
| RESEARCH ARTICLE

The Effects of Task-Based Language Teaching on EFL Learners' Speaking Performance

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| ABSTRACT

In spite of the current needs for human resources with the ability to communicate using English, most of Vietnamese learners still have many difficulties in speaking after a long time of study. In order to tackle this issue in English education, Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) was strongly recommended by the Ministry of Education and Training with the aim to shift the educational view to a more supportive and efficient perspective for learners' communicative competence. In this context, the study was conducted to explore the effects of TBLT on EFL students' speaking performance. This quasi-experimental research was carried out on 60 participants from a hospitality college in Ho Chi Minh City. The students in the experimental group were instructed with TBLT for eight weeks while those in the control group were taught with a conventional method. The research data were gathered via two instruments of tests (pre- and post-test) to measure the students' speaking performance before and after the treatment, and a questionnaire to discover their attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT. The analysis and interpretation of research data were conducted thanks to the use of the software SPSS. Particularly, pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups were compared in terms of mean values with the employment of an independent samples t-test. As for the questionnaire, mean value and standard deviation of each item were calculated and interpreted. The findings indicated that TBLT significantly improves the students' speaking ability and they have positive attitudes towards its employment in their speaking classes.

| KEYWORDS

Speaking performance, Task-based Language Teaching, effects, attitudes

| ARTICLE INFORMATION

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1. Introduction

In the current Vietnamese context where teaching and learning English is one of the most considerable educational issue in the society, English is a compulsory subject at both lower and upper secondary levels and an elective subject at a primary school (Hoang, 2018). This subject is now early introduced to students from grade 3 and accompanies them to grade 12 in the general educational program. Moreover, teaching and learning English is continuously carried out at vocational schools, colleges, universities, and higher educational programs. However, Vietnamese learners still encounter many difficulties in English, especially in the speaking skill. The issue indicated by Hoang (2018) is that "English language teaching in Vietnam has not met the demand for competent English-speaking people" (p. 15). In fact, a majority of Vietnamese learners fail to communicate using English although they have been studying it for many years from a primary school to higher education. Even learners who can read and write very well still find difficulties in expressing their opinion orally. Hoang (2018) also stated one of the main reasons for this

obstacle is that many teachers do not normally communicate in English and cannot sustain teaching that mainly depends on communicative interactions. A similar issue is also observed in a college and university when a large number of graduates cannot meet the demand of English at work. According to the survey by Manpower Group Vietnam, 30% of the surveyed companies admitted a concern for the Vietnamese labor market as less than 10% of employees had the necessary English skills to work (Tran, 2022).

In the current contextualized setting, various factors including curriculum, students, teachers, textbooks, environment, and assessment system are claimed to share responsibility for learners' lack of speaking competence. Among hundreds of reasons, the teaching method in which the teacher gives lectures most of the time and students lack speaking practice is a factor that must be taken into account. As a consequence, the students have adopted a model of language learning in which they concentrate on listening to the teachers, repeating, then copying the linguistic knowledge by them (Kennett & Knight, 1999). According to Le (2011), this style of teaching and learning fosters learners' memorization of the rules rather than engage them in other activities. Moreover, due to the reason that students are accustomed to a grammar-based approach, they find it difficult to produce an extended speech (Le, 2011; Nguyen, 2021).

In the guidance for the teacher with the general education program, Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (MOET, 2018) claimed that it is necessary to shift the educational view from knowledge transfer to competency development, from teacher-centered to learning and learner-centered, from linguistic knowledge focus to learning process and product focus. Therefore, the traditional teaching method is no longer appropriate. In the prevailing view of teaching and learning language, teachers are required to provide a variety of learning activities comprising individual, pair, and group work in meaningful interaction within a task-based framework which allow students to engage with each other "actively, creatively and cooperatively" (Van et al., 2006, p. 10). In this case, Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) can be a suitable method in teaching English, especially teaching speaking because it emphasizes students' use of language to do the tasks which link to real life communicative situations. As it is stated by Nguyen (2018), TBLT with the reflection of a learner-centered and meaning-based approach in language teaching may offer a promising alternative teaching method, which can be used to replace the traditional form-focused, teacher-dominated approaches in Vietnam.

In this current context, the author conducted this study to investigate the effects of TBLT on students' speaking performance and their attitudes towards its implementation in an English speaking class. This article is started with the study's contextualization and signification in the new ELT era, followed by an in-depth overview of the literature on TBLT and speaking performance. The theoretical and conceptual framework on which the study based is also set lighted. The next part of this article elucidates the research methodology, data collection and analysis which set the statistical foundation for the discussions of findings and suggestions of pedagogical implications in the later section. Finally, the authors summarize the main points, consider some limitations, and suggest future research directions.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Task-based Language Teaching

2.1.1 Definitions of Task-based Language Teaching

Although the definition of TBLT was given from many experts, they all agreed with the role of tasks as the core concept in teaching and learning. According to Ellis (2003), TBLT refers to teaching a language (second or foreign language) with the aim to expose learners to interactional authentic language use by letting them perform a series of tasks. Consequently, it emphasizes the purpose of both processing existing knowledge and acquiring new linguistic knowledge. Pedagogically, Nunan (2004) proposed six primary principles and practices of TBLT which are needs-based content, learning through interaction in the target language, authentic texts into the learning situation, emphasis on learning process, enhancement of learners own personal experiences, and the link of classroom language learning with real-life language use. Van den Branden (2006) defined it as a language teaching approach in which functional tasks are given to students to encourage them to focus mainly on meaning exchange and to use language for real-world, non-linguistic purposes. Larsen-Freeman & Anderson (2011) considered TBLT as an example of "strong version" of communicative approach in which language is acquired through use. It means that learners will acquire the language they need when they need it to accomplish the task given. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), TBLT is a method where tasks are used as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. To wrap up, in spite of the definitions from various experts, the perception of TBLT consistently includes the emphasis on learning process, the use of target language, the learner-centered approach, and the term of tasks as the basic and central concept.

2.1.2 Notion of task and task types

The notion of task is determined in light of the difference between a task and an exercise. According to Ellis (2000), a task is designed with an obvious communicative goal while an exercise is for learners to practice a specific grammatical form. In terms of task types, Nunan (2004) indicated a distinction between real-world tasks which refer to the use of language beyond the classroom

and pedagogical tasks referring to that occurring in the classroom. Although there are various definitions of pedagogical tasks, they share the primary emphasis on the communicative use of target language and the focus on meaning rather than on grammar forms. However, meaning and form are highly integrated to complete the task because learners need to use linguistic knowledge to express communicative meaning in particular contexts. Skehan (1996) considered a task as a meaning focused activity which is related to real world, always has some outcome that can be assessed or evaluated. In the same vein, Willis (1996) defined a task as an activity in which learners are expected to use target language to achieve a clear outcome with a communicative purpose. According to Ellis (2003) a pedagogical task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome and primarily focuses on meaning. In addition, Nunan (2004) stated a definition of a pedagogical task which is classroom work involving learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language. Meanwhile, the focus of task is on conveying meaning rather than manipulating language forms. Furthermore, Willis, D., and Willis, J. (2009) proposed that learners have their own choice to use a range of language structures to achieve task outcomes, so the forms are not presented in advance. Besides the distinction between real-world and pedagogical tasks from Nunan (2004), there are various task categories from other researchers. Prabhu (1987) identified tasks into three types which are information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap task. According to Willis (1996), tasks are classified into 6 types including: listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem-solving, sharing personal experiences and creative tasks. According to Ellis (2009), TBLT tasks are categorized as focused and unfocused tasks. While unfocused tasks are designed for learners to communicate generally, the focused tasks provide learners opportunities to communicate using a particular linguistic item. In addition, tasks can be divided based on skills which are input-providing tasks engaging learners with receptive skills of listening and reading; and output-prompting tasks stimulating students with productive skills of writing and speaking. In short, the notion of tasks which can be real-world or pedagogical insists on using language with communicative goals and meaning focus instead of linguistic form. In spite of various categories that a task can be classified, it always goes with a clear communicative outcome.

2.1.3 Characteristics of task

Several characteristics of the tasks in TBLT were proposed by many searchers. According to Willis (1996), there are four characteristic of tasks. The first one is that tasks provide students with more activities to get exposed to the target language. Secondly, they allow students to set up their own hypothesis and take risks to test them out. The third feature is that tasks give teachers more flexibility. Finally, they create more dynamism in classroom. Skehan (1996) also put forward four key characteristics of a task in a pedagogical aspect which are meaning focus in primary, linking to real-world activities, priority to task completion, and task assessment based on clear outcome. According to Ellis (2003), there are five features of a task as an activity in language teaching and learning. The features can be summarized as requiring learners to use the target language to achieve a particular purpose, focusing on meaningful activities or on the language form, involving language use in terms of communication which provides learners opportunities to join meaningful interactions to complete a specific assignment, using one or more language skills, and involving learners in understanding the use of the target language. Willis, D., and Willis, J. (2009) emphasized some characteristics of tasks such as engaging learners' interest, primary focus on meaning, being measured in terms of non-linguistic outcomes rather than precisely using linguistic form, and being real-life related. In addition, Richards and Rodgers (2014) described several characteristics of tasks such as describing the exchange of information, referring the aim to achieve communicative goals using language, reality-based or not reality-based which stand for real-world or pedagogical activities. To sum up, as the key and conceptual point in TBLT method, tasks are required to be meaningful and relevant so that learners can see the reasons to use target language to accomplish the tasks and how the tasks relate to their real life. Tasks also have clear outcomes from which both teachers and students can assess whether the tasks are successfully completed.

2.2 Benefits of task-based language teaching for students' speaking

In order to see the benefits of TBLT for students' speaking performance, it is vital to review theory of speaking. The insights into speaking overview and TBLT concept sets foundation for the discussion on advantages of TBLT in speaking teaching and learning. Accordingly, this section comprises two sub-sections which are speaking overview and merits of TBLT for students' speaking performance.

