

**FOCUS ON FORM
IN A FRAMEWORK FOR
TASK-BASED ISIXHOSA INSTRUCTION
IN A SPECIFIC PURPOSES
MULTIMEDIA CURRICULUM**

**BY
ANDRIES WILLEM STEENKAMP**



Dissertation presented for the degree of Doctor of Literature at
Stellenbosch University

Promotor: Prof M.W. Visser

March 2009

Declaration

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: December 2008

ABSTRACT

This study explores how focus on form can be included by means of computer within a task-based approach to the teaching of a specific purposes isiXhosa course for student teachers.

The insights and perspectives of an extensive literature review about focus on form within the fields of general second language teaching and learning, task-based teaching and learning, language for specific purposes and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) are presented. The rationale for the inclusion of attention to linguistic form in communicative second language teaching is investigated and key issues related to the inclusion of focus on form in a second language curriculum are explored.

A needs analysis was conducted among Afrikaans and English speaking primary school teachers in the Cape Peninsula in order to determine teachers' common communication needs for interaction with isiXhosa mother tongue speaking learners. Sixteen real-world target tasks that were constructed based on the communication needs identified by teachers are analysed to determine the generic moves employed to realise the communicative purpose of each task. The tasks are also analysed in terms of their cognitive complexity and their syntactic complexity. The generic moves identified for each task are analysed in order to identify salient language structures with the aim of informing decisions about the forms to be targeted for focus on form and input enhancement activities. A number of options for input enhancement via computer are explored.

The sixteen tasks analysed in this study are graded and sequenced on the basis of their cognitive complexity and classified into one of four quadrants of the cognitive complexity framework advanced by Robinson (2005). It is argued that the accurate grading and sequencing of tasks is crucially important for second language acquisition. Information from all the types of analyses conducted in this study is used to illustrate how the grading and sequencing of tasks on the grounds of

cognitive complexity can be enhanced to include information about syntactic complexity and salient language structures. It is argued that this information is of particular importance for course design in the case of isiXhosa because the linguistic structure of isiXhosa differs greatly from that of both English and Afrikaans.

A procedure for the design of a specific purposes multimedia curriculum within a design-based research approach is proposed and exemplified using the data obtained from the analyses of the real-world target tasks used in the study.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie ondersoek hoe fokus op vorm met behulp van die rekenaar ingesluit kan word in 'n taakgebaseerde benadering tot die onderrig van 'n spesifieke doeleindes isiXhosa-kursus vir studentonderwysers.

Die insigte en perspektiewe van 'n uitgebreide literatuurstudie oor fokus op vorm binne die velde van algemene tweedetaalleer en –onderrig, taakgebaseerde onderrig en leer, taal vir spesifieke doeleindes en rekenaarondersteunde taalleer word aangebied. Die rasionaal vir die insluiting van aandag aan grammatikale vorm in kommunikatiewe tweedetaalleer word ondersoek en die sentrale kwessies in verband met die insluiting van fokus op vorm in 'n tweedetaal-kurrikulum word bespreek.

'n Behoeftebepaling is gedoen onder Afrikaans- en Engelssprekende laerskoolonderwysers in die Kaapse Skiereiland ten einde hul gemeenskaplike behoeftes vir kommunikasie met isiXhosa-moedertaalleerders te bepaal. Sestien teikentake wat saamgestel is na aanleiding van die kommunikasiebehoeftes wat onder onderwysers geïdentifiseer is, word geanaliseer om die generiese skuiwe te bepaal wat ingespan word om die kommunikatiewe doel van elke taak te realiseer. Die take word ook geanaliseer in terme van hul kognitiewe en sintaktiese kompleksiteit. Die generiese skuiwe wat vir elke taak geïdentifiseer word, word verder ontleed sodat kenmerkende taalstrukture uitgewys kan word met die doel om besluite oor die keuse van strukture vir fokus-op-vorm aktiwiteite en invoerverryking toe te lig. 'n Aantal opsies vir invoerverryking deur middel van die rekenaar word ondersoek.

