The Effectiveness of Task-Based and Genre-Based Integrated Learning on English Language Proficiency of Thai Rural Secondary School Students

Kornwipa Poonpon
English Language Department, Smart Learning Innovation Research Center, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand

Bhirawit Satthamnuwong
English Language Department, Smart Learning Innovation Research Center, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand

Banchakarn Sameephet
English Language Department, Smart Learning Innovation Research Center, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand

Abstract—Despite continuous and enormous attempts to improve English language teaching and learning in Thailand, a specifically designed teaching model which responds to low English proficiency students' needs, interests, and contexts in rural schools was still needed. This study developed an innovative instructional model based on agents' voices on problems and needs in teaching and learning English in a rural context. Based on both global and local standards—the Common European Framework for Language References (CEFR) and Thailand's Basic Education Core Curriculum (2008), the model, so-called TIGA, combined task-based learning approach (T), the input of target language (I), genre-based approach (G), and authentic assessment (A). TIGA-based teaching lessons were empirically designed and developed to facilitate English learning so that students can accomplish real-world tasks. The two-group pretest-post-test design was employed. Participants included 44 secondary school students purposively selected from two seventh grade classes at two Thai rural schools. The TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons were implemented with an experimental group of 28 secondary school students at one school. Pre- and post-tests were used to assess both groups of students' English proficiency levels, followed by semi-structured interviews to investigate their attitudes towards the model and lesson implementation. The results showed a significant difference between the students' English abilities in the experimental and control groups. The study also revealed that the instructional model could motivate and engage the low-ability students to improve their level of English proficiency. The present study offers pedagogical implications for relevant educators in similar contexts.

Index Terms—task-based learning and teaching, genre-based approach, CEFR, teaching model, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

English has been a compulsory subject for all grade levels, while other foreign languages have been electives in Thailand since 1982 (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). With the participation of Thailand in the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015, English has been useful for both trade and education, leading to a greater emphasis on English as a foreign language in Thai national curricula (Kaur et al., 2016; Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011; Wudthayagorn et al., in press). Educational policymakers tend to focus on improving the quality of English education in schools by implementing effective teaching approaches, e.g., communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language learning and teaching (TBLT), increasing the number of hours spent on teaching and learning English, and expanding the number of English programs in Thai schools as well as English bilingual schools.

The implementation of the English education policy in Thailand seemed to be unsuccessful. Global reports revealed that over the past five years, Thais’ English proficiency levels were ranked 53rd among 80 countries, 64th among 88, 74th among 100, 89th among 99, and 100th among 112, respectively (EF English Proficiency Index, 2021). Possible reasons behind this unsuccessful implementation could be categorized into three types: teachers, students, and materials (Tangkijmongkol & Wasanasomsithi, 2013). Teachers have heavy workloads and still rely on the traditional grammar-translation method (Kwangsawad, 2009). Meanwhile, students lacked a routine for practicing English in classrooms and
an opportunity to deploy English in immediate environments beyond classrooms. They are also not confident in using English in communication, are afraid of making mistakes, and have low motivation to learn English (Oktavia et al., 2022; Wongsothorn et al., 2002). Most emphatically, students’ interests and needs for learning English are not considered when designing teaching and learning in many school contexts. Instructional material issues include the unsuitable level of difficulty and less contextualized content in commercial textbooks, and unaffordable prices (Poonpon et al., 2016). Another cause is policy implementation and a lack of clear employment guidelines. As a result, teachers are unsure about implementing the ELT policy in their classrooms.

It comes as no surprise that these challenges are more serious for rural schools. Poonpon et al. (2016, 2018) pinpointed that rural students had a lower level of learning performance due to a variety of issues negatively affecting learning and teaching. These factors include fewer opportunities to use English in daily life, limited access to technology for education, teachers having concerns about implementing different teaching approaches and educational policies, and lack of support from the authorities. This confirms the key findings of earlier research (e.g., Nunan, 2003) in that city and rural schools in, at least, Asian Pacific countries still had inequality in access to quality ELT due to schools’ readiness (i.e., access to English, teacher education, principles of ELT) and parents’ financial backgrounds. The situation would be disadvantageous to rural schools and their students.