2.2.1 Speaking overview

2.2.1.1 Definition of speaking

Being considered as the basic means of communication, speaking involves in human life activities every day and everywhere. People with speaking ability can express their thoughts, feelings, opinions, exchange information and conduct various social functions like giving suggestions, making requests, complaints, and so on. Among four basic language skills, speaking is considered as a productive skill which directly express one's language competence. It is also believed to be the most difficult skill in language teaching. Bygate (1998) with the view of top-down approach defined speaking as one among interactional skills of communication. In the same vein, speaking is defined by some researchers, like Florez (1999) and Howarth (2001), as a two-way process to conduct communication with the involvement of ideas, information, and feeling. According to this view, spoken texts are the product of the cooperation among various interactive participants in a particular time and situation. It emphasizes the role of contexts as a

significant factor involving the speaking process. Nunan (2004) considered speaking as a critical skill by which most second language learners and their success is measured. His statement emphasizes the importance of speaking in second language learning and teaching. According to Schmitt (2020), learning speaking involves competence referring to knowledge about why, how, and when to communicate, and performance referring to complex skills for producing and managing interaction. In addition, it is extremely important to mention the role of context because everyday talks always occur in particular cultural and social contexts. Thus, speaking can be defined as the process of using language and skills to orally carry out a specific purpose in a particular context. In summary, speaking which is one of four basic language skills plays a vital role in learning and teaching a second language because it reflects learners' competence in term of spoken communication. It is a process involving linguistic knowledge and skills in actual use to orally conduct a specific purpose in a particular context.

2.2.1.2 Features of speaking

Many features of speaking were noticed by several researchers. Bygate (1987) mentioned the characteristic of face-to-face interactions in speaking in which speaker and listener need to take notice of the other and take turn to speak. Moreover, the person involving in speaking process is able to use the right when noticing mistakes. Luoma (2004) also stated several features of spoken discourse such as conjoining short phrases and clauses, being planned or unplanned, employing vaguer or generic words. He also noticed that there is an employment of fixed phrases, fillers, hesitation markers, slips and errors in a spoken discourse. According to Torky (2006), in order to see the features of speaking, it is necessary to distinguish between spoken and written discourse. The distinction includes three main parameters which are planning, contextualization and formality. In contrast to writing, speech is likely to be more unplanned, contextualized, and informal. Specifically, speaking is usually face to face, interactive and happens in real time. These features of speaking declare the involvement of contexts; non-verbal factors like facial expressions, body movement, gestures, eye contact; formulaic expressions, self-correction, and hesitation. In other words, speakers and listeners who involve in speaking interactions have no chance to go back and make changes. Moreover, they have to adjust the language based on the relationship and meanings they want to transfer, understand and respond to non-verbal signals, or unexpectedly change topics to carry out real speaking communications. To wrap up, the characteristics of speaking are best reflected in the contrast to written discourse. It is highlighted with three primary features which are unplanned, contextualized, and informal.

2.2.1.3 Aspects of speaking

2.2.1.3.1 Communicative competence

As a means of interaction and communication, speaking components are considered in term of communicative competence which was defined by several experts. According to Hymes (1971), communicative competence refers to the ability to know when and how to say what to whom. It comprises the ability to use language knowledge to conduct particular purposes or functions such as expressing feeling or need, making requests and suggestions, the ability to vary language use in order to be appropriate in particular setting and participants, the ability to know how to produce and understand different types of text, and the ability to use non-verbal features to maintain communication. Widdowson (1983) considered communicative competence as the ability to use language communicatively involves both knowledge or competence of language, and the capacity to implement or use this competence. According to Canale and Swain (1980), there were four elements of communicative competence which are grammatical competence referring to the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation; sociolinguistic competence reflecting the appropriateness in terms of both meaning and form; discourse competence implying organization, cohesion, and coherence of utterances; and strategic competence referring to both verbal and non-verbal communication strategies. A more complex detailed model of communicative competence which was proposed by Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996) consists of language competence, strategic competence, and psycho physiological mechanisms. Language competence includes organizational competence (grammatical and textual competence) and pragmatic competence (illocutionary and social competence). Strategic competence comprises three phases which are assessment, planning and execution. Psycho physiological Mechanisms consist of two elements which are channel (visual/auditory) and mode (productive/receptive). To wrap up, many experts above shared the agreement that communicative competence includes linguistic competence and several other competences to form the ability to use proper language to achieve communicative purposes. The concept of communicative competence is the foundation for determining speaking components which is presented in the following part.

2.2.1.3.2 Components of speaking

In term of specific speaking elements, a five-component list of speaking skill was introduced by Harris (1974), including comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency. These components reflect the dimensions of communicative competences above. The first component which is comprehension in oral communication requires a subject to respond, to speech as well as to initiate it. The component of grammar implies the implementation of correct sentences in conversation. It is explained by Heaton (1978) as students' ability to manipulate structure and to distinguish appropriate grammatical form in appropriateness. Vocabulary is the component referring to the appropriate lexicons used in communication. It is impossible for someone to communicate or express their ideas effectively in both oral and written forms without having enough vocabulary. A lack of

vocabulary also means a barrier that precludes learners from learning a language. Pronunciation deals with the phonological process that determines how sounds vary and pattern in a language. The two primary features of pronunciation which are phonemes and supra-segmental features indicate how the words in a particular language are produced clearly when it is spoken. It plays a very important role to make the communication process intelligible for both speakers and listeners (Harris, 1974). According to Gerard (2000), mispronouncing a range of phonemes can cause an extreme difficulty for a person from another language community to understand. The last component is fluency which can be defined as the ability to speak smoothly and expressively. Consisting of a reasonably fast speed of speaking and only a small number of pauses and hesitation, fluency indicates that the speaker isn't struggling with language items to express the message. It also reflects the ability to use facilitation skills (fillers, lexical phrases, ellipsis...etc.) and compensation skills (self-correction, rephrasing, or repeating) to successfully carry out ongoing fast communication (Segaowitz, 2000; Widdowson, 1998).

2.2.1.4 Teaching and assessing speaking skill

Based on the reference to the theory of second language acquisition, Thornbury (2005) indicates three language learning theories relevant to the teaching of speaking which are behaviorist, cognitivist, and sociocultural theory. According to behaviorist theory with the belief that learning is through habit formation, PPP approach (presentation, practice, and production) is employed to form new habits in the process of learning. A particular language that is presented to learners in the presentation stage is practiced through various kinds of drilling and memorization and finally performed in the class. Cognitivist theory believes that speaking skills are developed through the stages from controlled to automatic. Thus, learning starts with the awareness-raising of particular language knowledge. Then learners integrate the newly required and their prior knowledge in practice in order to use them automatically in the final stage. Sociocultural theory focuses on the role of sociocultural context and interaction in learning. Through interactions with peers and teacher, learners can construct new knowledge and make it their own as well as function it by self-regulation process. The current view of language teaching with the aim on communicative competence emphasizes the development of individuals who actively involves in social life communication. This view leads to the development of communicative syllabuses, task-based and text-based syllabuses, and methodologies (Thornbury, 2011). That also partially informs the approaches to teaching speaking. With the influence of various learning theories, there is a distinction between direct and indirect approaches in the teaching of speaking. Direct approach which focuses on the development of speaking skills or micro-skills emphasizes the accuracy of structures and forms of language. It includes language analysis and learners' awareness-raising about grammar, discourse, and routine (Thornbury & Slade, 2006). On the other hand, indirect approach concentrates on the fluency of speech by encouraging learners to use language in communicative activities. Learners are believed to acquire speaking skills through communicating with each other and transfer these skills into real-world situations (Goh & Burns, 2012). The prevailing view emphasizes the combination of both approaches to take advantages and get rid of the limitation in order to help learners to achieve communicative competence. In term of speaking assessment, it is suggested by Hughes (2003) that in order to assess a learner's speaking ability, assessors have to 'get him or her to speak'. Therefore, the meaningful interpretations of speaking ability can really be supported with the use of performance assessment which is evaluated via a set process with the employment of a rating scale or a scoring rubric (Green, 2014). In order to assess speaking performance, it is necessary to mention three underlying concepts which are accuracy, fluency, and complexity. The first concept is accuracy referring to the ability to use language system correctly. It comprises the precise use of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, discourse, pragmatic features (Ellis, 2003). Secondly, fluency indicates how well a learner communicates consists of a reasonably fast speed of speaking and only a small number of pauses and hesitation. In other words, fluency reflects the use of speaking competence (linguistic, discourse, pragmatic) and other sub-skills in real time without many pauses (Segaowitz, 2000). The last concept which is complexity refers to the elaboration in a language production as well as the use of speaking skills in a more native-like way. It also concerns the good and elaborated organization of structures implemented in a speaking performance. Based on the aspects of speaking and the conceptions underlying speaking performance, the criteria for speaking assessment are decided. Generally, they include grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, contents, and organization (Kitao & Kitao, 1996).

2.2.2 The concept of attitude and its role in language learning

Students' attitude which is defined as their feeling or opinion about something or someone, or a way of behavior is considered as an integral part of learning and a vital component in language teaching. According to Ajzan (1988), attitude is a character to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution or an event. In the same vein, Brown (2001) defined attitude as an involvement of feelings, self, relationships in community. Furthermore, a deep concept of attitude by Wenden (1991) proposed three components of attitude which are cognitive, affective and behavioral. The first component of cognitive is constituted by beliefs and opinions about the object. The "likes" or "dislikes," "with" or "against" emotions one has toward an object are referred to as the affective component. And the final one referring to how one acts or thinks about acting toward the object is called behavioral. Despite several definitions by many researchers, the concept of attitude is agreed as the state of being prepared to respond to a situation and the tendency to behave consistently as well as emotions one has toward an object. As for characteristics of attitude, Gardner (1985) described five characteristics to be considered in learning second language. The first feature is cognitive

and affective which means that attitude contains feelings and emotions. The second characteristic is dimensional rather than bipolar which focus on the diversity level of favorability or un favorability. The next feature is that attitudes predispose a person to act in a certain way. Additionally, attitudes are not inherited or genetically endowed, but are learned. The final one is that attitude can be modified by experience. In accordant with the definition and characteristics of attitude, many factors were indicated to have influence on students' attitudes and their way to learn a language. Conteh (2002) with the belief of some applied linguists indicated several primary factors which are social context, learner personality (self-confidence, risk taking and anxiety), learning conditions, learning process and learning outcomes. These factors are proved to have influence on attitude of students in second language learning. It is claimed that attitude with its influence on students' behaviors, inner mood has strong impact on their learning. According to Gardner (1985), attitude is one of the factors that influence foreign language learning because how much effort students put into language learning depends partly on attitude. Starks and Paltridge (1996) believed that language acquisition closely related to the attitudes towards the language. Additionally, Weinburgh (1998) indicated a relationship between attitudes and success or achievement. In particular, they emphasized that attitudes influence achievement rather than achievement influences attitudes. In addition, positive attitudes towards language were stated to get learners to have a positive orientation in learning English. As such attitudes can influence students' success or failure in students' learning, they play a very important role in language learning. In other words, when a learner has a positive attitude toward the language and learning, learning happens more easily (Chamber, 1999). In terms of speaking skill, Bui and Channarong (2013) pointed out that students who hold positive attitudes towards speaking English will be more involved in speaking activities and try to apply more useful strategies supporting them to tackle their difficulties in conversation. On the other hand, learners with negative attitude will be less willing to engage in speaking activities and were also indicated to have lower levels of oral proficiency. Due to their lack self-confidence on their conversational competence, they may not like to speak the language (Bui & Channarong, 2013). In short, the concept of attitude in language learning comprises learners' opinions, feelings and the way they behave in learning process. It is indicated to be a crucial factor affecting the success and achievement in language learning and teaching.