Die sestien take wat in die studie geanaliseer word, word gradeer en in sekvensie georden op grond van hul kognitiewe kompleksiteit en geklassifiseer in een van vier kwadrante van Robinson (2005) se raamwerk vir kognitiewe kompleksiteit. Daar word aangevoer dat die akkurate gradering en sekvensiële ordening van take krities belangrik is vir tweedetaalverwerwing. Inligting van al die tipes analyses wat vir

hierdie studie gedoen is, word gebruik om te illustreer hoe die gradering van take op grond van kognitiewe kompleksiteit aangevul kan word deur inligting oor sintaktiese kompleksiteit en kenmerkende taalstrukture. Daar word aangevoer dat hierdie inligting van besondere belang is vir sillabusontwerp in die geval van isiXhosa aangesien die struktuur van isiXhosa aansienlik verskil van dié van beide Afrikaans en Engels.

'n Raamwerk vir die ontwerp van 'n spesifieke doeleindes multimedia sillabus binne 'n ontwerpgebaseerde navorsingsbenadering word voorgestel en geïllustreer aan die hand van data wat verkry is uit die analyses van die teikentake wat in die studie gebruik word.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The following people deserve my sincere gratitude. Thank you:

Family and friends:

Salomi, for your unconditional love, for doing so much without me while I studied, and for believing in me.

Neil and Anina, for hugs and smiles for "Dr Dolittle".

My parents and parents-in-law, for constant encouragement.

Other family members and friends (you know who you are) for encouraging me during the tough times.

Colleagues from Cape Peninsula University of Technology:

Pippa Campbell (Librarian at CPUT Library, Mowbray campus) for brilliant work finding information and for a sympathetic ear.

Willie Smith (Assistant Dean) and Maureen Robinson (Dean: Faculty of Education, CPUT), for reducing my lecturing load and allowing me time to study during teaching practice sessions.

Liz van Aswegen, for help with referencing.

Christelle Ekron, for hundreds of smss that helped to keep me smiling and motivated.

Sanet Cox, for laughing with me through the difficult times.

Nobonile Ngeshe, for helping me unravel tricky sentences.

Other colleagues at CPUT Mowbray, for your interest and encouragement.

From Stellenbosch University:

Marianna Visser, for always helping me to see the bigger picture and for sharing your knowledge so freely.

Surena du Plessis, for arranging meetings with Marianna and keeping track of e-mails.

Mawande Dlali, for editing the dialogues so meticulously.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
Abstract	i
Opsomming	iii
Acknowledgements	v
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Motivation for the study	1
1.2 Theoretical framework, research focus and methodology	2
1.3 Organisation of the study	5
CHAPTER 2: FOCUS ON FORM	
2.1 Introduction	7
2.2 Defining 'focus on form'	7
2.3 Motivation for the use of focus on form	11
2.4 Historical overview of research on focus on form	18
2.5 Research findings regarding focus on form	22
2.6 A typology of form-focused instruction	27
2.6.1 Focus on forms	27
2.6.2 Planned focus on form	29
2.6.3 Incidental focus on form	31
2.7 The role of feedback in focus on form	35
2.8 Uptake	37
2.9 The issue of timing in focus on form	40
2.10 Metalanguage in focus on form	43
2.11 Conclusion	44
CHAPTER 3: TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES	
3.1 Introduction	47
3.2 Task-based language teaching and learning	48
3.2.1 Defining task-based language teaching	48

3.2.2	Task-based language teaching and second language teaching	52
3.2.3	Rationale for task-based language teaching	55
3.2.4	Classification of task types	58
3.2.4.1	Pedagogic classification	59
3.2.4.2	Cognitive classification	59
3.2.4.3	Rhetorical classification	60
3.2.4.4	Psycholinguistic classification	60
3.2.4.5	General framework for classification	62
3.2.5	The grading and sequencing of tasks	64
3.2.5.1	Skehan's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks	64
3.2.5.2	Robinson's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks	66
3.2.5.3	Ellis's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks	70
3.2.5.3.1	Factors relating to input	72
3.2.5.3.2	Factors relating to task conditions	73
3.2.5.3.3	Factors relating to the process of performing a task	75
3.2.5.3.4	Factors relating to task outcomes	75
3.2.6	Focus on form in a task-based syllabus	77
3.2.7	The design of a task-based syllabus	81
3.2.8	Task-based methodology	81
3.2.9	Assessment in task-based language teaching	95
3.3	Language for specific purposes	98
3.3.1	Defining 'Language for specific purposes'	98
3.3.2	Language learning theory and LSP	100
3.3.3	The role of needs analysis in LSP	104
3.3.4	The role of discourse analysis, speech acts and genre analysis in LSP ...	105
3.3.5	LSP methodology	108
3.3.6	LSP course design	111
3.3.7	Concluding remarks on LSP	117
3.4	Conclusion	118

