

Adaptive Pedagogy in Action: Integrating CALM and TBLT to Foster English Speaking Proficiency in a Thai Grade 8 Classroom

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Abstract.

This study examined the effectiveness of the Context-Adaptive Learning Model (CALM) integrated with Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in enhancing the English speaking skills and classroom 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 comprising three plan–act–observe–reflect cycles was implemented with 20 Grade 8 students at a municipal school in Khon Kaen Province, Thailand, during the first semester of the 2025 academic year. Six CALM–TBLT lesson plans organised around occupations, food and restaurant ordering, and daily routines were delivered across the three cycles. Data were collected through a speaking pre-test and post-test scored with a four-criterion analytic rubric, an end-of-cycle speaking performance assessment, a 12-item perception and engagement questionnaire, and open-ended written responses. Descriptive statistics, a paired-samples t-test, a repeated-measures ANOVA and content analysis were used. Speaking scores increased from $M = 12.55$ ($SD = 3.62$) to $M = 16.45$ ($SD = 3.03$) out of 20, a statistically significant gain, $t(19) = 8.51$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen's $d = 1.90$). Eighty-five per cent of students reached the 70 per cent criterion, exceeding the 70 per cent target set for the study, and cycle means rose steadily. Perception and engagement were high ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 0.55$), and qualitative data showed gains in motivation, confidence and willingness to speak.

Keywords: Context-Adaptive Learning Model; Task-Based Language Teaching; English speaking skills; adaptive teaching competency; classroom action research

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1. Introduction

English functions as the principal language of international communication, and the ability to speak it confidently shapes the academic and occupational futures of young learners across Southeast Asia (Crystal, 2003). In Thailand, however, speaking remains the weakest of the four skills for most secondary students. Classroom practice has traditionally privileged grammar explanation, translation and rote memorisation over sustained oral practice, with the result that learners accumulate formal knowledge of English that they cannot readily deploy in conversation (Tantiwich & Sinwongsuwat, 2021).

The problem is affective as much as linguistic. Thai learners frequently report anxiety in speaking situations, driven by fear of mispronunciation, fear of grammatical error and fear of losing face in front of peers (Ananta & Seesang, 2020). Shyness and low self-confidence further

reduce the willingness to communicate, and learners who avoid speaking receive less practice, which in turn confirms their sense of incompetence (Chokdee & Nopporn, 2019). Breaking this cycle requires classrooms in which oral risk-taking is frequent, low-stakes and purposeful.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) offers one well-established response. By organising instruction around meaningful tasks with a communicative outcome rather than around discrete grammatical items, TBLT shifts learners' attention from form to message and creates authentic reasons to speak (Ellis, 2003; Willis & Willis, 2007). Empirical work in Asian secondary contexts has consistently associated TBLT with gains in fluency and in learner motivation (Mudra, 2016; Sabaruddin & Melati, 2022).

Method alone, however, does not guarantee responsiveness to 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 gap by specifying the teacher competencies required to adapt instruction to a concrete classroom context: diagnostic competency, didactic competency, classroom management, subject matter knowledge, and contextual awareness with reflective practice (Sudathip, Yuankrathok, & Chuanon, 2026). CALM is therefore best understood not as a competitor to TBLT but as the adaptive layer that determines how tasks are selected, scaffolded, sequenced and revised for a given group of learners. 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), but its application to secondary speaking instruction has not previously been reported.

The present study emerged from classroom observation at a municipal school in Khon Kaen Province, where Grade 8 students had studied English for seven years yet rarely produced connected speech. When required to speak, they lacked both the linguistic resources and the procedural knowledge to carry out an oral task. The study therefore asked two questions:

- (1) How can the implementation of the Context-Adaptive Learning Model integrated with Task-Based Language Teaching enhance the English speaking skills of Grade 8 students?
- (2) What are students' perceptions of, and levels of engagement in, learning English speaking through this integrated approach?

Correspondingly, the objectives were (1) to enhance the English speaking skills of Grade 8 students 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 total rubric score, and (2) to investigate students' perceptions and engagement following 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 they recognise from their own lives (Sears, 2002). Its theoretical roots lie in Vygotsky's (1978) account of learning as socially mediated activity within the zone of proximal development, and in Lave and Wenger's (1991) treatment of learning as participation in situated practice. Applied to language teaching, CTL implies that speaking practice should be embedded in recognisable social situations rather than in decontextualised drills.