2.2.3 Merits of task-based language teaching for students' speaking

2.2.3.1 Students' speaking performance

According to the conception of speaking and the notion of task, there are numerous advantages of task implementation which facilitate all speaking components comprising fluency, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, coherence and cohesion. Firstly, TBLT with the focus on task completion encourages learners to pay attention to the message first, thus supports their fluency in speaking. While accomplishing a task, learners are allowed to use their own language to focus entirely on the meaning of their message. They are also expected to negotiate to establish the meaning of unfamiliar aspects of the task language and the procedure needed to meet task goals. That is believed to help develop fluency in their speaking performance and support their language acquisition (Courtney, 1996; Finch, 1999; Lee, 2000). Furthermore, there are always several skills implied in tasks. It means that learners need to integrate several language skills to complete the tasks (Brown, 2001). This feature provides learners more chances to speak in the integration with other language skills, thus enhancing their speaking competence. Secondly, TBLT also facilitates speaking performance in terms of linguistic areas of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2001), TBLT as a progress of Communicative Language Teaching, puts its focus on both form and communication. Although the priority is on meaning, specific vocabulary and grammar can be reviewed as target language via consciousness raising activities (Willis, D., & Willis, J., 2007). Accordingly, language is explored by students, based on their needs rather than explicitly presented by teachers. The linguistic knowledge can be from their own or their friends' work instead of the only content in course book. Moreover, doing tasks enhances students' exposure to language so they will be exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms (Safitri & Dewanti, 2020). During task, pronunciation mistakes are tolerant. However, learners can receive positive feedback from teacher and their friends through peer-assessment and correct themselves because tasks have clear outcomes which show learners their learning needs, and help them evaluate their communicative competence (Ellis, 2003; Finch, 1997). Finally, tasks can enhance students' speaking ability in the aspects of coherence, fluency, and discourse (Sayer, 2005; Slimani-Rolls, 2005). After finishing a task, learners have time to plan for their oral report. This period encourages them to focus on not only the form of language use but also the organization of their speech. In order to achieve a successful report, they need to well prepare the content and pay attention to cohesion and coherence of the presentation.

2.2.3.2 Learners' attitudes in speaking learning

In light of the characteristics of TBLT, it is supported that it potentially enhances students' positive attitudes in speaking learning with several features facilitating their confidence and motivation in speaking classes. Initially, a task is meaning-focused and students' mistakes can be tolerant when they are doing it. The utmost objective is task accomplishment, so it is intended to allow them to get rid of the fear of making mistakes related to form of language. Nonetheless, according to Wen and Lin (2020), to enable TBLT to perform well, it is advisable that the teacher should provide sufficient language input task for students before the output task in order that it can enhance their learning motivation. Moreover, students can ask for support from teachers with the necessary linguistic knowledge during the task because teachers are supposed to give the proper information to the right people at the appropriate time (Ellis, 2003). Therefore, students tend to feel more confident and motivated in speaking. Additionally, the

amount of learner's talk can be increased throughout group-work and pair-work activities to complete the tasks, thus forming habit of sharing and releasing shyness. According to Ur (1996), Zacarian (1996), Finch (1997), Ellis (2003), doing tasks collaboratively and cooperatively in groups helps improve students' motivation and confidence in speaking since they may feel more secured to share ideas with their friends in small groups. In addition, Marsakawati (2016) also asserts that when task-based learning technique is implemented in classes, it can arouse students' motivation since it provides them with an enjoyable and dynamic learning environment and exciting learning activities. In this vein, Wen and Lin (2020) advocate that performing a task, students can build up their learning motivation by lessening their learning anxiety via interactions with their peers, which helps them to retain the language they have achieved. Next, TBLT can improve learners' motivation in speaking as it accommodates to a shift from teacher-centered to learning- and learner-centered perspective. That learners have their own choice of language and procedure to complete the tasks and explore the useful language by themselves can enhance their self-confidence (Lee, 2000). Ahmed and Bidin (2016) claimed that TBLT was one of the most interesting and learner-centered approaches enabling students to utilize their existing linguistic resources. Ultimately, now that task is meaningful and related to real life situations, it apparently provides students with purposes to achieve the task accomplishment, which facilitates the paradigm of intrinsic motivation driven by internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination (Brown, 2014). Besides, as stated by Skehan (1996), TBLT, also known as Task-based language learning (TBLL) or Task-based instruction (TBI) puts much emphasis on requiring students to fulfill meaningful real-life tasks naturally; therefore, it is believed that by learning language through accomplishing a task with intended purposes can they be motivated as a matter of fact.

2.3 Procedures for applying task-based language teaching

Although the principle of TBLT is learning through doing tasks, it is not just about getting learners to do tasks one by one. It was stated by Willis (1996, p. 40) that "task should be just one component in a larger framework." The current research adopted to TBLT framework by Willis (1996) due to its advantages which are believed to support students' speaking performance in terms of fluency, linguistic areas, coherence and cohesion. The framework which is presented in figure 2.3.1 bellowed consists of three main phases: pre-task, task cycle and language focus, corresponding with the focus sequence of three language dimensions: meaning, use, and form.

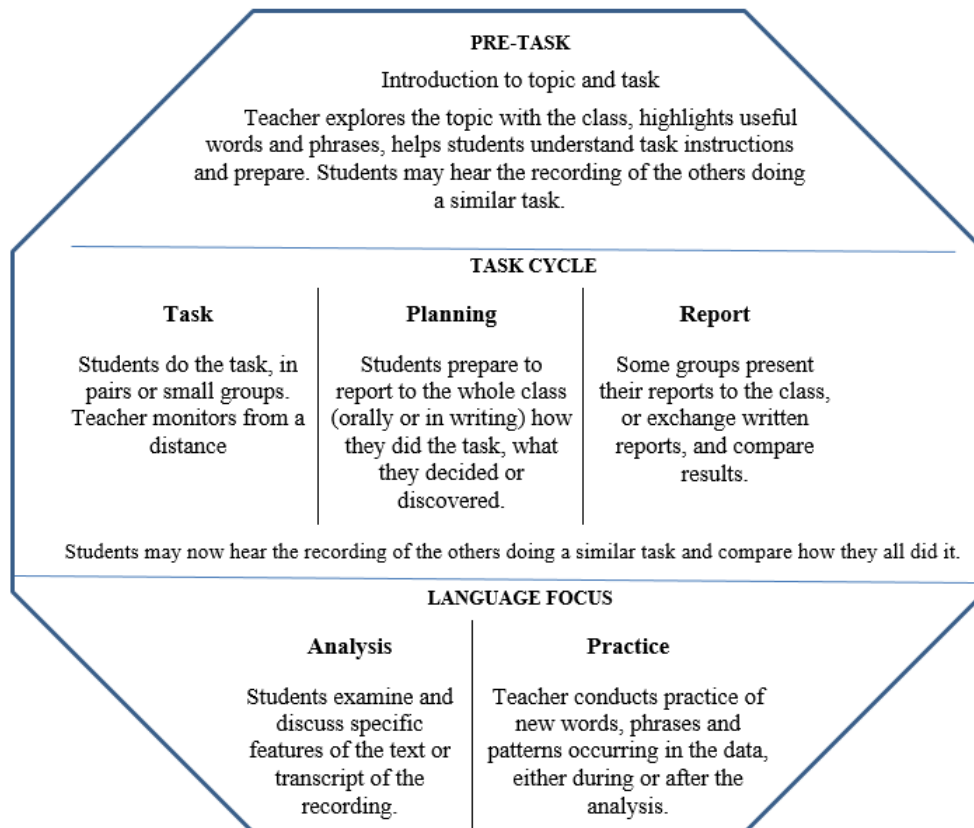


Figure 1. Components of TBLT framework by Willis (1996, p. 24)

In pre-task phase, Willis (1996) suggested that topic and task should be introduced to learners along with the activating their related-topic language. Consequently, there are three main parts comprising introducing topic, identifying topic language and giving task introduction. To get started, it is important to help learners to define the topic area. Teachers introduce the topic with the determination of topic field such as family, possession, holiday and travel, etc. Based on the topic determination, it is advised to identify topic language that learners may use to accomplish the task. It is not necessary to teach a large amount of vocabulary or a particular grammatical structure, but to boost students' confidence and give them something to fall back on if necessary. The aim of this step is to encourage learners to activate the words or phrases that they have already known and may use both during the task and outside the classroom. In order to explore the topic language, one or two pre-task language activities can be employed. The activities should involve all students, provide them with relevant exposure, and arouse their interest in doing the tasks. Several common activities can be selected like classifying words and phrases, odd one out, matching phrases to pictures, memory challenge, brainstorm and mind-maps. The third step in this phase is giving task introduction which ensure all learner understand the task requires, its goal and required outcome. In addition, learners should be provided with the information of how they should begin, the responsibilities of each person, how much time is allowed, and what will happen when they have finished. Some ways of introducing the tasks are letting students read the instruction by themselves, demonstrating the task with good students, or playing audio or video recording of fluent speakers doing the task. Although this is normally the shortest phase in framework and takes around two to twenty minutes based on learners' degree of familiarity with the topic and the type of task, pre-task still requires careful advance preparation. The preparation time before the tasks is also extremely important to make the tasks successful. Either teachers plan to use the tasks suggested from the course book or design their own tasks, they still need amount of time to prepare beforehand. They may need to find suitable pictures or videos, work-out vocabulary-building ideas, or record some fluent speakers conducting the tasks Willis (2009). According to Willis, D., and Willis, J. (2009), in the first stage of learning, learners achieve meanings of language without paying too much attention to grammatical notices. This point of framework releases students' stress on mistake-making fear and activates their prior knowledge of the topic that is very supportive for fluency and idea development in their speaking performance.