From existing literature about the ELT phenomenon in a Thai context (e.g., Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012; Kaur et al., 2016; Pietri, 2015), there seems to be a lack of the ground-breaking instructional model which seamlessly weaves together the key innovations in ELT under the circumstances. To address this gap, the present study developed an English instructional model which meets both global and local standards and teachers’ and students’ interests and needs in a Thai rural context. The study is expected to shed light on the implementation of English education policy at a classroom level and serve as a practical guide for Thai English language teachers in integrating teaching approaches to maximize benefits for Thai English language students. In addition, pedagogical implications arising from this study will be beneficial for such key educational agents as policymakers, curriculum developers, and teachers in similar contexts.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

English language policy in Thailand supports continuous practices in improving the English language proficiency of Thai students. In 1977, the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach was introduced and included in the national curricula, followed by the task-based teaching and learning (TBLT) approach in 2009 to improve students’ functional English competence (Basic Education Commission, 2008). Later, in 2014, the government also adopted the Common European Framework for Language References (CEFR) to be a framework for language teachers and educators in teaching, designing the material, and testing (Council of Europe, 2001; Ministry of Education, 2014). Under the CEFR policy, grade 6 students are expected to reach the A1 level, grade 9 students at the A2 level, and grade 12 at the B1 level. At the classroom level, all English language teachers have been encouraged to employ the CLT, TBLT, and CEFR in their classes, but the implementation has not been successful as expected (Foley, 2005; Franz & Teo, 2017; Kustati, 2013; Wudthayagorn et al., in press).

TBLT is an approach that builds teaching and learning around meaningful real-life tasks (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004). Indeed, it focuses on meaning before form (Willis, 1996). In doing so, students can choose any language forms they wish to convey their messages to fulfill the task goals. Accuracy is not the priority, but fluency and meaningful communication. Students learn from their trial-and-error experiments based on their previous knowledge. Thus, tasks can be designed to make certain target forms task-essential and communicatively necessary for students to practice using them (Ellis, 2003; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Willis, 1996).

Tasks can be categorized into two types: real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks (Nunan, 1989). Real-world tasks are derived from a needs analysis; thus, they are meaningful tasks in students’ real-life contexts. This kind of task involves students in using the target language to complete real-world tasks. When the tasks are transferred from the real world to the classroom, they are called pedagogical tasks. Pedagogical tasks are useful in having students practice language for communicative purposes. They involve students in rehearsing real-world tasks. In this aspect, the practice of language comprising linguistic elements necessary for such tasks facilitates students to make the right choices to negotiate meaning to accomplish outcomes. Tasks can be designed for students learning particular language features.

The genre-based approach focuses on explicitly teaching how language works to make meaning through content, rhetorical structure, and sequences of a particular genre (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Burns and Joyce (1991, as cited in Hammond et al., 1992) proposed a genre-based teaching-learning cycle, adapted from Callaghan and Rothery (1988) (Figure 1). There were four focused stages of scaffolding tasks in a cycle designed for each text type and topic of the input.

In Phase 1, Building Knowledge of the Field, students build their knowledge of the cultural or social context, target situation, communicative outcome, relevant vocabulary, and grammatical patterns through interactional tasks. In Phase 2, Modelling of Text, students develop their understanding of the knowledge in the previous phase by analysing a model text. They are also familiarised with schematic structure and linguistic features needed for a particular genre or model text. Then students used what they had learned from Phase 2 to produce either spoken or written language through pair or group work (Joint Construction of Text). The teacher is to facilitate students at this stage until they are confident in producing the language for each task. At this stage, students can do as many sub-tasks as they want until they are
confident in using the language. The final phase, Individual Construction of Text, requires individual students to construct a text using the schematic structure and linguistic features they have learned and practiced from the three previous phases to complete the main task.

In the present study, Thailand’s basic education core curriculum (Basic Education Commission, 2008) and CEFR were the foundation ground of the design of the teaching model since all Thai schools are required to follow these frameworks, notwithstanding a lack of practical guidelines for CEFR implementation. Considered exploratory by the researchers regarding secondary school students’ English learning problems (Poonpon et al., 2016), TBLT and the genre-based approach are central to the teaching model designed to create a more engaging communicative English learning environment.

