

From Shyness to Speaking: Fostering Oral Skills and Learning Engagement through CALM and TBLT in a Grade 7 EFL Classroom

Somwarin Phiangngok¹, Piyada Sudathip^{2,*} and Ratchadawan Fangsrikham³

¹Faculty of Education, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand; Somwarin.p@kkumail.com

²Faculty of Education, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand; piyadasu@kku.ac.th

³Bantoom Municipal School, Khon Kaen, Thailand; daruchidawa@gmail.com

Abstract.

This study examined whether the Context-Adaptive Learning Model (CALM) integrated with Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) could enhance the English speaking skills and learning engagement of Thai lower-secondary students. CALM is a five-competency framework — diagnostic competency, didactic competency, classroom management, subject matter knowledge, and contextual awareness with reflective practice — that guides teachers in adapting instruction to the linguistic and socio-cultural context of their learners. A classroom action research design of three plan–act–observe–reflect cycles was implemented with 20 Grade 7 students at a municipal school in Khon Kaen Province, Thailand, during the first semester of the 2025 academic year. Six CALM–TBLT lesson plans built around identifying objects, describing people, and describing possessions were delivered across the three cycles. Data were collected through a speaking pre-test and post-test scored with a six-criterion analytic rubric, an end-of-cycle speaking assessment, a 12-item learning engagement questionnaire, and open-ended reflective responses. Descriptive statistics, a paired-samples t-test, a repeated-measures ANOVA and content analysis were used. Speaking scores rose from $M = 11.65$ ($SD = 2.16$) to $M = 21.75$ ($SD = 1.48$) out of 24, $t(19) = 26.84$, $p < .001$, with an extremely large effect size (Cohen's $d = 6.01$). No student reached the 70 per cent criterion before the intervention; all 20 did afterwards, and cycle means increased steadily. Learning engagement was very high ($M = 4.69$ out of 5, $SD = 0.33$, $\alpha = .85$). Reflective responses showed a shift from shyness and fear of error towards willingness to speak.

Keywords: Context-Adaptive Learning Model; Task-Based Language Teaching; English speaking skills; learning engagement; lower-secondary EFL learners

*Corresponding author

1. Introduction

English is the working language of international education, employment and diplomacy, and the ability to speak it shapes the opportunities available to young learners across Southeast Asia (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006). In Thailand, however, speaking remains the weakest of the four skills for most school students, and the obstacles are affective as much as linguistic. Bhattachaiyakorn and Phettakua (2023) found high levels of speaking anxiety among first-year students at a Northeastern Thai university, driven by concern about grammar and vocabulary. Riensumettharadol and Sujarinpong (2023) reported comparable difficulties among Thai interns in hospitality and tourism, and Pongklee and Sukying (2022) found that even pre-service teachers identified speaking as the skill they most needed to develop.

The response cannot be more grammar instruction. Kanokpermpoon (2023) reports that Thai tertiary students themselves rank speaking as the skill they most want, while Tongmak and

Onthanee (2023) and Beding (2024) show that learners respond to interactive, genre-aware and game-based activity rather than to textbook exposition. What is needed is instruction that gives learners frequent, low-stakes reasons to speak.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) provides one such structure. By organising instruction around tasks with a communicative outcome rather than around discrete grammatical items, TBLT redirects attention from form to message and creates authentic reasons to talk (Ellis, 2003; Willis, 1996). Studies in Indonesian and Thai secondary classrooms report gains in both fluency and motivation following TBLT implementation (Mudra, 2016; Azmy & Nanda, 2023; Nurhadi, Nugraha, & Ridwan, 2024).

A method alone, however, does not guarantee fit with a particular class. A task that engages one group may be culturally remote or linguistically inaccessible to another. The Context-Adaptive Learning Model (CALM) addresses this by specifying the teacher competencies required to adapt instruction to a concrete classroom: diagnostic competency, didactic competency, classroom management, subject matter knowledge, and contextual awareness with reflective practice (Sudathip, Yuankrathok, & Chuanon, 2026). CALM is therefore not a competitor to TBLT but the adaptive layer that governs how tasks are selected, scaffolded and revised. The model has been validated with preservice English teachers in Northeastern Thailand (Sudathip, Yuankrathok, & Chuanon, 2026) and applied to primary-level writing instruction (Pholjarn, Sudathip, & Sriburin, 2026).