In task cycle phase, learners use their available language to carry out the task in pairs or groups, improve that language in planning for reporting the task, and receive feedbacks after reports. Hence, this phase consists of three stages: task, planning and report. In task stage, the main focus is on meaning rather than form of language. Meanwhile, teachers let students get on with the task on their own and take the role of monitor to go around and assist when needed. They will make sure that all pairs or groups are doing the right task and are clear about task objectives, encourage all students to involve, forgive errors of language form, only interrupt in case of major communication breakdown, notice dominant students or the involvement of mother tongue, and control time. According to Ellis (2009), during task stage, learners are encouraged to use their prior knowledge to work simultaneously in pairs or small groups to achieve the task goals. González-Lloret (2020) indicated that working with tasks in a small group can provide students with a sense of connection, collaboration, and de-isolation. Moreover, Niemeier (2017) stated that students engage in the task to facilitate their language acquisition while teacher only provide extra assistance when needed because it is a student-centered approach. With the priority on task completion and meaning focus, this stage is to help develop fluency of language and strategies in communication. When doing task collaboratively and cooperatively in pairs or groups, students also learn a wide range of lexicon and grammar structures from their friends. After finishing the task, students have a chance to prepare to report their findings to the class in the second stage of planning which is considered as the central part of task cycle phase. In order to set up for the planning stage, teachers should make clear some information of the report such as the purpose, the audience, the form, the resources as well as the time limit for the report. During this stage, students' mistakes are tolerant and teachers are in the role of observers and language advisers who help learners to shape their meanings and precisely express their what they want to say (Willis, 1996). Moreover, this stage allows students to prepare and practice with partners, consequently they have more confidence and less anxiety to speak in the later presentation (Anjum et al., 2019). From this stage, students start to be aware of language form which they plan to use as well as the organization of the speech including coherence and cohesion features to achieve a successful report. Finally, report stage is the natural conclusion of the task cycle phase where students presents their findings of the tasks. The report can be spoken or written form with various duration time, depending on the level of the class and type of task. When students report their findings, they will receive feedback from their friends and teachers. It is extremely important for students to be encouraged and received positive comments focusing on what they are getting right. The positive reactions from teacher and their friends will obviously increase students' motivation, self-esteem and efforts next time. The role of teachers in this stage is the chairperson who introduce the presentations, set the purpose for listening, nominate the sequence of speakers and make summary at the end (Willis, 1996). In this stage, students begin to notice the form of language they prepared in the previous stage to achieve the best outcome, so the focus of this period is both fluency and accuracy. Observing their friends and positive feedbacks from peer assessment after the report allow learners to correct their mistakes of pronunciation, improve vocabulary and grammatical structures.

The last phase – language focus including analysis and practice gives learners a chance to focus on language form after understanding meaning and using it in the previous phases. This phase comprises 2 sub-sections of analysis and practice. Analysis

activities aim to help students notice and think of the specific features of language form and language use in their own time and at their own level. Thanks to these activities, learners will recognize these language features when they meet them again both inside and outside the class as well as get deeper insights into the meanings and uses of the features (Willis, 1996). Form focused activities in this stage was stated by Long (2000) that arise during and embedded in meaning-based and are not scheduled in advance. These consciousness-raising activities focus explicitly on language form and use. But they are not decontextualized presentations and practice of isolated language items. Students are encouraged to recognize the form of language that they were familiar with the meaning and actually used in the cycle phase. According to Willis, D., and Willis, J., (1996), the activities for language form analysis can be followed by oral or written practice, or dictionary reference work. Students also need time to note down the noticed pieces of language which is helpful for their vocabulary acquisition. According to Van den Branden (2016), the term focus on forms in TBLT refers to the teaching of linguistic items within the context of communicative activities. Focusing on form helps increase learners' language proficiency and accuracy (Ellis & Shintani, 2013). This stage provides learners a chance to notice the form of vocabulary and grammar points which are two important components in speaking. Students obviously improve their speaking skill with the development of lexicon and structures. Additionally, in the practice, the activities are for learners to get confidence by getting them to practice the language items which occur in previous texts, recording and normally in the analysis activities (Willis, 1996). These activities can be oral or written, done singly, in pairs or groups, as team competitions or whole class activities. The activities should include both mechanical and meaningful practices with some very common ones like repetition, listen and complete, gapped examples, progressive deletion, unpacking sentences and so on. During these activities in this period, the focus is on accuracy, so teachers correct all linguistic mistakes (Thaler, 2012).

In conclusion, TBLT framework by Willis is believed to be an optimal instruction for teaching speaking due to its clear procedure and facilitation to speaking components. This framework supports the component of fluency most with the meaning focus first and large exposure to language use in pre-task and task cycle phases. Coherence and cohesion features in speaking are also developed in the planning and report stages. Finally, the accuracy of language is noticed and practiced in the last phase of language focus.

2.4 Empirical studies

This part reviews several studies sharing the same concern on the effectiveness of TBLT on EFL learners' speaking performance. There are a number of researchers from both oversea and in Vietnam indicated the positive impacts of TBLT on learners' speaking competence as well as the participants' good attitude towards its implementation. Based on the review in this part, the writer figured out some research gaps to carry out her study.

In term of the influence of TBLT on students' speaking competence, there are many researchers conducted studies and proved the point. The first study reviewed is by Nation (1991) with the aim to determine the effects of problem-solving tasks on speaking skills. A group of 35 intermediate participants who were studying English as a second language in England took part in the study with the exposure to the treatments of problem-solving tasks and were assessed throughout a speaking test. The finding stated that problem-solving tasks can develop learners' overall speaking proficiency. The other study by Newton and Kennedy (1996) about the effect of communicative tasks on both overall oral performance and sub-competencies subsumed under speaking, namely grammatical, discourse and pragmatic competencies pointed out that communicative tasks have influence on the length of talk, negotiations, linguistic features and structures in speaking. The research was carried out on 40 ESL pre-university students who were given two types of tasks: split information and same information tasks. The results indicated that split information tasks encourage more interaction and negotiation than shared information tasks while information tasks can encourage reasoning, argumentation, and other pragmatic skills.

In Vietnamese context, Pham and Nguyen (2014) with an action study on the impacts of Task-based Speaking Activities on 53 English-majored freshmen at Ba Ria - Vung Tau Teachers' Training College emphasized the students' improvement in oral performance. Using the instruments of questionnaires, tests and observation notes, the finding from tests pointed out that students speak more fluently because they feel confident and have more opportunities to practice speaking with partners under the instruction of TBLT. In the same vein, Bui (2015) carried out another action study on 32 first-year students at Ha Noi University of Business and Technology (non-English major students). By describing and analyzing questionnaire and tests data, the collected findings pointed out some reasons for students' weakness in speaking and then justified the effectiveness of TBLT to improve their speaking skill.

In the setting of another Asian country, Wahidin (2016) with his quasi-experimental study also indicated the positive influence of TBLT on speaking proficiency. This research was conducted with 50 university students for both control and experimental groups. Data obtained through tests were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistic. The research findings proved that the pre-task activities can help draw the students' awareness toward the topic as well as activate their background knowledge before speaking. The task cycle phase with the stream of pair or group activities can encourage students' communication and increase

their accuracy and fluency in speaking. In an attempt to assess how EFL learners developed their speaking fluency with TBLT, another research by Albino (2017) on high school participants in Angola stated that fluency, grammar, utterances, and interactional language on transactional conversation were increased under the treatment of TBLT. Thanks to the meaning focus together with the language focus of tasks and formative feedback, students are not only engaged to speak but also noticed on linguistic forms. Several Vietnamese researchers also contributed to the field of the effectiveness of TBLT on speaking learning. Ultimately, an experimental research by Anjum et al. (2019) on the ninth graders of Islamabad District was conducted to investigate the effect of Task-based language learning on developing speaking skills of secondary level learners. Two groups experimental and control were randomly taken in a natural setting from a randomly selected school of Islamabad District. The experimental group got treatment while control group was taught conventionally for 45 days. A pre- and post-test were employed to determine the difference in their mean scores of both groups. Two tailed t-test was applied at 0.05 levels. The results of the study showed statistically significant differences between mean scores of the experimental group subjects with regard to speaking skills since the post-test scores of the experimental group were noticeably higher than the ones of the control group. The results of this research supported the effectiveness of TBLT as a foreign language and it was recommended that Pakistani teachers should adopt pragmatic TBLT approach in lieu of struggling with outdated traditional methods in second language acquisition.

With regard to the attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT, several studies have been carried out. The action research conducted by Pham and Nguyen (2014) also indicated the students' attitudes towards the TBSA. The results of the prequestionnaire showed that students felt relaxed and confident in communication when practicing the TBSA. In addition, a quasi-experimental research by Nget et al. (2020) was carried out on 78 ninth-grade students to investigate the effect of Task-Based Instruction (TBI) on ninth-graders' English-speaking skills and their satisfaction towards this approach. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected via the use of the speaking tests and the student satisfaction questionnaire. The result of the questionnaire showed the positive perception from students towards TBI. Accordingly, students viewed TBI as an approach providing them with appropriate conditions for language learning, improving their speaking skills, increasing their confidence in speaking, and motivation in learning English. In the agreement with Van den Branden (2009), who stated the importance of teachers' concerns and beliefs in language teaching, many researchers conducted surveys on Vietnamese teachers' perceptions towards the implementation of TBLT. In the study by Lam, Son, and Anh (2021) on university lecturers to investigate the beliefs and practices of TBLT among lecturers in English as a foreign language at technical universities in Vietnam, a total of 136 lecturers completed the questionnaire and seven of whom participated in semi-structured interviews. Findings indicated that the lecturers had positive views towards the TBLT approach and showed a willingness to use it in their classrooms. They also showed the significant differences in their perceptions of TBLT. In light of this point, Nguyen et al. (2022) conducted a study on sixty-two teachers to get insights into Vietnamese teachers' perceptions of TBLT consisting of their comprehension of tasks and TBLT principles; their perspectives on the employment of TBLT and their concerns during the teaching and learning process. Data were collected via focus group interviews and analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The study proved that most Vietnamese teachers had a high level of understanding and positive attitude towards TBLT. However, the results also listed out several obstacles which Vietnamese teachers faced in the implementation of TBLT. They are primarily associated with the current educational policy, time limitation, class size, students' learning negative attitudes, and the impacts of the traditional form-based method.