Adaptive Teaching Competency (ATC) describes the teacher-side capability that CTL presupposes: the ability to diagnose learner states and to modify instruction accordingly, both in advance and in the moment. Vogt and Rogalla (2009) showed that ATC can be deliberately developed through structured coaching and that teachers who plan adaptively produce measurable differences in student outcomes. Hattie (2012) similarly places teacher responsiveness to evidence of learning among the strongest influences on achievement.

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 systematic identification of learners' current proficiency, needs and misconceptions. Didactic competency concerns the selection and staging of teaching techniques appropriate to that diagnosis. Classroom management competency concerns the establishment of a climate in which learners are willing to participate. Subject matter knowledge concerns the accurate treatment of language content. Contextual awareness and reflective practice concern the teacher's attentiveness to the social, cultural and linguistic circumstances of the class and the disciplined review of each lesson in the light of evidence. Because the fifth competency is recursive, CALM aligns naturally with cyclical action research designs in which reflection on one cycle becomes the diagnostic input for the next.

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, with reflective logs showing a shift from teacher-fronted delivery towards facilitation. 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 identified classroom management and diagnostic competency as the weakest areas, and both paired CALM with a staged instructional method rather than using it alone. The present study extends this line of work by pairing CALM with TBLT and by testing it on speaking — a skill in which Thai learners face affective as well as linguistic barriers — at the lower-secondary level.

2.3 Task-Based Language Teaching

TBLT treats the task — an activity with a non-linguistic outcome that requires learners to use language to achieve it — as the fundamental unit of instruction (Nunan, 1989; Ellis, 2003). A task sequence normally proceeds through three stages. In the pre-task stage the teacher introduces the topic, models the target performance and supplies the vocabulary and formulaic language learners will need. In the during-task stage learners perform the task in pairs or groups, with priority given to meaning and fluency. In the post-task stage learners report, receive feedback and attend to the language that arose during performance (Willis & Willis, 2007; Ellis, 2018). Empirical studies in Indonesian and Thai secondary schools report gains in speaking ability and in affective engagement following TBLT implementation (Jena, 2014; Mudra, 2016; Anchunda, 2022; Sabaruddin & Melati, 2022).

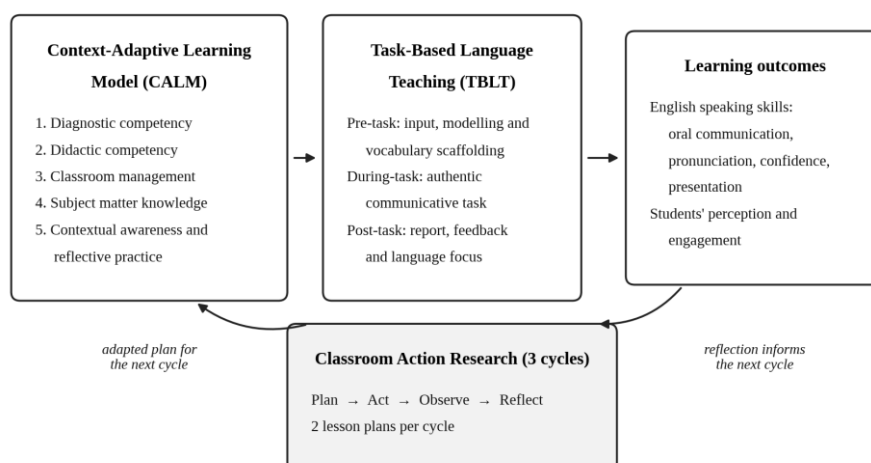
2.4 Speaking ability and its assessment

Speaking is a multi-componential construct. Frameworks such as the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2001) and the assessment literature (Luoma, 2004; Richards, 2008) converge on the need to assess several dimensions rather than a single global impression. This study operationalised speaking through four rubric criteria — oral communication proficiency, pronunciation and intonation, confidence and composure, and presentation skills — which together capture linguistic, phonological, affective and discourse-organisational aspects of oral performance. Reviews of speaking instruction in EFL contexts note persistent obstacles including limited exposure, large classes and learner anxiety (Agba, 2017; Dewitt & Moosavi, 2022), all of which are present in Thai municipal schools.

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 classroom action research cycle supplies the mechanism by which reflection on outcomes feeds back into the next round of planning.