**TASK-INPUT-GENRE-ASSESSMENT (TIGA) MODEL**

The TIGA model was developed to address teaching and learning problems encountered by the teachers and the students in Thai rural schools (Poonpon et al., 2016). It was aimed to enhance low-level students’ communicative language proficiency. The TIGA model integrated 1) Task (T) for the students to have achievable goals and an authentic target task for each lesson, 2) Input (I) focusing on vocabulary and grammatical features needed to complete the task, 3) Genre (G) as a model text for the students who have poor language ability or are almost illiterate in English, and 4) Assessment (A) to help the students evaluate their own performance and learn from what they have done in the authentic tasks. Figure 2 illustrates the TIGA model and how it was designed to address the teaching and learning problems in the Thai rural school context.
The present study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the innovative English language teaching model, the TIGA model, and TIGA-based lessons for low-proficiency level secondary students in the Northeastern part of Thailand and explore the students’ feedback on the teaching model and lessons. The study was guided by two research questions:

1. To what extent do the innovative instructional model and lessons improve rural secondary school students’ English ability?
2. What are rural secondary school students’ opinions towards the instructional model and lessons?

The study tested the hypothesis that the innovative instructional model and lessons can statistically improve the students’ English language proficiency.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study used a mixed-method approach. The quantitative approach was used in a two-group pretest-posttest design to investigate the effectiveness of the teaching model and its lessons. The qualitative approach was used to elicit students’ opinions regarding the implementation of the model.

A. School Context

The rural schools participating in the study are small public schools in a northeastern province of Thailand. They are categorized as educational opportunity expansion schools—primary schools that offer classes from kindergarten to grade 9 secondary school students. This kind of schools aims to support students with financial challenges and different backgrounds to have a place to continue their low-cost secondary education in their neighborhood. Each grade had one class, and 10 to 30 students were in each class. The researchers asked for official permission from the schools’ principals. The administrators and English teachers at both schools were informed about the objectives of the study and signed a consent form before the research started.

B. Participants

The participants were 44 seventh-grade students from the two rural educational opportunity expansion schools in the same district in the northeastern province. In the first school, an experiment group of 28 students (18 males and ten females) was included. The second school, a control group, included 16 students (11 males and five females). The students’ age ranges were between 11 and 13 years old. Most of these students have very poor English proficiency. Some were almost illiterate in English. These participants fully understood the research objectives and processes as well as their roles in the research project, and they willingly signed a consent form before their participation.

C. Research Instruments

The instruments included TIGA-based English lessons, a pre-test, a post-test, a questionnaire, and a semi-structured interview.

(a). TIGA-Based English Lessons

Three English lessons were designed under the TIGA model and included three familiar topics (i.e., family, my school, and food) under CEFR A2 level. In each lesson, learning outcomes and a target task were designed. Then the necessary language input needed to complete the target task was provided in a pedagogical task or sub-task. These inputs and sub-tasks were aimed to equip the students with the necessary linguistic knowledge (i.e., vocabulary and grammar) and language skills (i.e., listening, reading, speaking, and writing) that would scaffold them until they can complete the target task. After this, the students were asked to evaluate their performance qualitatively and quantitatively, using a given rubric at the end of each lesson. Figure 3 illustrates how the TIGA model was used to design the TIGA-based lesson, Unit 3 (My Dish). An example of this unit is shown in the Appendix. Each lesson lasted twelve hours, so the total number of hours spent learning with the lessons was 36 hours.

The first lesson was developed, validated, and used with the experimental group as a prototype lesson. Comments and feedback from the first trial were employed to improve the lesson. The revised lesson was deployed as a prototype for Units 2 and 3. All the lessons were validated by teaching experts with the index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) at .89.
(b). Pre-Test and Post-Test

The pre-test and post-test were adapted from Cambridge A2 Key English Test (KET), based on CEFR A2 level. The two-hour tests consisted of four parts: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The total score was 40 (10 for each part). The tests were validated by two testing experts with the validity index IOC at .86. The tests were piloted, and test reliability was calculated, the Cronbach alpha ($\alpha$) at .78.

(c). A Questionnaire

A five-Likert-scale questionnaire was used to examine the participants’ opinions on the teaching model and its implementation in many aspects, i.e., teaching and learning materials, tasks or class activities, and self-perception about their skills improvement, motivation, and confidence. There are three parts in the questionnaire: demographic information, opinions about the model implementation, and open-ended questions. The questionnaire was written in Thai to prevent misunderstanding. The questionnaire was validated by two experts with the validity index IOC at .90.