These reviewed studies shared the finding that the implementation of TBLT improves speaking ability of various learners. The improvement is indicated in overall performance, individual sub-competences of speaking as well as students' engagement and motivation in speaking activities. In Vietnamese context, the implementation of TBLT also receive positive attitudes and different levels of perceptions from language lectures and teachers. However, the majority of researches put their emphases on teachers' perception and their view towards the implementation of TBLT. That exposes the void which may be filled with the studies on learners' attitude. Furthermore, in Vietnamese context, the studies on the impacts of TBLT in the field of speaking skill is still limited in term of numbers and subjects. Among the empirical research presented above, some researchers such as Nation (1991), Newton and Kennedy (1996), Pham and Nguyen (2014) studied the impacts of a particular type of tasks on speaking proficiency while the others proved the effectiveness of TBLT on speaking skill, learners' attitudes and motivation. The gap noticed is that the participants in those studies were mainly high school or English-majored university students. The research by Bui (2015) shared the aim to investigate the effects of TBLT on non-English -major students' speaking skill. Nevertheless, she didn't mention students' attitudes or perceptions towards the employment of this method. Another point to notice is the limitation in number of researches studying on hospitality students who are highly required to use English to conduct assigned tasks frequently on their career path.

To short up, the empirical researches and gaps above urge the researcher to conduct the current study to examine the effects of TBLT on students of a hospitality college where learners are required to pay a significant concern on speaking competence and involve more in speaking tasks. Furthermore, students' attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT are also focused to support the first research aim. Consequently, the study attempts to look for the answers to two following questions:

- (1) To what extent does TBLT impact students' speaking performance?

(2) What are students' attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT in an English speaking lesson?

3. Methodology

3.1 Research site

The research was conducted at Saigontourist Hospitality College (STHC) located at 23/08 Hoang Viet, ward 4, Tan Binh district, Ho Chi Minh City. The college is being operated with the mission of providing vocational training for the Vietnamese hospitality industry. It provides three primary training fields namely hotel and restaurant management, cooking culinary, and tourism. English is a compulsory subject for all college students who are required to finish three English courses to be eligible for graduation. The first 2 courses called Communicative English Courses take the length of 90 and 75 periods. These two courses set the aim for learners to achieve English communicative competence of the A2 level according to CEFR. The third one is a 75- period- ESP (English for Specific Purpose) course with the aim to help students use English in their working field.

In the academic year of 2021-2022, the number of students who were studying English at school is around 1200 students and divided into 47 classes for both Communicative English and ESP. This study was carried out in the second course of Communicative English with the main course book named *Life A1-A2* by John H., H., and Paul D. (2019).

3.2 Participants

There are two primary types of sampling methods in educational research which are random and nonrandom (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996). In the comparison between two types of methods, nonrandom is more possible and convenient to apply in the case of this study because it does not tamper the class organization at school. According to the researcher's convenience, two classes from the population were chosen as samplings for data collecting. During the experimental phase of the research, one of the two classes is decided as the experimental group and the other is control group. The demographic information comprising age, gender and the duration of English learning of the participants who took part in the study is summarized in table 3.2.1 below.

Table 3.2.1. Description of participants' characteristics

Participants		The control group	The experimental group
Number		30	30
Gender	Male	17	16
	Female	13	14
Age	Over 18	30	30
	Under 18	0	0
Duration of English learning	1-8 years	0	0
	> 8 years	30	30
Level of English		A1	A1

As being seen from the table 3.2.1, 60 participants of two groups are freshmen studying in the first semester of the academic year 2021-2022. They all have more than 8 years of learning English from the general education program. Additionally, they are assumed to be at the same level of English which is A1 in CEFR thanks to the placement test conducted by school at the beginning of the academic year 2021-2022. They are also expected to be at the same age range since most of them have just graduated from high school. Furthermore, the gender distribution inside each group, which is presented in the table above is nearly the same.

There are two main reasons for choosing these participants in this research. The first one is that they all had finished the first course with the final exam which results can be used to select two groups of participants with the similar mean score. That would help to ensure the similar level of English proficiency from participants of two groups. The second reason is that the researcher is currently in charge of teaching these classes, so it is more convenient to carry out the experimental teaching as well as to collect research data.

3.3 Research design and methodology

3.3.1 Approach

In the light of research aims, this study was designed according to the quantitative approach. As being defined by Kothari (2007), quantitative research is a technique and measurement that produces quantifiable values. In other words, it is about to quantify the variation in a situation, phenomenon, problem or event. Accordingly, the data produced from this type of research are always numerical, thus being analyzed with mathematical and statistical methods. In the current study, the researcher aims to measure the cause-effect relationship among two variations which are TBLT and students' speaking performance as well as evaluate their attitudes towards its implementation. In order to meet the research aims, data collecting techniques and analytical methods both

belong to the quantitative paradigm. Therefore, quantitative approach is believed to be the most suitable option for research design.

3.3.2 Method and Procedure

In order to achieve the research aims which are looking for any causal relationship between TBLT and students' speaking performance as well as their attitude towards TBLT implementation, an experimental design is suitably selected. This method is defined by Hatch and Farhady (1982) as a highly controlled procedure in which a factor or condition called independent variable is applied upon another factor or condition called dependent variable. During the treatment, all other factors or variables are being kept constant or equal so that any change in the dependent variable can be determined as the effect of the independent variable. According to Creswell (2014), there are three main types of experimental research which are pre-experimental, quasi-experimental and true experimental researches. In pre-experimental research, there is not a comparison between control and experimental groups because there is only a single group to receive an intervention during the experiment. Quasi-experimental design comprises control and experimental groups but does not apply random techniques to select participants. True experiment is a study in which the control and experimental groups are randomly chosen. This study takes TBLT as independent variable and students' speaking performance as dependent variable with the primary aim to investigate how the dependent variable varies under the stimulus of independent variable. Therefore, it takes experimental research design as the key method due to its preeminence in describing causal relationship and describing groups to see what happens in them. However, the research samplings could not randomly be selected, so a quasi-experimental design was thereby employed. Except for the feature of random assignment to treatment participants, this kind of design shares other characteristics of true experimental research. Accordingly, there are two groups of participants: an experimental group receiving a stimulus of TBLT and a control group not receiving that stimulus. After the experimental time, the effect of stimulus on the dependent variable can be indicated through the comparison on what happened in two groups.

This present study was divided into three main phases. On the beginning phase, a pre-test was applied to all participants and the results are recorded for the comparison later. This phase was set in the first week of the study. After that, on the second phase, the experimental group was treated with TBLT as the primary instruction method in every English lesson while the control group was taught with the absence of TBLT instruction. This phase was carried out in 8 weeks of the course. The researcher took the role of teacher for both experimental and control groups. Hence, except for the instruction method, other features including teacher, duration time, and content of textbook were the same for both groups. The last phase came with the requirement for all participants of two groups to do the post-test. The post-test results would be analyzed and compared to the pre-test results to indicate the difference in speaking improvement of participants from two groups. In the current research, speaking performance assessment adapts the components provided by Harris (1974) which were reviewed in chapter 2. Therefore, the rubrics for the test assessment were designed followed that theoretical framework. On the last week, after finishing the post-test, a questionnaire was delivered to the participants of the experimental class to figure out their attitudes towards the employment of TBLT in English lessons. The responses of 30 participants in the experimental group were recorded which gets 100%. Before that, a pilot questionnaire was administered for the internal reliability of the question items.

3.3.3 Instruments

To figure out the effects of TBLT on students' speaking performance and learners' attitudes towards this implementation, the study employed two kinds of research instrument which are tests and questionnaire to gather research data from the participants. Tests comprising pre-test and post-test were employed as the instrument for collecting data to answer the first research question. Pre-test is important to ensure the equality of two groups before the treatment. According to Lodico et al. (2006), pre-test basically measures whether the experimental and control groups are starting out equal. After the treatment, students from both control and experimental groups were required to do the post-test to find out if there is a disparity in students' speaking competence between two groups. A speaking test was employed for both pre-test and post-test which aim to figure out if there is a difference in speaking improvement of the participants from two groups after the experimental time. The test which was designed to measure the participants' speaking performance includes 3 parts. Firstly, students are required to introduce themselves in one minute with several personal information such as name, age, hobbies and interest. In the second part of the test, students randomly choose one topics, prepare in two minutes and then have 2 more minutes to talk about the selected topic. Finally, they have to answer some questions from the examiner. The questions are likely to relate to the performance in part 2 or their personal experience, feeling, or opinion about the target topic. The time designed for this part is maximum 3 minutes. To make sure for the reliability of tests, there are two examiners worked and gave scores independently. The official scores for both pre-test and post-test were taken by the average of the two examiners' scores. The criteria in rubric were designed based on the literature of speaking components and speaking assessment reviewed in the previous section. The second instrument was questionnaire which was delivered to the participants of experimental group to investigate the students' attitudes towards TBLT implementation. It is believed to be an ideal instrument in "providing structured, often numerical data and comparatively straightforward to analyze" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 317). Moreover, it is obviously an efficient, reliable, and convenient technique to collect a substantial amount

of data from a group of participants in a fairly short time (Griffie, 2012). In this research, the questionnaire was designed based on the theoretical framework provided from the literature review to investigate the attitudes of students towards the employment of TBLT in English speaking class. It consists of 22 close-ended questions which aim to figure out the information focusing on three clusters. The first cluster with the focus on students' general attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT in English class consists of 3 questions. The second cluster contains 7 questions focusing on students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their motivation and engagement in speaking classes. And the last one with 12 questions concentrates on participants' attitudes towards the influence of TBLT on their speaking performance. These questions are all designed with the employment of five Likert scales from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Before the official utilization of the questionnaire, a pilot questionnaire was delivered to make sure for the validity and internal reliability of the questionnaire. The 5 pilot participants who were being treated with TBLT in English classes at a high school were randomly invited according to the relationship with the researcher. They were required to answer all the items in the questionnaire and gave feedback on wording, meaning, ambiguous sentences (if any). The pilot results were analyzed according to the Cronbach's Alpha formula to see whether the questionnaire items are suitable to utilize or not. The Vietnamese version of the questionnaire was employed in order to maximize the understanding and achieve full completions from the participants. Through the Vietnamese version, it is assured that the participants have no problem with understanding all the items from the questionnaire and save their time from translating those items into Vietnamese.

4. Findings

4.1 Tests

4.1.1 Pre-test

Table 4.1.1 below presents the results of testing the correlation of pre-test scores given by two examiners (see appendix 1). With the statistical significance ($r = .743$, sig. $< .001$), it is emphasized the strong correlation between the scores of pre-tests graded by two examiners.

Table 0.1 Pearson Correlation of pre-test

Correlations			
		Examiner 1	Examiner 2
Examiner 1_ Pre	Pearson Correlation	1	.743**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	60	60
Examiner 2_ Pre	Pearson Correlation	.743**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	60	60

****.** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Thanks to the correlation indicated by the result of Pearson correlation testing for pre-test scores, the average scores were accepted for the pre-test analysis.