The present study arose from classroom observation at a municipal school in Khon Kaen Province, where Grade 7 students rarely attempted to pronounce English words at all. The classroom offered few opportunities for oral practice, and the resulting lack of exposure reinforced students' reluctance to speak. Two questions were asked:

- (1) How does CALM integrated with TBLT enhance the English speaking skills of Grade 7 students?
- (2) How does the integrated approach affect students' learning engagement?

The corresponding objectives were (1) to enhance students' English speaking skills through CALM integrated with TBLT, with the criterion that at least 70 per cent of students would reach at least 70 per cent of the rubric total, and (2) to examine students' learning engagement during the intervention.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Contextual teaching and adaptive teaching competency

Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) holds that knowledge becomes meaningful when learners connect academic content to situations drawn from their own lives (Johnson, 2002). Its roots lie in Dewey's (1938) account of learning through experience and in Vygotsky's (1978) treatment of learning as socially mediated activity within the zone of proximal development. Applied to language teaching, CTL implies that speaking practice belongs in recognisable social situations rather than in decontextualised drills. Adaptive Teaching Competency (ATC) names the teacher-side capability this presupposes: the ability to diagnose learner states and modify instruction accordingly, both in planning and in the moment (Vogt & Rogalla, 2009).

2.2 The Context-Adaptive Learning Model (CALM)

CALM synthesises CTL and ATC into a single operational framework of five competencies, developed and validated through a three-phase research and development study with 249

preservice teachers and 68 university supervisors across 16 universities in Northeastern Thailand (Sudathip, Yuankrathok, & Chuanon, 2026). Diagnostic competency concerns the identification of learners' current proficiency and needs; didactic competency, the selection of techniques appropriate to that diagnosis; classroom management competency, the establishment of a climate in which learners will participate; subject matter knowledge, the accurate treatment of language content; and contextual awareness with reflective practice, the teacher's attentiveness to the circumstances of the class and the disciplined review of each lesson against evidence.

Operationally, CALM specifies a six-step instructional cycle — context analysis, adaptive lesson planning, implementing strategies, monitoring and assessing, feedback and adaptation, and reflection and improvement — which maps closely onto the plan–act–observe–reflect logic of action research (Sudathip, Yuankrathok, & Chuanon, 2026). Two companion applications provide points of comparison. In the originating study, preservice teachers who completed a ten-session CALM programme moved from a pretest mean of 35.60 to the maximum of 48.00 on an adaptive teaching competency assessment. In a primary classroom, CALM combined with a process-based approach raised Grade 4 writing scores from 38.92 to 87.32 per cent, with an engagement mean of 4.13 out of 5 (Pholjarn, Sudathip, & Sriburin, 2026). Both paired CALM with a staged instructional method rather than using it alone; the present study does the same with TBLT, and applies it to speaking at the lower-secondary level.

2.3 Task-Based Language Teaching

TBLT treats the task — an activity with a non-linguistic outcome that requires language to achieve it — as the unit of instruction (Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003). A task sequence proceeds through three stages: a pre-task stage in which the teacher introduces the topic, models the performance and supplies needed language; a during-task stage in which learners perform in pairs or groups with priority on meaning; and a post-task stage of report, feedback and attention to the language that arose (Ellis, 2009). Aliakbari and Jamalvandi (2010) found role-play tasks effective for fostering speaking ability, and subsequent classroom studies in the region report similar gains alongside reduced anxiety (Mudra, 2016; Sabaruddin & Melati, 2022; Azmy & Nanda, 2023).