(d). A Semi-Structured Interview

The semi-structured interview elicited the participants’ opinions about the teaching model and its employment in various aspects concerning materials, teaching and learning activities, relevant skills, and psychological factors. To avoid a language barrier, the interview was conducted in Thai.

D. Data Collection

After the TIGA teaching model and TIGA-based lessons were developed, they were utilized in the experimental classroom for three months (Figure 4). The pre-test and post-test were administered at both schools before and after the experiment. After the post-test, the questionnaire was distributed to all 28 students in the experimental group. Ten students who always attended the classes were selected for the interview. For the control group, the students took a pre-test and a post-test before and after the standard lessons were delivered at their school.

E. Data Analysis

The pre-test and post-test scores from the experimental and control groups were statistically calculated using an independent sample $t$-test. The questionnaire data were quantitatively analysed using descriptive statistics, i.e., mean, standard deviations, and percentage. The criteria for the mean interpretation were as follows:
4.21 - 5.00 means Strongly Agree
3.41 - 4.20 means Agree
2.61 - 3.40 means Neutral
1.81 - 2.60 means Disagree
1.00 – 1.80 means Strongly Disagree

The interview data were transcribed and coded by two researchers using content analysis (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The intercoder reliability of the coded themes was 0.82.

IV. FINDINGS

A. The Effectiveness of the TIGA Model and Lessons on Rural Secondary School Students’ English Ability

The analysis of pre-test and post-test scores was carried out to answer Research Question 1 regarding the effectiveness of the model and the TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the experimental and control groups in the pre-test and post-test. The results showed that the students in the experimental group (M=12.73, SD=6.23) compared to the students in the control group (M=8.90, SD=3.77) demonstrated significantly better CEFR-based English test scores, t(42) = 2.2, p < .05. This means the students who studied English with the TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons outperformed those who were not exposed to the TIGA model and lessons.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.30</td>
<td>5.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12.73</td>
<td>6.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>3.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Students’ Opinions towards the Teaching Model and Lessons

The results from the questionnaires, of which 96% were returned to the researchers, revealed the students’ opinions about the implementation of the TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons (Table 2).

As Table 2 shows, the students’ feedback is classified into four areas: the TIGA model and lessons, learning and teaching activities, skills improvement, and students’ confidence. First, most students agreed that the TIGA-based lessons were appropriate for their language ability (M=4.17, SD=0.76); and other materials (e.g., video clips, slides, and audio files) were interesting and facilitated their learning (M=4.13, SD=0.74). For the tasks or learning activities, the students strongly agreed that the TIGA-based lessons can help them improve their speaking (M=4.21, SD=0.71). In general, students are satisfied with their performance (M=4.13, SD=0.74) and classroom management (M=4.17, SD=0.76). They were also satisfied with the testing and assessment in their English class (M=4.38, SD=0.71) and classroom management (e.g., seating, classroom
language, rules) (M=4.38, SD=0.71). They agreed that the activities encouraged them to collaborate with their classmates (M=4.04, SD=0.91).

Moreover, they thought that the model and lessons helped them improve their skills. They highly agreed that the lessons could help them improve their listening skills (M=4.38, SD=0.71) and vocabulary (M=4.25, SD=0.94). They also agreed that they improved other learning skills such as idea organization, techniques in memorizing vocabulary and pronouncing words (M=4.08, SD=0.93). Apart from that, the lessons helped to improve their reading (M=4.04, SD=0.81), writing (M=3.96, SD=0.96), speaking (M=3.96, SD=0.94) and grammar (M=3.96, SD=0.96). Regarding the students’ confidence levels, the students agreed that they were more aware when using English in different situations (M=3.67, SD=1.01) and became more confident in using English for communication (M=3.38, SD=1.17). However, they disagreed that they could apply what they learned in class for daily life communication (M=2.38, SD=1.17).