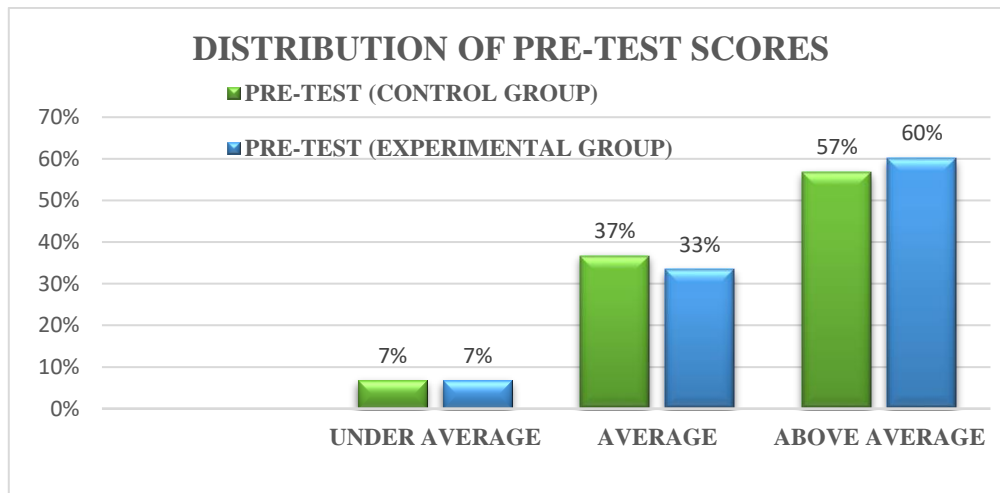


Chart 0.1: Pre-test score distribution of two groups

The chart 0.1 above indicates the distribution of scores from pre-test of both control and experimental groups. According to the figures from the chart, there is an obvious resemblance in percentages of achieved scores from the two groups in term of three

categories of under average, average and above average. Regarding the control group, the number of under average students who achieved scores under 5 takes 7% while the average students with the scores of 5 and 6 occupies approximately 37% and the percentage of the above average students who got the score over 6 is 57%. In a similar case, the experimental group is observed with a very small percentage of under average students with 7%, 33% of average students and 60% of above average students who received over 6. In overall, the students in both groups had an above average performance in their pre-test.

In order to compare the pre-test results of two groups, mean scores were calculated and compared with the data description presented in the following table:

Table 0.2. Descriptive statistics of pre-test scores for two groups

Class	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	30	6.53	.973	.178
Experimental	30	6.57	1.032	.188

According to the statistics from the table, there is a very small disparity in term of mean between the two groups (6.53 for the control group and 6.57 for experimental group). It reflects an insignificant difference in pre-test scores of the students from the two groups. In addition, the difference in the standard deviation can also be observed. The standard deviation value of control group is .973 compared to 1.032 of the experimental group. It means that there is more variability in the pre-test scores of the experimental group in the comparison to the control group or the scores of the control group were clustered around the mean more than the experimental group.

In order to clarify whether the small difference in the means and the disparity in the standard deviations of two groups could result in a statistical significance or not, it is necessary to employ an independent samples t-test which results are illustrated in table 4.1.3 below.

Table 0.3. Independent samples t-test of two groups before the treatment

Pre-test	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.	95% Confidence Interval of the Dif.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.010	.923	.129	58	.898	-.033	.259	.552	.485
Equal variances not assumed			.129	57.8	.898	-.033	.259	-.552	.485

The first value needs considering is Levene's Test for Equality of Variance including F value (.010) and Sig Levene's Test which is .923, greater than the standard significance level of 0.05. It indicates that the researcher was allowed to retain the null hypothesis for the assumption of homogeneity of variance. It means that the variances between two groups was not significantly different and the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. Therefore, we need to use the value of t-test sig in the first row of equal variances assumed. According to that, with the t-value of .129, the significance of a two-tailed (non-directional) test was .898, greater than the alpha level of .05. Consequently, there was no statistically significant difference in the scores for the control group (M = 6.53, SD = .973) and the experimental group (M = 6.57, SD = 1.032). Inferentially, it could be assumed that the students from the two groups had an equal result in speaking performance at the outset of the study.

Checking the assumptions about the normal distribution of pre-test scores is the last step in data analysis procedure with the employment of Shapiro-Wilk (S-W). The results were reported in the following table.

Table 0.4. Tests of normality for pre-test scores

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control	.151	30	.079	.953	30	.201
Experimental	.159	30	.051	.961	30	.333

According to the statistics in the table 4.1.4, the p values from both Kolmogorov-Smirnova and Shapiro-Wilk tests are above the alpha .05 with .079 and .201 for the control group and 0.051 and .333 for experimental group. Therefore, the test was statistically significant and the null hypothesis was not rejected. In other words, the assumption of normality was met.

4.1.1.2 Post-test

Table 0.5 below presents the statistical evidence proving strong correlation between the cores of post-tests given by two examiners, which is enclosed as appendix 2. The value of $r = .833$ and $sig. < .001$ greatly indicated that the post-test scores from two examiners strongly correlated. This result also allowed to use the average scores of post-test for data analysis.

Table 0.5. Pearson Correlation of post-tests

Correlations			
		Examiner 1	Examiner 2
Examiner 1_Post	Pearson Correlation	1	.833**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	60	60
Examiner 2_Post	Pearson Correlation	.833**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	60	60

****.** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The chart 0.2 below presents the distribution of post-test scores which two groups achieved after the treatment. It is clearly seen from the chart that the percentages of weak scores (under average) from two group are both 0%. It means that there are no students who got under 5 in their post-tests from both groups. Except for the similarity in the under average sector, there is a considerable disparity in the other areas. Specifically, the percentage of average scores from the control group is much higher than the experimental group with 23% and 7%. By contrast, the good score ratio (above average) of the experimental group is distinctly high with 93% and it's higher than the percentage of the control group in this sector (77%). Overall, the results of post-test indicate the preeminence in scores of the experimental group in comparison with the control group.

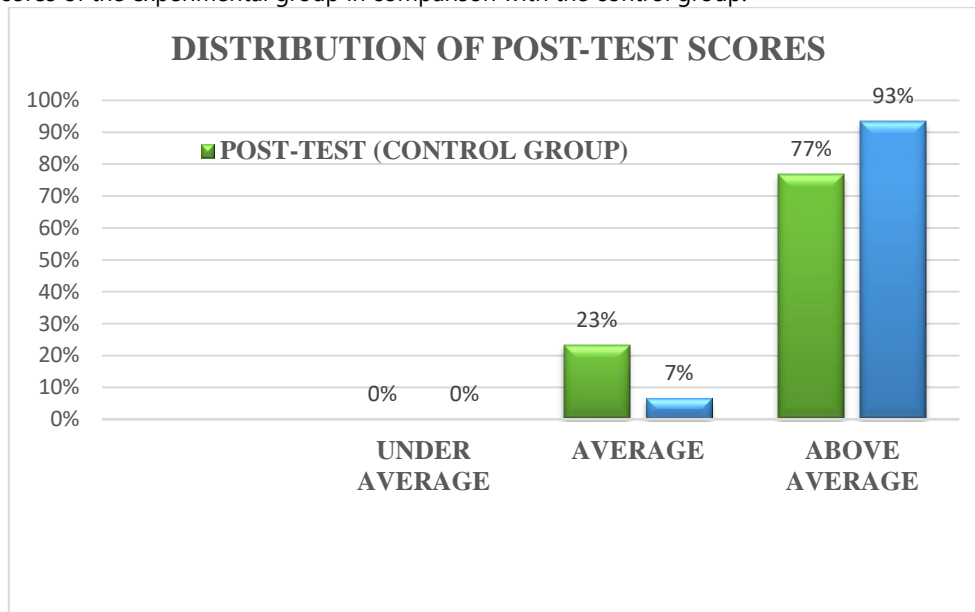


Chart 0.2: Post-test score distribution of two groups

The second step to analyze the data of post-test is comparing means in order to have a general view towards students' performance from two groups. The descriptive statistics for this test are presented in table 4.1.6 with mean value and standard deviation.

Table 0.6. Descriptive statistics of post-test scores for two groups

Group	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error Mean
Control	30	7.00	1.114	.203
Experimental	30	7.57	1.073	.196

The statistic in table 4.1.6 indicates a difference in mean value of two groups. In particular, the mean value of the experimental group is higher than of the control group with 7.57 compared to 7.00. By subtracting, the difference mean can be calculated at 0.57 which is quite remarkable. Moreover, there is a disparity in the value of Standard Deviation between the scores of two groups. The experimental group's scores are indicated to cluster around the mean value more than the control group's scores with the smaller value of Standard Deviation (1.073 compared to 1.114).

With the aim to give a reliable conclusion on the difference in the mean and standard deviation values between two groups, an independent t-test was employed to with the results exported into table 4.1.7 below.

Table 0.7. Independent samples t-test for post-test scores

Post-test	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.	95% Confidence Interval of the Dif.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.284	.596	-2.007	58	.049	-.567	.282	-1.132	.001
Equal variances not assumed			-2.007	57.9	.049	-.567	.282	-1.132	.001

According to the statistics from the table, the F value in the Levene's Test for Equality of Variance is .284 with a sig. (p) value of .596 ($p > .05$). This result allows us to retain the null hypothesis for the assumption of homogeneity of variance and use the t value in the first row to consider. From that, the significance for a two-tailed test in t-test for Equality of Means is .049, which is smaller than the probability level of .05. Therefore, the disparity in mean values between two groups is statistically significant. It is a great support to the conclusion of the effect of the treatment on the experimental group's speaking performance.

In order to check normal distribution of the scores in post-test, the Kolmogorov Smirnova and Shapiro-Wilk test's results were applied with the result recorded in the table below.

Table 0.8. Tests of normality for post-test scores

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control	.140	30	.139	.947	30	.143
Experimental	.142	30	.127	.969	30	.505

It is obviously indicated from the table that both K-S test and S-W test provided the p values greater than alpha level .05. Particularly, the p values for the control group were calculated at .139 and .143 while these values for the experimental group were .127 and .505. These statistic results may conclude that the assumption of normality was met for the selected sample.

Beside the difference in mean scores of two groups, the comparison on mean scores also indicated the distinguished decline of the improvement in speaking after the treatment. It is obviously seen from chart 4.1.3 below that both groups have the improvement after the experimental phase. However, the improvement of students from the experimental group is noticed to be greater than the control groups. In particular, the mean value of the control group goes up from 6.53 of pre-test to 7.00 of post-test with the increase rate is calculated at 7.20% while those of the experimental groups is 15.2% (the mean scores increase from 6.57 to 7.57).