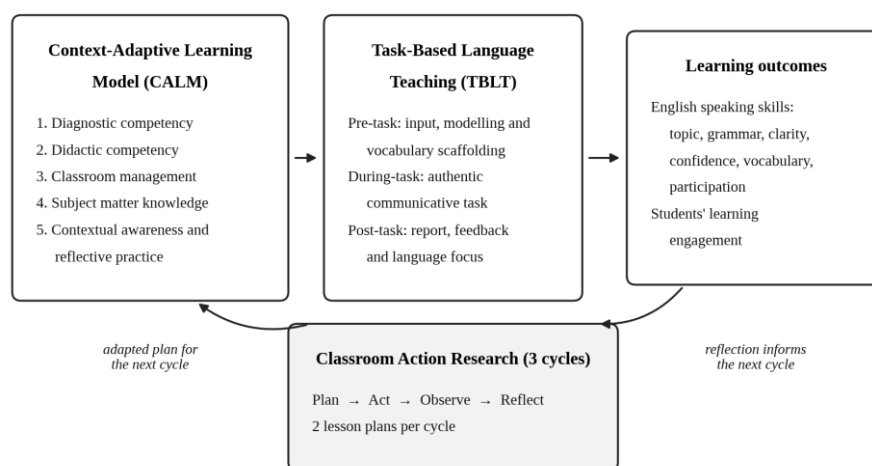
2.4 Learning engagement

Engagement is treated here as a multidimensional construct with behavioural, emotional and cognitive facets: participation in tasks, affective response to the classroom, and willingness to invest effort in learning. This matters in the Thai speaking classroom because disengagement and anxiety are mutually reinforcing: learners who avoid speaking practise less, and less practice confirms their sense of incompetence. Instruction that lowers the affective cost of speaking is therefore a precondition for skill development rather than a pleasant side effect (Brown, 2001).

2.5 Conceptual framework

Figure 1 presents the conceptual framework. CALM supplies the adaptive logic that governs how TBLT tasks are designed and delivered; TBLT supplies the instructional architecture through which speaking is practised; and the action research cycle supplies the mechanism by which reflection on one cycle feeds into the planning of the next.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of the CALM–TBLT intervention within a classroom action research cycle



Source: Authors' own elaboration.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Research design

The study used a classroom action research design following Kemmis and McTaggart (1988). Three complete plan–act–observe–reflect cycles were carried out, each comprising two lesson plans. In the planning phase the researcher prepared materials and instruments; in the action phase the lessons were taught; in the observation phase learner behaviour was recorded and the speaking rubric administered at the end of the cycle; and in the reflection phase the performance data were analysed and used to adjust the following cycle. The design makes the reflective competency of CALM an explicit part of the method rather than an implicit teacher disposition.

A note on sequence is needed, since the classroom work reported here was carried out in the first semester of the 2025 academic year while the CALM framework itself and its initial applications were formally published in 2026 (Pholjarn, Sudathip, & Sriburin, 2026; Sudathip, Yuankrathok, & Chuanon, 2026). There is no inconsistency between the two dates. The first author participated in the model's development cohort as a preservice teacher and applied CALM in her school internship at a point when the framework had been designed and expert-validated but was still undergoing try-out. References to these 2026 publications throughout this paper therefore cite the published account of a framework that was already in use at the time of data collection. The second author, who developed CALM, supervised the internship and the classroom research.

3.2 Participants

The participants were an intact Grade 7 class (Mathayom 1/1) of 20 students at a municipal school in Khon Kaen Province, studied during the first semester of the 2025 academic year. Because the class was pre-existing and was not randomly constituted for the study, the sampling is most accurately described as convenience sampling of an intact group. The selection was

nonetheless purposive in its rationale: classroom observation had identified these students as struggling with English speaking and as rarely attempting spoken English, which made them an appropriate group for an intervention targeting oral production. Participation was voluntary, consent was obtained from the school and from students, and all data were anonymised.

3.3 Research instruments

Four instruments were used. The intervention instrument consisted of six CALM–TBLT lesson plans covering three units: Unit 3 (English Around the World; identifying specific and non-specific objects, giving and following commands), Unit 4 (Who’s That?; asking and answering about appearance and possessions) and Unit 5 (Do You Have a Tablet?; asking and telling what a person or community has). Each pair of lessons formed one cycle, and each lesson followed the pre-task, during-task and post-task sequence, adapted using the CALM competencies to the proficiency profile and interests of the class. The tasks were framed as narrative missions — a market infiltration, a search for a thief, a phone-call drama — so that the target language had a purpose beyond display.