The qualitative data from the open-ended section and interviews confirmed the quantitative results in many aspects. First, the students positively reflected on the TIGA-based materials and class activities. They enjoyed a variety of target tasks, e.g., video-recording their self-introduction, making a video to introduce their own family, and making a school map and its description. They also liked learning vocabulary through colorful pictures and games (e.g., word spelling games and occupation guessing games). These activities can help them learn vocabulary and grammar better and use them to complete the target tasks. The students’ examples of comments are as follows:

“...it’s fun. We know more vocabulary. It’s more interesting than before. And, we can learn more.” [Student 3]

“...there are varieties of activities in class and outside class...” [Student 4]

“I can memorize vocabulary and used many words when I introduced myself and my family.” [Student 11]

Moreover, they thought the classroom atmosphere was suitable for learning English. They liked the way the teacher arranged group seating and seating rotation so that they did not have to sit at the back or front of the room throughout the semester. For example,

“We have practiced reading, writing, thinking and working as a team. Also we learned how to solve problems and what we should do [to complete the task]. We also shared ideas among friends ” [Student 2].

When asked about testing and assessment, the students reflected that they had never experienced such performance-based assessments as self-introduction videos, sound recordings, and school maps. Some of them thought these performance-based assessments were exciting, while the others did not like the tasks as they were complicated and took lots of effort. Thus, the latter groups preferred such familiar tests as multiple-choice or true-false tests.

Lastly, the students revealed more positive attitudes toward English learning. They felt more confident in using English for communication. English classes were not boring anymore as they had opportunities to do many fun activities. Many of them admitted that they could read, write and spell many more English words than before. They also appreciated their ability to understand English sentences. For example,

“I couldn't read English words before. But now, I'm happy that I can.” [Student 7]

“I like jigsaw reading... I feel more confident. I didn’t like English before. Now I have a more positive attitude about learning English.” [Student 8]

The students gave some valuable suggestions regarding the use of materials with the TIGA model and activities and the language of instruction. For example, they suggested that more video clips or live media be provided for more active and effective English learning. More importantly, they suggested that the teacher use both Thai and English with an equal proportion rather than English only or most of the time English.

V. DISCUSSION

The present study was designed to examine the effectiveness of the TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons after its implementation with the rural students in the Thai school context. The results clearly show a significant difference between the experimental and control groups. The former group outperformed the latter after the intervention. This indicated that using the TIGA model and its lessons improved the rural students’ English abilities. The results confirmed several studies regarding using TBLT together with the genre-based approach (e.g., Aliakbari & Jamalvandi, 2010; Kongpatch, 2006; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Payaprom, 2012; Sae-Ong, 2010; Shabani & Ghasemi, 2014). The synergy of TBLT and the genre-based approach can effectively boost low-ability students’ English proficiency levels.

For many reasons, the TIGA model appears to be an effective model for teaching and learning English for poor students in a rural context. First, authentic tasks (i.e., videotaping themselves to introduce their family, creating a school map presenting locations in schools, and creating a cooking video) were used to set learning contexts and outcomes for the students in the rural area. This could involve and motivate the students to learn English in their contexts; thus, meaningful learning happens (Carless, 2007; Long & Crookes, 1992). Once the students felt highly motivated, they wanted to learn and improve their English (Aliakbari & Jamalvandi, 2010; Imsa-ard, 2020). With motivation, the students would more easily interact with diverse communicative tasks that promote the use of English for authentic and meaningful communication (Butler, 2011; Yung, 2021). The TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons value real-world and pedagogic tasks (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996). With the TIGA model, the focus shifts to utilizing tasks to promote interaction and then create language awareness and improvement around task performance throughout all
systematic sequencing of the task. Sequences of tasks in TIGA-based lessons can prepare students for the target task and self-evaluation of the task (Willis & Willis, 2007).

Second, the TIGA model facilitated learning by scaffolding the students through necessary input (i.e., vocabulary and grammar) and sub-tasks (Bruner, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978). The TIGA model contrasted with earlier grammar-focused approaches to teaching, characterized as “teacher-dominated, form-oriented classroom practice” (Van den Branden, 2006). The TIGA model provided useful input to language improvement through pedagogic tasks in instructional processes. The students developed their language after each task had been completed. Only useful lexico-grammatical aspects of accurate language use are delivered when the need arises during tasks’ completion (Lu & Fan, 2021; Richards, 2017).

Third, the TIGA model, incorporated with the genre-based approach, fostered students’ knowledge construction and understanding of their cultural and social contexts, target situations, and communicative outcomes with the key target language (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). The students’ exposure to the modelling texts and communicative purposes of each genre type can help them learn how to construct a text with a schematic structure. Together with linguistic features as input, it can also enable them to produce either written or spoken language required by the target task in each lesson (Enli, 2015).