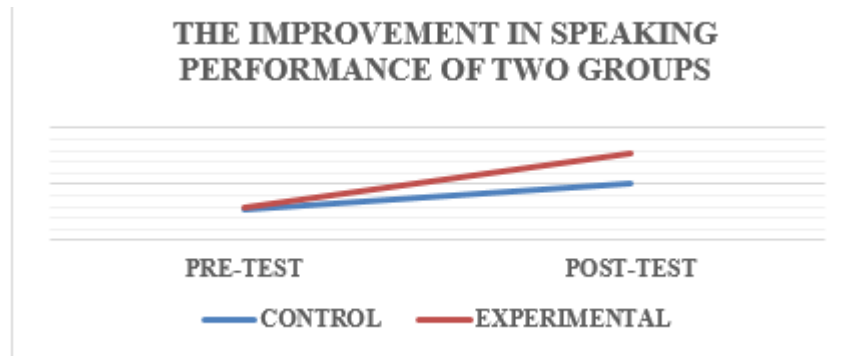


Chart 0.3: A comparison on the improvement in mean scores of two groups

In short, the data analysis of tests emphasized two primary points. Firstly, there is a homogeneity of the two groups at the beginning of the study. The second one is the significant disparity in mean score between two groups after the treatment. In addition, the statistic results also indicate the greater improvement of the experimental group when it is compared to the control group. These results provide the researcher with evidence to come to the discussion on the contribution of TBLT on the students' speaking performance.

4.2 Questionnaire

This section describes the analysis and interpretation of the questionnaire with the aim to look for the answer for the second research question regarding the students' attitude toward the implementation of TBLT in English speaking class. It comprises the results of Cronbach's alpha coefficient to check the reliability of the questionnaire as well as the analysis of the students' responses which are grouped into three main parts: the students' attitude towards the implementation of TBLT in English speaking class, the attitude towards the effects of TBLT on students' motivation and engagement in speaking class, and the attitude towards the effects of TBLT on their speaking performance.

4.2.1 Checking reliability of the questionnaire

The table 4.1.9 below presents the results of checking the questionnaire's reliability using Cronbach's alpha. According to that, the value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient is indicated at .946 which is greater than .7. It is consequently able to confirm the reliability of the scale and the data collected from the questionnaire are valid for analysis.

Table 0.9. Reliability statistics of the questionnaire

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.942	.946	22

Furthermore, the value from the item-total statistics (see appendix 3) shows the correlation between each item and the others. That all the value in the Corrected Item-Total Correlation column is above .3 indicates the strong correlation between each item and the total score.

4.2.2 Students' general attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT in speaking class

The first three items of the questionnaire aim to figure out students' general attitudes towards the treatment of TBLT in their speaking class. Their responses to 5 level Likert closed-ended questions were analyzed and statistically described in the following table:

Table 0.10. Students' general attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT in speaking class

Items	Level					Mean	Std. D
	SD	D	N	A	SA		
	1	2	3	4	5		
1. I feel more comfortable to work with tasks in speaking class.	-	-	8	14	8	4.0	.743

	-	-	27	47	27		
2. I enjoy the speaking lessons when I study with tasks.	-	-	5	14	11	4.2	.714
	-	-	17	47	36		
3. I would like to continue to participate in tasks in speaking lesson.	-	1	5	17	7	4.0	.743
	-	3	17	57	23		

It is shown from the table that most students express their general positive attitude towards the implementation of TBLT in their speaking class. Specifically, 73.4% of the students agreed to share the comfortable feeling when working with tasks in the first question ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .743$). The second question indicated that most of the students (83.4%) enjoyed the speaking lessons with tasks through the statistic values of $M = 4.20$ and $SD = .714$. Similarly, the third question with $M = 4.00$ and $SD = .743$ illustrated the students' agreement (80%) with the idea that they like to continue with tasks for their speaking lessons.

4.2.3 Students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their motivation and engagement in speaking class

Table 0.11. Students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their motivation and engagement in speaking class

Items	Level					Mean	Std. D
	SD	D	N	A	SA		
	1	2	3	4	5		
4. I feel more secured to share ideas with my friends in pairs or groups.	1	2	5	12	10	3.9	1.048
	3	7	17	40	33		
5. I don't worry about the errors of grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation when doing tasks.	1	3	8	16	2	3.5	.900
	3	10	27	53	7		
6. I have more chances to speak English during the tasks.	1	3	10	15	1	3.4	.855
	3	10	33	50	3		
7. I'm ready to report in front of the class thanks to the discussion and planning time in groups.	-	1	6	19	4	3.9	.681
	-	3	20	63	13		
8. I can use my available words and structures to express my ideas to do tasks.	-	5	6	16	3	3.6	.898
	-	17	20	53	10		
9. I'd like to do tasks because they're similar to the situations in real life.	-	-	6	15	9	4.1	.712
	-	-	20	50	30		
10. I think studying with tasks improves my motivation & engagement in speaking class.	-	-	4	17	9	4.2	.648
	-	-	13	57	30		

Questions from numbers 4 to 10 focus on students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their motivation and engagement in speaking class. The statistical index from table 4.1.11 above reveals the mean values of the questions which are all greater than 3 and ranges from 3.40 to 4.17. It revealed the certain agreement of the students with the presented information from the statements.

The responses to question number 10 ($M = 4.17$, $SD = .648$) which perceived the highest average value and was approved by the majority of the students (86.3%) expressed that students thought their motivation and engagement in speaking classes increased thanks to the use of tasks. The second highest one ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .712$) is question number 9 in which 80% of the students agreed that they like to solve the problems raised from the tasks because they are similar to the situations they meet in real life. The next benefit perceived item in this part is question number 4 ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 1.048$) with 73.6% of the students approved that they felt more secured to share ideas with their friends in pairs or groups. Following is item number 7 ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .681$) when many students (76.6%) reported they were more ready to orally report in front of the class thanks to the discussion and planning time in groups. The students also agreed with that they could use their prior knowledge (available words and structures) to express their ideas easily to do tasks. It is indicated by the item number 8 with 63.3% of the participants approved and the value of $M = 3.57$ and $SD = .898$. Furthermore, the advantages that students didn't have to worry much about the errors of grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation and they have more chances to speak when doing tasks were approved in question number 5 ($M = 3.50$, $SD = .900$) and 6 ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .855$) with the agreement percentage is respectively 60% and 53.3%.

4.2.4 Students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their speaking performance

Table 0.12. Students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their speaking performance

Items	Level					Mean	Std. D
	SD	D	N	A	SA		
	1	2	3	4	5		
11. I learn some great ideas from my friends during tasks.	-	-	1	19	10	4.3	.535
	-	-	4	63	33		
12. My vocabulary stock is enhanced greatly owing to the working in tasks.	-	-	5	16	9	4.1	.681
	-	-	17	53	30		
13. I can notice and learn useful grammatical structures from my friends' works.	-	-	5	19	6	4.03	.615
	-	-	17	63	20		
14. I can realize and adjust pronunciation errors through peer feedback	-	-	3	15	12	4.30	.651
	-	-	10	50	40		
15. To complete tasks, I can use non-verbal features to support my speaking performance.	-	-	4	18	8	4.13	.629
	-	-	13	60	27		
16. Working in tasks gives me a deeper insight into the target topic.	-	-	2	24	4	4.07	.450
	-	-	7	80	13		
17. I can use appropriate language to talk about different topics in different situations.	-	-	12	13	5	3.77	.728
	-	-	40	43	17		
18. I can organize my speaking to express messages thanks to the preparation for report	-	-	10	16	4	3.80	.664
	-	-	34	53	13		
19. I can assess my own speaking thanks to the obvious outcomes and criteria	-	2	8	15	5	3.77	.817
	-	6	27	50	17		
20. I can speak English more fluently thanks to the use of tasks in English classes	-	3	10	15	2	3.53	.776
	-	10	33	50	7		
21. I can confidently speak English in front of the class to report the task results.	-	2	8	15	5	3.77	.817
	-	6	27	50	17		
22. Studying with tasks improves my speaking performance.	-	-	7	16	7	4.00	.695
	-	-	24	53	23		

The last 12 items were designed to investigate the students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their speaking performance. It is obviously shown in table 4.1.12 above that the mean value all the items included in this part is greater than 3.0 and ranges from 3.77 to 4.30. The very high value of means greatly confirmed the positive attitudes of the students towards the TBLT impacts on their speaking performance.

Item number 22 (M = 4.00, SD = 695) which was approved by 76.6% of the participants indicated their opinion that studying with tasks could help improve their speaking performance. Specifically, most students (96.9%) reported that they learnt some great ideas from their friends during tasks (M = 4.30, SD = 535) and could realize and adjust pronunciation errors through feedbacks from teacher and peers (P = 90%, M = 4.30, SD = 651). They also agreed with the ideas that their vocabulary stock was enhanced greatly owing to the working in tasks (P = 83%, M = 4.13, SD = 681) and throughout accomplishing the tasks, they recognized how to use non-verbal features like body language, gestures, and facial expressions to support their speaking performance (P = 86.7%, M = 4.13, SD = 629). Moreover, 93.3% of the students believed that working in tasks gave them a deeper insight into the target topic (M = 4.13, SD = 629) and 83.3% of them could notice and learn the grammatical structures which were useful from their friends' works (M = 4.13, SD = 629). In addition, they could organize their speaking well to express the message thanks to the preparation for report in tasks (P = 66.6%, M = 3.80, SD = 664) as well as confidently speak English in front of the class to report the task results (P = 66.7%, M = 3.77, SD = .817), assess their own speaking and their friends' work thanks to the obvious outcomes and criteria of tasks (P = 66.7%, M = 3.77, SD = .817), and appropriately use language to talk about different topics in different situations (P = 60%, M = 3.77, SD = .728). The final effect mentioned is 56.7% of the participants could speak English more fluently thanks to the use of tasks in English classes (M = 3.53, SD = .776).

To sum up, the analysis of the questionnaire with the mean results of all items greater than 3.0 and the standard deviations in the accepted range indicated the positive attitudes of students towards the implementation of TBLT and its' impacts on their motivation, engagement in learning speaking as well as their speaking performance.

4.3 Discussion of findings

The statistical results from the analysis and interpretation of tests and questions in the previous parts proved the improvement in speaking performance of both groups of participants with the higher level of improvement from the experimental group as well as the students' positive attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT. These results shed light on the discussion of findings which primarily focus on two research questions of this study.