Three instruments were used for data collection. First, an equivalent pre-test and post-test of oral performance was administered before the first cycle and after the third. Second, an analytic speaking rubric was applied at the end of each cycle and to both tests. The rubric comprised six criteria — identifying the topic, grammar, speaking clearly, confidence and effort, vocabulary usage, and participation in task and teamwork — each scored on a four-point scale, giving a maximum of 24 points. Third, a learning engagement questionnaire was administered after the post-test. Part 1 contained 12 five-point Likert items across three sections (teacher, activities and students), and Part 2 contained three open-ended prompts asking students to describe their emotional responses and obstacles, to compare the approach with their previous lessons, and to suggest improvements.

3.4 Validity and reliability

Content validity was established through expert review. Three experts in English language teaching evaluated the lesson plans and the data-collection instruments using the Index of Item-Objective Congruence, rating each item +1 (congruent), 0 (uncertain) or –1 (not congruent), with a criterion of 0.50. All items met the criterion, and the experts’ comments were incorporated before implementation. A lesson plan evaluation form was used in parallel to assess objectives, activities, materials and assessment methods. The internal consistency of the 12-item engagement questionnaire was computed on the collected data and was satisfactory, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .85$.

3.5 Procedure

The study proceeded in six steps: design of the six CALM–TBLT lesson plans in consultation with the research advisors; development of the data-collection instruments; expert validation; administration of the pre-test; implementation of the three action research cycles, each of two lessons; and administration of the speaking assessment at the end of each cycle, followed by the post-test and the engagement questionnaire. The pre-test was administered on 1 September 2025 and the post-test on 6 October 2025, with the three cycles distributed across the intervening weeks.

Adaptation between cycles followed from reflection on evidence. Cycle 1 identified grammar and vocabulary as the weakest criteria, with students unable to use articles and demonstratives consistently; Cycle 2 therefore targeted sentence structure and lexical choice directly, and both criteria improved. Cycle 2 in turn revealed that speaking clearly had become the limiting

criterion, and Cycle 3 addressed it through colour-coded speaking roles within group tasks and short time limits designed to build fluency under pressure. These adjustments are themselves data: they show diagnostic and reflective competency operating within the model.

3.6 Data analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and percentage). A paired-samples t-test compared pre-test and post-test scores, with Cohen's *d* reported as the effect size. Change across the three cycles was examined using a one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance, with sphericity assessed before interpretation and pairwise contrasts Bonferroni-corrected. A single parametric path was adopted throughout rather than duplicating each comparison with a non-parametric equivalent. Questionnaire means were interpreted against a five-interval scale in which 4.21–5.00 denotes a very high level, 3.41–4.20 a high level, 2.61–3.40 a moderate level, 1.81–2.60 a low level and 1.00–1.80 a very low level. Open-ended responses were analysed by content analysis: responses were translated, coded inductively and grouped into themes reviewed by the research team.

4. Results and Findings

4.1 English speaking achievement

Table 1 compares pre-test and post-test performance. The mean score rose from 11.65 out of 24 (48.54 per cent) before the intervention to 21.75 (90.62 per cent) after it, a gain of 10.10 points. The standard deviation fell from 2.16 to 1.48, indicating that the class became more homogeneous as well as more proficient. The difference was statistically significant, $t(19) = 26.84$, $p < .001$, with an extremely large effect size (Cohen's $d = 6.01$).

Table 1: Comparison of pre-test and post-test English speaking scores (n = 20)

Test	M	SD	Percentage	Level
Pre-test	11.65	2.16	48.54	Low
Post-test	21.75	1.48	90.62	Very high
Gain	10.10	1.68	42.08	N/A

Note: Maximum score = 24. $t(19) = 26.84$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 6.01$. Source: Authors' own data.

The achievement criterion was that at least 70 per cent of students would score at least 70 per cent of the rubric total, that is 16.8 of 24 points. Before the intervention no student reached this standard; the highest pre-test score in the class was 16. Afterwards all 20 students (100 per cent) met it, and the lowest post-test score was 20. The criterion was therefore met in full.