Moreover, the model can encourage the students to collaborate with classmates, which can help them learn both inside and outside classrooms (Breen, 2001). The present study confirms that the TIGA model and its lessons enabled the students to promote collaborative learning while working on tasks. These results corroborate a great deal of the recent study by Sert and Amri (2021). They found that while the students performed the tasks in groups, ‘collaborative attention work’ played the main role when they focused on task completion. In addition, the authors reported that the students gave feedback to their peers and helped each other search for vocabulary items while working on tasks in groups.

The TIGA model additionally promoted alternative assessments. The assessment (A) in the TIGA model was designed to avoid an “assessment-driven curriculum” and practice (Richards, 2017, p. 176), usually found in traditional assessments, and focus more on performance-based assessment. The present study revealed that the TIGA model provided the students with opportunities to learn English meaningfully and deviate from learning/teaching-to-test practice. The students were required to judge their own performance in task completion and their ability to apply target linguistic features they have learned from each lesson to produce the tasks. This can engage them at the end of each unit and throughout the task, as many of the students appeared to re-record their clips so many times until they were satisfied. Such performance-based assessment can support a self-evaluation of the students’ own ability to apply the skills and knowledge learned from each unit of study (McNamara, 1996).

Another interesting finding is that task-based teachers could not exclude the students’ L1 from English which was the target language and the language of instruction. The present study captured that the students suggested their teachers deploy a balanced amount of Thai and English. These results reflect those of Xu and Fan (2021), who also found that the students employed more L1 when working on complex tasks. The explanation is that L1 can facilitate students’ L2 learning (Hu, 2022). The authors also explained that L1 helped the students complete the functions of metacognitive and language points to accomplish complex tasks.

However, the model and its lessons raise some concerns over student-student interactions in English required by tasks and the students’ lack of confidence in applying what they have learned to their real-life communication. First, although the tasks are authentic, they were unable to facilitate a full two-way communication as the students’ ability had not been ready for the two-way communication. This case is similar to low-level English-proficiency middle school students in Korea learning through TBLT. They appeared to have minimal interactions, as the students mainly focused on task completion (Park, 2021). In addition, the fact that the students disagreed that they could apply their knowledge from the TIGA-based lessons to their daily life communication reflects English language education in Thai contexts. Even though English is valuable in Thailand, most students, especially in remote areas, as the present study highlighted, cannot see its significance in their real life since they have little chance of using English to earn a living (Poonpon et al., 2016; Wongsothorn et al., 2002).

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The study offers policy and pedagogical implications. This teaching model illustrates how the English education policy, focusing on local standards (i.e., core curriculum) and international standards and teaching approaches (e.g., CEFR, TBLT), can be a framework for an innovative ELT model appropriate for low-level English proficiency students in a rural context. Pedagogically, this teaching model is advantageous from the teacher’s and the students’ points of view. The model relates to their learning and real-life contexts and is practical to be applied in English language classrooms. The model guides the teacher and the students to learn English step-by-step through scaffolding instruction.

However, when applying this model, it is suggested that the teacher do the following. First, the teacher should have a thorough understanding of the model’s concepts and realize the roles of the teacher and students when doing tasks in the model. Besides, they should have good lesson plans that foster the students’ productive hours of learning. In case students have insufficient English, the teacher is suggested to use the students’ L1 alongside English to facilitate learning. Once the students develop their English skills to sufficient levels, the teacher should expose them to as much
English as possible. Finally, the teacher should strongly believe in the students’ ability to learn and improve their English skills. Giving the students more chances to participate in sub-tasks and target tasks would motivate the students to learn and increase self-esteem and positive attitudes towards learning English.

Although this model has been seen as successful, it is not without critics. Some limitations should be noted. The present study had a small sample size due to the limited number of grade 7 classes and students at the school. Another challenge is the fact that most tasks are one-way communication tasks as the students do not have sufficient knowledge to interact with each other. Moreover, since this teaching and learning model and lessons are innovative, it is time-consuming to implement them in the classroom, especially during the familiarization phase for the teacher and the students. There needs to be a consequent phase of improving the model and materials based on the students’ and the teacher’s comments and re-implementing them in other classes to confirm the effectiveness of the implementation of the model.