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 employed a classroom action research (CAR) design following Kemmis and McTaggart (1988). Three complete cycles of plan–act–observe–reflect were carried out, each comprising two lesson plans. In the planning phase the researcher prepared materials and assessment instruments and briefed two research assistants. In the action phase the lessons were taught. In the observation phase the assistants recorded teaching behaviour and learner behaviour, and a speaking performance assessment was administered at the end of the cycle. In the reflection phase the research team analysed the observational records and performance data and used the findings to adjust the following cycle. This design was chosen because it 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 8 class (Mathayom 2/1) of 20 students at a municipal school in Mueang Khon Kaen District, 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: these students had studied English for approximately seven years, yet their speaking ability remained at beginner level according to school records from the preceding academic year, 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 4 (occupations; interviewing), Unit 5 (food and beverages; ordering in a restaurant) and Unit 6 (everyday actions; daily routines). Each lesson followed the pre-task, during-task and post-task sequence and was adapted using the CALM competencies to the proficiency profile and interests of the class.

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, a speaking performance rubric was applied at the end of each cycle. The rubric comprised four criteria — oral communication proficiency, pronunciation and intonation, confidence and composure, and presentation skills — each scored on a five-point scale, giving a maximum of 20 points. Third, a student perception and engagement questionnaire was administered. Part 1 contained 12 five-point Likert items distributed across three sections (teacher, learning activities, and students), and Part 2 contained three open-ended prompts asking students to describe their experience, to state whether they preferred task-based or conventional instruction, and to suggest improvements for the following cycle.

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 (IOC), rating each item +1 (congruent), 0 (uncertain) or -1 (not congruent). All items obtained IOC values between 0.67 and 1.00, exceeding the conventional 0.50 threshold, and the experts' comments were incorporated before implementation. A lesson plan evaluation form was used in parallel to assess objectives, organisation, teaching strategies, materials and assessment methods. The internal consistency of the 12-item questionnaire was computed on the collected data and was satisfactory, Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$.

3.5 Procedure

The study proceeded in six steps: (1) design of the six CALM–TBLT lesson plans in consultation with the research advisors; (2) development of the data-collection instruments; (3) expert validation of all instruments; (4) administration of the pre-test; (5) implementation of the three action research cycles, each consisting of two 60-minute lessons; and (6) administration of the speaking performance assessment at the end of each cycle, the post-test after the final cycle, and the perception and engagement questionnaire.

Adaptation between cycles followed directly from reflection. After Cycle 1, the pre-task stage was lengthened and vocabulary scaffolding was strengthened because observation showed that learners had insufficient lexical resources to sustain the interview task. After Cycle 2, group roles were assigned explicitly and preparation time was restructured because the reflection records identified uneven participation and coordination difficulties in the restaurant role-play. These adjustments are themselves data: they illustrate the operation of diagnostic and reflective competency within the model.

3.6 Data analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and percentage). A paired-samples t-test was used to compare 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. Qualitative data from the open-ended responses were analysed by content analysis: responses were translated, coded inductively, and grouped into themes that were then 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 12.55 out of 20 (62.75 per cent) before the intervention to 16.45 (82.25 per cent) after it, an average gain of 3.90 points. The standard deviation decreased from 3.62 to 3.03, indicating that the class also became more homogeneous. The difference was statistically significant, $t(19) = 8.51$, $p < .001$, and the effect size was large, Cohen's $d = 1.90$.

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

Test	M	SD	Percentage	Level
Pre-test	12.55	3.62	62.75	Moderate
Post-test	16.45	3.03	82.25	High
Gain	3.90	2.05	19.50	N/A

Note: Maximum score = 20. $t(19) = 8.51$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.90$. Source: Authors' own data.

The achievement criterion set for the study was that at least 70 per cent of students would score at least 70 per cent (14 points). Before the intervention, 7 students (35.00 per cent) met this standard; afterwards, 17 students (85.00 per cent) did so. The criterion was therefore exceeded.

4.2 Speaking performance across the three cycles

Table 2 reports the end-of-cycle speaking performance assessment. Mean scores increased monotonically across the three units, while standard deviations fell, indicating that lower-achieving students closed the gap on their higher-achieving peers rather than being left behind. The increase across cycles was statistically significant, $F(2, 38) = 20.80, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .52$. The sphericity assumption was satisfied ($\epsilon = .99$), so uncorrected degrees of freedom are reported. Bonferroni-corrected pairwise contrasts showed that each cycle exceeded the one before it (Cycle 1 to Cycle 2, $p = .014, d = 0.72$; Cycle 2 to Cycle 3, $p = .020, d = 0.68$), and that Cycle 3 exceeded Cycle 1 by a large margin, $t(19) = 6.85, p < .001, d = 1.53$.

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

Cycle (unit)	M	SD	Percentage	n meeting criterion
Cycle 1 (Unit 4)	15.50	2.26	77.50	16 (80%)
Cycle 2 (Unit 5)	16.65	1.84	83.25	19 (95%)
Cycle 3 (Unit 6)	17.70	1.78	88.50	20 (100%)

Note: Maximum score = 20. $F(2, 38) = 20.80, p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .52$. Source: Authors' own data.