4.2 Speaking performance across the three cycles

Table 2 reports the end-of-cycle assessments. Mean scores rose across the three cycles while standard deviations fell, indicating that lower-achieving students closed the gap rather than being left behind. The increase was statistically significant, $F(2, 38) = 35.69$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .65$. Because the sphericity assumption was not met ($\epsilon = .69$), the Greenhouse–Geisser correction was applied, and the result remained significant, $F(1.38, 26.14) = 35.69$, $p < .001$. Bonferroni-corrected pairwise contrasts showed a modest gain from Cycle 1 to Cycle 2 ($p = .024$, $d = 0.66$) and a substantially larger one from Cycle 2 to Cycle 3 ($p < .001$, $d = 1.32$), with Cycle 3 exceeding Cycle 1 by a wide margin ($p < .001$, $d = 1.46$).

Table 2: Speaking assessment across the three action research cycles (n = 20)

Cycle (unit)	M	SD	Percentage	n meeting criterion
Cycle 1 (Unit 3)	16.44	3.96	68.50	8 (40%)

Cycle (unit)	M	SD	Percentage	n meeting criterion
Cycle 2 (Unit 4)	17.45	3.72	72.71	10 (50%)
Cycle 3 (Unit 5)	20.96	2.08	87.33	19 (95%)

Note: Maximum score = 24; criterion = 16.8. Greenhouse–Geisser corrected $F(1.38, 26.14) = 35.69, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .65$. Source: Authors' own data.

The criterion-level pattern is informative. Grammar and vocabulary were the weakest criteria in Cycle 1 (30 and 40 per cent of students meeting the standard), while participation in task and teamwork was met by everyone from the outset. After Cycle 2 targeted language mechanics both rose to 50 per cent, and by Cycle 3 to 95 per cent. Speaking clearly moved last, reaching 60 per cent in Cycle 3 and 100 per cent at post-test: each round of reflection identified the current constraint and the next cycle addressed it.

4.3 Learning engagement

Table 3 presents the questionnaire results. The overall mean was 4.69 out of 5 ($SD = 0.33$), a very high level, and the three section means were closely comparable. The two highest-rated items concerned the teacher's encouragement of participation and the clarity of instructions; the two lowest concerned collaboration with classmates.

Table 3: Students' learning engagement with CALM–TBLT lessons ($n = 20$)

Item	M	SD	Level
Section 1: Teacher			
1. The teacher gave clear, easy-to-follow instructions.	4.85	0.37	Very high
2. The teacher encouraged me to interact and take part.	4.95	0.22	Very high
3. The teacher's feedback helped me improve my English.	4.60	0.60	Very high
4. The teaching showed me how to learn through TBLT.	4.50	0.69	Very high
Section mean	4.72	0.50	Very high
Section 2: Activities			
5. The activities are connected to real-life situations.	4.70	0.47	Very high
6. The tasks are fun and make me want to learn more.	4.75	0.44	Very high
7. The activities help me talk and work with classmates.	4.45	0.76	Very high
8. Task-based learning raises my interest in English.	4.80	0.41	Very high
Section mean	4.68	0.54	Very high
Section 3: Students			
9. I engage fully in the activities.	4.60	0.68	Very high
10. I am motivated to keep improving my speaking.	4.80	0.41	Very high
11. My confidence in using English has grown.	4.75	0.44	Very high
12. My teamwork with classmates during tasks is good.	4.50	0.61	Very high
Section mean	4.66	0.55	Very high

Item	M	SD	Level
Overall	4.69	0.33	Very high

Note: Five-point Likert scale; Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$. Source: Authors' own data.

4.4 Qualitative findings

Content analysis of the open-ended responses produced three themes. Student identifiers are pseudonymous and quotations were translated from Thai.

Theme 1: from shyness to willingness to speak. The dominant pattern was a reported move from fear of error towards courage. One student wrote that she had felt shy at first but could speak much better afterwards; another that she had been afraid of making mistakes but later dared to speak more; a third that her courage had increased. The affective barrier, rather than knowledge, was what students identified as having shifted.

Theme 2: preference for activity over textbook. Students consistently contrasted the approach with their previous lessons, describing the earlier book-based style as boring and the task-based lessons as easier for actually using the language. Several named the game-like framing of the tasks as the reason they preferred it.

Theme 3: satisfaction with the lesson structure. Asked what should change in the next cycle, most students proposed nothing, describing the balance as about right. The one substantive suggestion was for more varied lesson openings. This near-absence of requested change is consistent with the very high questionnaire means, though it also limits what the open-ended data can tell us.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Both research questions are answered affirmatively. Speaking scores improved substantially, the achievement criterion was met by the whole class, and engagement was very high. Four features of the results deserve comment.