To deal with these limitations, further studies are suggested to use the TIGA model with a larger sample size in other schools in northeast Thailand to ensure the effectiveness of the model and increase the generalization of the results. Moreover, future studies may consider verifying the TIGA model and lessons by implementing it in other secondary school contexts or with classes aiming for their students to master the CEFR A2 level to depict a clearer picture of the effectiveness of the TIGA model and lessons. They could also explore students’ learning processes under the TIGA model. Further research should be undertaken to investigate the influences of the TIGA model on students’ confidence in using English. More interestingly, due to the disruptive impact of the pandemic on education, the inclusion of technology should be integrated into the model and materials to study whether technology can enhance language learning. Further research can explore testing and assessment tools appropriate for the TIGA model’s task-based and genre-based learning approaches.

VII. CONCLUSION

There were two primary aims of this present study: to investigate the effectiveness of the TIGA model and its lessons used with low-level English proficiency secondary school students and to explore students’ feedback about the model usage. The results revealed that the TIGA model appeared to be an effective teaching model, and TIGA-based lessons proved to be suitable for low-ability students in the Thai rural school context. The results confirmed that the experimental group outperformed the control group. Moreover, the students strongly agreed that the tasks or class activities were suitable. They also agreed that the lessons were appropriate and could improve their English skills. This present study concluded that the TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons were the key influences that impacted the students’ positive results both in the development of English skills and positive attitudes. The instructional innovations reflected real-world uses of English and might be considered a rehearsal for real-world tasks. All in all, the TIGA model and TIGA-based lessons have been a great success in the rural school context.

APPENDIX. AN EXAMPLE OF A TIGA-BASED LESSON

UNIT 3
MY DISH
Goals
1. To be able to describe the cooking process.
2. To be able to express time sequences.

Learning Outcomes
1. To be able to demonstrate understanding of frequently used sentences and expressions in describing the cooking process.
2. To be able to write a recipe.
3. To be able to talk about ingredients and the cooking process.

Target Task
1. Writing a recipe.
2. Making a video clip to demonstrate cooking.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT) and the Thailand Research Fund (TRF) under Grant no. RDG5740080.

REFERENCES


**Kornwipa Poonpon** was born in Nakornratchasima, Thailand, on July 3, 1974. She holds a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from Northern Arizona University, Arizona, USA (2009). She holds a B.A. in English (First Class Honors) (1996) and an M.A. in Applied Linguistics from Mahidol University (2002), Thailand.

She is the Head of the English Language Department, the Director of Center for English Language Excellence, and the Chair of the M.A. in English Program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand. Research interests include English language teaching, language assessment, and corpus linguistics.

Assistant Professor Poonpon is the President of the Thailand Association of Applied Linguistics (TAAL) and the Regional Affiliate of Thailand TESOL.

**Bhirawit Satthamnuwong** was born in Sisaket, Thailand, on July 10, 1979. He holds an M.A. in English for Specific Purposes from Kasetsart University, Bangkok, Thailand (2006) and a B.A. in English from Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand (2002).

He is a lecturer at the English Language Department, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University. He has experience in researching and training teachers in curriculum development and implementation, and English medium education. He is currently undertaking his Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at the University of Southampton, which focuses on conceptualizations of the roles and use of linguistic resources in the English medium instruction (EMI) classrooms in a multilingual university setting in Thailand.

Mr Satthamnuwong is a member of Centre for Global Englishes (CGE) and the Thailand Association of Applied Linguistics (TAAL).

**Banchakarn Sameephet** was born in Khon Kaen, Thailand, on July 12, 1986. He holds a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand (2020). He holds a B.Ed. in English (2010) from Mahasarakham University, Mahasarakham, Thailand, and M.A. in Applied Linguistics for ELT (2012) from King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonburi, Bangkok, Thailand.

He is a lecturer at the English Language Department, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen, Thailand. His research areas and interests are English Medium Instruction (EMI), translanguaging, and Global Englishes for language teaching.

Dr Sameephet is a member of the Applied Linguistics Association of New Zealand (ALANZ) and the Thai Association of Applied Linguistics (TAAL). He is also a Thailand EC Coordinator in Teaching English and Teaching IN English in Global Contexts academic network.

© 2022 ACADEMY PUBLICATION