A comparison of Tables 1 and 2 raises a question that needs answering. Every student met the 70 per cent criterion on the Cycle 3 assessment, yet only seventeen did so on the post-test administered immediately afterwards. The three students concerned were precisely those who had entered the study at the lowest baseline, each scoring 8 out of 20 on the pre-test, and each of them still improved (to 12, 12 and 10 respectively). The divergence reflects a difference in what the two instruments measure rather than a reversal of learning. The cycle assessment captured performance on the specific task students had just prepared within that unit, with modelling, rehearsal and teacher support available throughout the lesson. The post-test required individual, unrehearsed performance on an equivalent form of the pre-test drawing on all three units. The distance between the two scores is the distance between assisted and independent performance that Vygotsky (1978) places at the centre of the zone of proximal development: for the three lowest-starting students, the supported ceiling had risen faster than the independent one.

4.3 Students' perception and engagement

Table 3 presents the questionnaire results. The overall mean was 4.05 ($SD = 0.55$), a high level. All three sections produced closely comparable means, suggesting that students did not attribute their experience to the teacher alone or to the activities alone but to the combination. The highest-rated items were the clarity of task instructions ($M = 4.35$), the statement that task-based learning increased interest in continuing to study English ($M = 4.35$), the teacher's encouragement of interaction ($M = 4.30$) and the enjoyment and motivating quality of the tasks ($M = 4.25$) — all at a very high level. The lowest-rated item concerned the extent to which the teaching procedure clarified how TBLT works ($M = 3.60$), followed by the perceived real-life relevance of the tasks ($M = 3.75$).

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

Item	M	SD	Level
Section 1: Teacher			
1. The teacher gave clear instructions for each task.	4.35	0.75	Very high
2. The teacher encourages interaction and participation.	4.30	0.80	Very high
3. Teacher feedback helps improve my language skills.	3.90	1.07	High

Item	M	SD	Level
4. The procedure clarifies how learning through TBLT works.	3.60	0.94	High
<i>Section mean</i>	<i>4.04</i>	<i>0.93</i>	<i>High</i>
Section 2: Learning activities			
5. The tasks are relevant to real-life situations.	3.75	0.97	High
6. The tasks are enjoyable and motivating.	4.25	0.91	Very high
7. The tasks encourage communication and collaboration.	3.90	0.91	High
8. TBLT increases my interest in continuing to learn English.	4.35	0.99	Very high
<i>Section mean</i>	<i>4.06</i>	<i>0.96</i>	<i>High</i>
Section 3: Students			
9. I actively participate in task-based activities.	4.05	0.69	High
10. I am motivated to keep improving my speaking skills.	4.20	0.77	High
11. My confidence in using English has improved.	4.00	0.79	High
12. I collaborate well with classmates during tasks.	3.90	0.72	High
<i>Section mean</i>	<i>4.04</i>	<i>0.74</i>	<i>High</i>
Overall	4.05	0.55	High

Note: Five-point Likert scale; Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$. Source: Authors' own data.

4.4 Qualitative findings

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

Theme 1: affective change and increased motivation. Seven of the twenty students described a shift from dislike or indifference towards interest, one writing that she had not liked English at first but now wanted to learn more, and another that it had become her favourite subject.

Theme 2: classroom atmosphere and the teacher's role. Students linked their engagement to the teacher's approachability and the variety of activities, several noting that lessons were not boring and that they could laugh in class — which corresponds to the high ratings on the teacher items in Table 3.

Theme 3: perceived skill development and confidence. Students reported becoming more willing to speak in front of others: one who described herself as an introvert came to speak more than before, and another reported that an initial fear gave way to courage. Video-recorded tasks were repeatedly named as the activity that most increased expressiveness.

Theme 4: preference for task-based activities. Most students preferred TBLT to their usual lessons, citing group filming, cooking in English and vocabulary games. Two dissented, preferring conventional instruction because they valued note-taking — a minority view consistent with the lower rating on the item about understanding the TBLT procedure.

Theme 5: obstacles. Two difficulties recurred: limited vocabulary retention, and group coordination, including scheduling problems when filming had to happen outside class time.

Both align with the adaptations made between cycles and mark where further scaffolding is needed.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings answer both research questions. Speaking performance improved significantly and substantially, the achievement criterion was exceeded, and students reported a high level of engagement with the approach. Three features of the results merit particular comment.