First, the gain was accompanied by a reduction in dispersion at every measurement point, and the criterion-level data show why. The intervention did not simply lift students who were already comfortable speaking; it moved the class through a sequence of constraints, addressing grammar and vocabulary after Cycle 1, then clarity of speech after Cycle 2. Interpreted through CALM, this is diagnostic competency feeding didactic competency: evidence from one cycle determined the scaffolding of the next.

Second, the affective results were as strong as the cognitive ones, and the qualitative data locate the change precisely where the literature predicts. Thai learners' speaking difficulties are documented as anxiety-driven (Bhattachaiyakorn & Phettakua, 2023; Riensumettharadol & Sujarinpong, 2023), and students here described exactly that barrier lifting. TBLT contributed the low-stakes, meaning-focused performance opportunities (Ellis, 2003; Willis, 1996), while CALM's classroom management and contextual awareness competencies supplied the climate in which those opportunities could be taken up.

Third, read alongside the companion CALM studies, the model's contribution appears consistent across levels and skills. The engagement means are closely comparable — 4.13 in the primary writing study (Pholjarn, Sudathip, & Sriburin, 2026) and 4.69 here — despite different ages, skills and partner methods, which supports the view that the affective benefit derives from CALM's adaptive and contextualising logic rather than from any one paired method.

Fourth, and most importantly for how these results should be read, the magnitude of the measured gain calls for caution rather than celebration. Several factors plausibly inflate it. The baseline was extremely low, at 48.54 per cent, leaving a large ceiling for improvement. The tasks students practised were closely aligned with the rubric criteria by which they were later assessed, so post-test performance may partly reflect familiarity with the assessment format. The class was small and homogeneous, which compresses variance and enlarges standardised effect estimates. The teacher-researcher was also the sole rater, with no second rater and therefore no inter-rater reliability estimate. And the novelty of an unfamiliar teacher and method may have produced a temporary lift in effort. The gain should therefore be read as evidence of a high-impact instructional context rather than as a portable estimate of what CALM–TBLT will yield elsewhere.

In conclusion, the integration of CALM with TBLT was effective in enhancing the English speaking skills of Grade 7 students at a Thai municipal school and in fostering very high learning engagement. The contribution is not the finding that task-based instruction works, which is well established, but the demonstration that a specified set of adaptive teacher competencies, applied cyclically, provides a reproducible mechanism for identifying what a particular class needs next and for acting on it between cycles.

6. Recommendations, Implications and Limitations

6.1 Implications for practice

- For classroom teachers: use the five CALM competencies as a planning checklist rather than as a description of good intentions. Administer a short diagnostic speaking task before a unit begins and let the criterion-level results, not overall scores, determine what the next cycle targets.
- For pre-service teachers: keep a structured reflective record across a practicum, noting for each lesson what was observed, what was changed and what followed. This converts reflection from a retrospective habit into a data source.
- For schools: frame speaking tasks as purposeful missions with a non-linguistic outcome. Students in this study consistently attributed their willingness to speak to the game-like framing rather than to the language content itself.
- For assessment practice: use analytic rather than holistic speaking rubrics. The criterion-level breakdown was what made adaptive planning possible here; a single global score would have concealed the shifting constraint.

6.2 Limitations

Four limitations qualify these findings. First, the study involved a single intact class of 20 students in one school, so the results describe what the approach achieved in that context and cannot be generalised statistically. Second, the design included no control or comparison group. This is a defining feature of classroom action research rather than an oversight, since the paradigm sets out to improve practice within one setting and withholding the intervention from half of an intact class would have been neither practicable nor equitable; it does mean, however, that maturation, repeated testing and novelty cannot be excluded as contributing explanations. Third, the researcher was the classroom teacher and the sole rater, so no inter-rater reliability could be established and expectancy effects cannot be ruled out; this was mitigated by an expert-validated analytic rubric but not eliminated. Fourth, the intervention ran for three cycles within a single semester, so the durability of the gains is unknown.