4.3.1 The effects of TBLT on students' speaking performance

According to the results of the test analysis presented in the previous section, there was a resemblance in pre-test scores and a difference in post-test scores between two groups of students. In term of pre-test, both groups presented slightly above average speaking ability with the nearly equal mean values. Moreover, the results of the independent t-test indicated that there was no significant difference in variance between two groups' scores. It can lead to the conclusion of the resemblance in pre-test scores between the control and experimental group. In other words, the students of two groups were at an equal level in speaking performance before the treatment, at the beginning of the study. Regarding post-test scores, a significant improvement was recorded in both control and experimental groups after the treatment. In particular, the mean score of control group increased 7.20% when being compared to the mean score of pre-test. In case of the experimental group, the increase was calculated at 15.2% which is much greater than the control groups'. In addition, the statistical index also indicated the heterogeneous changes in the scores of two groups. Except for the same rate at the under average segment, the improvement in other two grade segments is obviously different. The control group was recorded with the greater increase in the segment of average scores than it is in the experimental group. On the other hand, the experimental group developed more in the category of above average scores. Furthermore, it is shown from the result of the independent sample t-test that the post-test scores of two groups were in a significant disparity. In short, the statistical description of post-test made it easy to come to the finding that the participants of the experimental groups had a greater improvement in their speaking performance than those of the control group. In conclusion, the resemblance at the beginning of the study and the disparity after the treatment proved that the treatment of TBLT helped students improve their speaking performance.

4.3.2 Students' attitude towards the implementation of TBLT in their speaking class

Besides the positive effects of TBLT on students' speaking performance, the questionnaire analysis and interpretation provided the findings in term of their attitudes toward the implementation of TBLT in speaking class. Corresponding with three clusters of the questionnaire, the findings comprising three primary points are discussed in this part. The remarkably high statistical index from the analysis of the first questionnaire cluster confirmed the students' general feeling and attitudes towards the employment of TBLT in their speaking classes. Most of them felt more comfortable and enjoyable to work with tasks in speaking lessons. They also expressed their expectation to continue to participate in tasks in their speaking periods. In other words, students enjoyed and had very positive attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT in their speaking classes. As for the students' attitudes towards the effects of TBLT on their motivation and engagement in speaking activities, the second cluster's analysis and interpretation pointed out incredibly positive results. Coming into details, most participants shared that they felt more secured to share ideas with their partners in pairs and groups because they did not have to worry much about the errors or mistakes in grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation. This secured feeling can help encourage students to participate in speaking activities. Moreover, thanks to the discussion and planning time in groups of the TBLT second stage, students realized that they got more ready the oral report in front of the class. When they were well-prepared, they felt more confident to speak. In addition, that they could choose their own language to share ideas and express their opinions made the tasks much easier to complete. Another reason for students to have more motivation when studying with tasks is the correlation between the problems raised from the tasks and the situations they faced in real life. When they saw the tasks meaningful and possible to apply in practical situations, they had more reasons to complete them. To close this cluster, most participants admitted that studying with tasks improved their motivation and engagement in English speaking classes. In term of the attitudes towards the impacts of TBLT on students' speaking performance, the results of the third cluster from the questionnaire analysis emphasized the findings in which students well acknowledged the improvement in speaking aspects such as fluency, ideas, vocabulary, and grammar after the treatment of TBLT in their speaking classes. First of all, the participants accepted that they learnt some great ideas from their friends during pair and group works when doing tasks. Regarding linguistic areas, students shared the ideas that pre-task activities, learning from friends as well as the language focus could also greatly enhanced their vocabulary stock. In addition, they could realize and adjust pronunciation errors through feedback from teacher and peers after the oral presentation in the task cycle stage. Then the language focus part allowed students to notice and learn grammatical structures which are useful from their own or their friends' work. Besides the improvement in linguistic areas, task conducting allowed students to use non-verbal features like body languages, gestures, and facial expressions to support their speaking performance. The combination of linguistic features and non-verbal components gave the

students a deeper insight into the target topic. Moreover, completing the tasks were admitted helping students use appropriate language to talk about different topics in different situations. Another benefit of TBLT was pointed out is that students could organize their speaking better to express their messages thanks to the preparation for the oral report, so their speaking speech would be more organized. Furthermore, students could assess their own speaking as well as their friends' work with the obvious outcomes and criteria of the tasks which were given before they start doing tasks. To the conclusion, students expressed their positive attitudes towards the employment of TBLT. They indicated their approval of that they can improve their motivation and engagement, speak English more fluently and confidently, develop the aspects of vocabulary, grammar, coherence and cohesion, thus improving their speaking ability thanks to the implementation of TBLT in their speaking class.

5. Conclusions

As the response to the first question, it comes to the conclusion that the employment of TBLT can help improve students' speaking performance. In particular, the participants of the experimental group presented the greater development in speaking results after the treatment in spite of the resemblance results of two groups indicated from the beginning of the study. According to the equal conditions during the experimental phase, the treatment of TBLT is the most significant factor affecting this greater improvement of the experimental group. In other words, TBLT has positive effects to develop students' speaking performance. This conclusion is in alignment with the findings from previous research by Anjum et.al (2019), Bui (2015), Chanadda, et.al (2020), Pham and Nguyen (2014).

Regarding the second question, the conclusion can be stated that most of the participants expressed their positive attitudes towards the implementation of TBLT. Generally, the findings indicated that students really enjoy and expect to continue studying under TBLT instruction in their speaking class. Particularly, they confirmed the acknowledgement of that TBLT enhances their motivation and engagement in speaking activities. They felt more confident to use their own language doing tasks in pairs and groups without the fear of lexical and grammatical errors. Students are also well-prepared for speaking in planning, thus getting them more confident in the oral preparation. Moreover, they were motivated to accomplish speaking tasks which are similar to situations they face in real life. In addition, students expressed their positive attitude towards the impact of TBLT on their speaking performance. It is concluded from the findings that students think their fluency is significantly improved thanks to meaning-focus and large exposure to language when they do tasks. The components of coherence and cohesion in their speaking are also developed through negotiation and preparation for oral reports. Last but not least, students noticed that they can develop ideas for speaking in group discussion, enhance linguistic knowledge of vocabulary and grammar in language focus, recognize and correct their pronunciation through peer feedback.

TBLT is the instruction method receiving great interest from many educators especially in the prevailing context of Vietnam. With the limitations from the present study, several suggestions for further research can be mentioned. Firstly, the present research was conducted to figure out the effects of TBLT on EFL students' speaking performance. Other studies may put the aims to other different skills such as listening, reading, and writing. As a weakness mentioned in the previous part of this chapter, this research can conclude on the improvement of speaking performance in light of total scores without the evaluation for each different speaking components such as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency, and task completion... The further research will hopefully point out and compare the effects of TBLT on each speaking components. To have stronger and more generalized findings, future studies can get rid of the limitation in sample size and experimental time. A larger population in another site with longer experimental phase should be considered in the next research. Moreover, the influence of TBLT on other different levels participants should be tested, together with the employment of diverse research instruments like interview, observation...to evaluate the participants' attitudes.

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Appendix 1: Pre-Test Scores

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP			CONTROL GROUP		
examiner 1	examiner 2	averaged scores	examiner 1	examiner 2	averaged scores
6	6	6	8	8	8
6	7	6.5	9	9	9
7	8	7.5	7	6	6.5
6.5	7.5	7	8	7	7.5
9	9	9	7.5	6.5	7
7	6	6.5	6	5	5.5
6	6	6	7.5	7.5	7.5
6	7	6.5	6.5	7.5	7
6	5	5.5	6	5	5.5
6	6	6	6	6	6
7.5	7.5	7.5	7	8	7.5
8	8	8	6.5	5.5	6
6.5	5.5	6	6	6	6
5	6	5.5	6	6	6
6	6	6	6.5	7.5	7
6	7	6.5	5	4	4.5
4	5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
7	8	7.5	5	6	5.5
5	4	4.5	6	6	6
6	7	6.5	5.5	6.5	6
6	5	5.5	6.5	7.5	7
7	7	7	7	6	6.5
8	9	8.5	6.5	7.5	7
6	6	6	6	6	6
6.5	7.5	7	7	7	7
6.5	6.5	6.5	5.5	6.5	6
7	8	7.5	6.5	7.5	7
6	6	6	7	6	6.5
6.5	6.5	6.5	8	7	7.5
7	8	7.5	7	7	7

Appendix 2: Post-Test Scores

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP			CONTROL GROUP		
examiner 1	examiner 2	averaged scores	examiner 1	examiner 2	averaged scores
7.5	7.5	7.5	9	9	9
8	7	7.5	8.5	8.5	8.5
8.5	9.5	9	5.5	6.5	6
8.5	7.5	8	8	7	7.5
9.5	9.5	9.5	6.5	6.5	6.5
8	8	8	6	6	6
8	8	8	7	8	7.5
8	7	7.5	8.5	8.5	8.5
6	7	6.5	6	5	5.5
7	8	7.5	5	5	5
9	9	9	8	8	8
8.5	8.5	8.5	7	8	7.5
7.5	6.5	7	6.5	5.5	6
7	8	7.5	7	6	6.5
7	7	7	8	8	8
7.5	7.5	7.5	5	5	5
6	5	5.5	5.5	4.5	5
8	8	8	6	5	5.5
5.5	4.5	5	7.5	6.5	7
7	7	7	7	7	7
6.5	6.5	6.5	8	8	8
8	9	8.5	7.5	6.5	7
9.5	9.5	9.5	8	8	8
6	7	6.5	7	6	6.5
8	8	8	7	8	7.5
7	7	7	7.5	6.5	7
8	8	8	7.5	7.5	7
6	7	6.5	8	8	8
7	8	7.5	8	7	7.5
8	9	8.5	8	8	8

Appendix 3: Questionnaire Item-Total Statistics

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	82.33	108.437	.646	.939
Q2	82.13	107.775	.722	.938
Q3	82.33	111.126	.467	.942
Q4	82.40	109.972	.360	.946
Q5	82.83	106.833	.610	.940
Q6	82.93	104.409	.793	.937
Q7	82.47	110.051	.593	.940
Q8	82.77	104.047	.772	.937
Q9	82.23	109.495	.603	.940
Q10	82.17	109.178	.694	.939
Q11	82.03	112.309	.564	.941
Q12	82.20	109.614	.624	.940
Q13	82.30	112.424	.474	.942
Q14	82.03	108.930	.709	.938
Q15	82.20	109.131	.720	.938
Q16	82.27	113.375	.565	.941
Q17	82.57	108.047	.688	.939
Q18	82.53	106.464	.881	.936
Q19	82.57	105.564	.760	.937
Q20	82.80	109.338	.557	.941
Q21	82.57	106.944	.673	.939
Q22	82.33	108.299	.706	.938