,* 583-589.
- Noom-Ura, S. (2013). English-Teaching Problems in Thailand and Thai Teachers' Professional Development Needs. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(11), 139-147.
- Norris, N. (1990) Understanding Educational Evaluation. London: Kogan Page.
- Nunan, D. (2004). Task-Basedlanguage teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Phillips, S. (1993). Young learners. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Pinter, A. (2017). Teaching young language learners. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Robinson, P. (2005). Cognitive complexity and task sequencing: Studies in a componential framework for second language task design. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 43(1), 1-32.
- Rooney, K. (2000). Redesigning non-task-based materials to fit a task-based framework. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *6*(12).
- Savignon, S. J. (2018). Communicative competence. In J. I. Liontas Ed.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching.* (pp.1-7). NJ: Wiley Blackwell.
- Somdee, M., & Suppasetseree, S. (2013). Developing English speaking skills of Thai undergraduate students by digital storytelling through websites. Retrieved from http://litu.tu.ac.th/FLLT2013/www.fllt2013.org/private folder/Proceeding/166.pdf
- Tedick, D. J., & De Gortari, B. (1998). Research on error correction and implications for classroom teaching. *ACIE Newsletter*, *1*(3), 1-6.
- Thep-Ackrapong, T. (2005). Teaching English in Thailand: An uphill battle. *Journal of Humanities Parithat, Srinakharinwirot University*, *27*(1), 51-62.
- Van den Branden, K. (2006). Introduction: task-based language teaching in a nutshell. In K. Van den Branden (Ed.), *Task-Based Language Education: From Theory to Practice* (pp. 1-16). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Willis, J. (1996). A Framework for task-based Learning. Oxford: Longman.
- Wiriyachittra, A. (2002). English language teaching and learning in Thailand in this decade. *Thai TESOL Focus, 15*(1), 4-9.
- Yasuda, S. (2018). Learning-to-write and writing-to-learn in a foreign language. *TESL Ontario*, 11, 56-64.