6.3 Suggestions for future research

- (1) Replicate the design with a second, independent rater so that inter-rater reliability can be reported and expectancy effects reduced.
- (2) Include a delayed post-test several weeks after the intervention to test whether the speaking gains and the change in willingness to communicate persist.
- (3) Extend CALM–TBLT to listening, reading and writing at the lower-secondary level to test whether the adaptive competencies generalise beyond oral production.
- (4) Replicate with a larger sample and a comparison group across schools differing in size, resourcing and location.
- (5) Investigate which CALM competencies drive which learner outcomes, so that the contribution of each component can be estimated rather than assumed.

Acknowledgment

The authors thank the administration, teachers and students of the participating municipal school in Khon Kaen Province for their cooperation during data collection, and the Faculty of Education, Khon Kaen University, for its support of the school internship programme within which this classroom research was conducted.

References

- Aliakbari, M., & Jamalvandi, B. (2010). The impact of role play on fostering EFL learners' speaking ability: A task-based approach. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 14(1), 15–29.
- Azmy, K., & Nanda, D. W. (2023). Implementing task-based language teaching to enhance students' speaking, writing, and reading skills: Is it possible? *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(3), 123–134.
- Beding, B. (2024). Exploring Thai EFL learners' preferences for speaking activities. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 22(3), 207–226.
- Bhattachaiyakorn, S., & Phettakua, S. (2023). English speaking anxiety among northeastern Thai university students. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 16(1), 384–407.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). Longman.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. Kappa Delta Pi.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2009). Task-based language teaching: Sorting out the misunderstandings. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19(3), 221–246.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00238.x>
- Graddol, D. (2006). *English next: Why global English may mean the end of 'English as a foreign language'*. British Council.

- Johnson, E. B. (2002). *Contextual teaching and learning: What it is and why it's here to stay*. Corwin Press.
- Kanokpermpoon, M. (2023). Foundation English course development for Thai tertiary education: Learners' perceived needs and factor analysis. *rEFlections*, 30(3), 671–694. <https://doi.org/10.61508/refl.v30i3.267999>
- Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (1988). *The action research planner* (3rd ed.). Deakin University Press.
- Mudra, H. (2016). Enhancing students' speaking skill through task-based language teaching (TBLT) at English Tadris Department of STAIN Kerinci. *Al-Ta'lim Journal*, 23(1), 79–87. <https://doi.org/10.15548/jt.v23i1.175>
- Nurhadi, T., Nugraha, S. I., & Ridwan, I. (2024). Exploring the implementation of task-based language teaching in teaching speaking to secondary EFL learners: A qualitative case study. *PROJECT: Professional Journal of English Education*, 7(5), 1207–1219.
- Pholjarn, R., Sudathip, P., & Sriburin, K. (2026). Enhancing English writing ability in Grade 4 students using a Context-Adaptive Learning Model with a process-based approach. *Journal of Innovation and Learning Sciences*, 19(1), 68–89.
- Pongklee, C., & Sukying, A. (2022). A needs analysis of English language of Thai pre-service teachers. *Journal of Modern Learning Development*, 7(10), 184–194.
- Riensumettharadol, M., & Sujarinpong, P. (2023). English-speaking problems and solutions: A case study of Thai EFL interns in the hospitality and tourism industry. *Journal of Studies in the Field of Humanities*, 30(1), 208–232. <https://so04.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/abc/article/view/247328>
- Sabaruddin, S., & Melati, R. (2022). Task-based language teaching (TBLT) to increase English speaking skill of Indonesian secondary high school students. *Journal of Literate of English Education Study Program*, 3(1), 47–53. <https://doi.org/10.47435/jle.v3i01.1092>
- Sudathip, P., Yuankrathok, P., & Chuanon, C. (2026). The Context-Adaptive Learning Model (CALM) enhancing adaptive English teaching competency for preservice teachers in Thailand. *Higher Education Studies*, 16(2), 289–299. <https://doi.org/10.5539/hes.v16n2p289>
- Tongmak, S., & Onthanee, A. (2023). Developing English speaking skill for academic purposes. *Academic Journal of Mahamakut Buddhist University Roi Et Campus*, 12(2), 444–459.
- Vogt, F., & Rogalla, M. (2009). Developing adaptive teaching competency through coaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(8), 1051–1060. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.04.002>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.
- Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Longman.