First, the gain was accompanied by a reduction in dispersion at every measurement point. This pattern is more informative than the mean gain alone: it indicates that the intervention did not simply advantage students who were already comfortable speaking. Interpreted through CALM, the narrowing is attributable to diagnostic competency — the use of pre-test and formative evidence to identify which learners needed which form of support — combined with didactic competency in the differentiated scaffolding of pre-task vocabulary.

Second, the steady rise across cycles supports the claim that the reflective component of the model does real work. The two adjustments made between cycles were not arbitrary refinements; each responded to a documented weakness, and each preceded an increase in both the mean and the proportion of students meeting the criterion. The finding is consistent with Vogt and Rogalla's (2009) demonstration that adaptive teaching competency is learnable and consequential, and with Hattie's (2012) emphasis on teachers who treat evidence of learning as instructionally binding.

Third, the affective results were as strong as the cognitive ones. Given that anxiety and low confidence are documented obstacles for Thai learners (Ananta & Seesang, 2020; Chokdee & Nopphorn, 2019), the shift in willingness to speak reported in Themes 1 and 3 is arguably the finding with the greatest practical significance. TBLT contributed the low-stakes, meaning-focused performance opportunities (Ellis, 2003; Willis & Willis, 2007), while CALM's classroom management and contextual awareness competencies contributed the supportive climate in which those opportunities could be taken up. The two lowest-rated questionnaire items are instructive in the same way: students valued the tasks but were less certain about the rationale of the method and about the real-life relevance of some content, which suggests that the pedagogical logic of TBLT should be made explicit to learners rather than left implicit.

Read alongside the two companion CALM studies, the present results suggest that the model's contribution holds across levels and skills. The engagement means are strikingly close — 4.13 in the primary writing study and 4.05 here (Pholjarn, Sudathip, & Sriburin, 2026) — 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. The effect sizes differ, however: the writing study reported $d = 4.05$ against a baseline of 38.92 per cent, whereas this study reports $d = 1.90$ against a baseline of 62.75 per cent. The smaller effect is expected and is not a weaker result; it reflects a higher starting point and less room for gain.

In conclusion, the integration of the Context-Adaptive Learning Model with Task-Based Language Teaching was effective in enhancing the English speaking skills of Grade 8 students at a Thai municipal school and in fostering positive perceptions and high engagement. The contribution of the study is not that task-based instruction works — this is well established — but that a specified set of adaptive teacher competencies, applied cyclically, provides a reproducible mechanism for tailoring task-based instruction to a particular class and for improving 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. In particular, administer a short diagnostic speaking task before a unit begins and let its results determine the amount of pre-task scaffolding provided.
- For pre-service teachers: maintain a structured reflective journal across a teaching practicum, recording for each lesson what was observed, what was changed and what resulted. This converts reflection from a retrospective habit into a data source.
- For schools and administrators: support professional development in which teachers plan, observe and reflect on task-based lessons collaboratively, since the reflective cycle is difficult to sustain in isolation.
- For English instruction generally: make the purpose of task-based activity explicit to students, assign group roles before collaborative tasks, and allow preparation time within lesson hours so that out-of-class coordination does not become a barrier to participation.

6.2 Limitations

Four limitations qualify these findings. First, the study involved a single intact class of 20 students in one school; the results describe what the approach achieved in that context and cannot be generalised statistically to other populations. 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 specific setting and withholding the intervention from half of an intact class would have been neither practicable nor equitable. It does mean, however, that the results should be read as situated evidence of improvement in this classroom rather than as a causal estimate of the intervention's effect relative to conventional teaching, because maturation, repeated testing and the novelty of a new teacher cannot be ruled out. Third, the researcher was also the classroom teacher and one of the raters, which introduces a risk of expectancy effects; this was mitigated by the use of an expert-validated analytic rubric and by the presence of two research assistants as observers, but not eliminated. Fourth, the intervention lasted three cycles within a single semester, so the durability of the gains is unknown.

6.3 Suggestions for future research

- (1) Extend CALM–TBLT to listening, reading and writing to test whether the adaptive competencies generalise beyond oral production.
- (2) Replicate the design with a larger sample and a comparison group across schools of differing size, resourcing and urban or rural location.
- (3) Conduct longitudinal work across several semesters to examine whether the gains are retained and how teachers' reflective practice develops over repeated cycles.
- (4) Compare CALM–TBLT with other frameworks such as Communicative Language Teaching, Problem-Based Learning or Content and Language Integrated Learning.
- (5) Investigate which CALM competencies drive which learner outcomes, so that the contribution of each component can be estimated rather than assumed.

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