CHAPTER 4: COMPUTER-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING: THEORY AND METHODOLOGY

4.1	Introduction	119
4.2	Defining 'CALL'	120
4.3	Theoretical influences on CALL design and practice	121
4.4	CALL research perspectives	124
4.4.1	Interactionist second language acquisition theory	126
4.4.2	Sociocultural theory and CALL	127
4.4.3	Situated learning	128
4.4.4	Design-based research	129
4.5	Task-based Language Teaching in CALL	131
4.5.1	The contribution of CALL research to the theory of task-based language teaching and learning	131
4.5.2	The value of task-based CALL for second language acquisition	135
4.6	Input enhancement and Focus on Form in CALL	136
4.6.1	Input salience	137
4.6.2	Input modification	138
4.6.3	Input elaboration	140
4.7	Interaction in CALL	141
4.7.1	Interpersonal interaction	142
4.7.2	Learner-computer interaction	143
4.8	Production in CALL tasks	145
4.9	Focus on form in task-based CALL methodology	146
4.9.1	The pre-task phase	146
4.9.2	The during-task phase	148
4.9.3	The post-task phase	150
4.10	Conclusion	151

CHAPTER 5: TASK ANALYSIS AND CALL DESIGN

5.1	Introduction	152
5.2	Task analysis	153
5.2.1	Cognitive complexity	153

5.2.2	Units of analysis	156
5.2.3	Focus on form	157
5.2.4	Analysis of real-world tasks	159
5.2.4.1	Task 1	159
5.2.4.1.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	162
5.2.4.1.2	Analysis of Speech Units	164
5.2.4.1.3	Salient Language Structures	165
5.2.4.2	Task 2	167
5.2.4.2.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	172
5.2.4.2.2	Analysis of Speech Units	175
5.2.4.2.3	Salient Language Structures	178
5.2.4.3	Task 3	180
5.2.4.3.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	187
5.2.4.3.2	Analysis of Speech Units	190
5.2.4.3.3	Salient Language Structures	195
5.2.4.4	Task 4	199
5.2.4.4.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	202
5.2.4.4.2	Analysis of Speech Units	204
5.2.4.4.3	Salient Language Structures	207
5.2.4.5	Task 5	209
5.2.4.5.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	212
5.2.4.5.2	Analysis of Speech Units	213
5.2.4.5.3	Salient Language Structures	216
5.2.4.6	Task 6	218
5.2.4.6.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	220
5.2.4.6.2	Analysis of Speech Units	223
5.2.4.6.3	Salient Language Structures	225
5.2.4.7	Task 7	226
5.2.4.7.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	232
5.2.4.7.2	Analysis of Speech Units	234
5.2.4.7.3	Salient Language Structures	238
5.2.4.8	Task 8	241

5.2.4.8.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	244
5.2.4.8.2	Analysis of Speech Units	247
5.2.4.8.3	Salient Language Structures	249
5.2.4.9	Task 9	251
5.2.4.9.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	256
5.2.4.9.2	Analysis of Speech Units	258
5.2.4.9.3	Salient Language Structures	261
5.2.4.10	Task 10	265
5.2.4.10.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	267
5.2.4.10.2	Analysis of Speech Units	269
5.2.4.10.3	Salient Language Structures	270
5.2.4.11	Task 11	271
5.2.4.11.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	274
5.2.4.11.2	Analysis of Speech Units	276
5.2.4.11.3	Salient Language Structures	279
5.2.4.12	Task 12	282
5.2.4.12.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	288
5.2.4.12.2	Analysis of Speech Units	290
5.2.4.12.3	Salient Language Structures	295
5.2.4.13	Task 13	299
5.2.4.13.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	303
5.2.4.13.2	Analysis of Speech Units	305
5.2.4.13.3	Salient Language Structures	308
5.2.4.14	Task 14	310
5.2.4.14.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	316
5.2.4.14.2	Analysis of Speech Units	318
5.2.4.14.3	Salient Language Structures	322
5.2.4.15	Task 15	326
5.2.4.15.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	332
5.2.4.15.2	Analysis of Speech Units	334
5.2.4.15.3	Salient Language Structures	338
5.2.4.16	Task 16	341

5.2.4.16.1	Cognitive Complexity Analysis	346
5.2.4.16.2	Analysis of Speech Units	349
5.2.4.16.3	Salient Language Structures	352
5.3	CALL design and input enhancement through focus on form	356
5.4	Exemplification of DBR for CALL LSP for isiXhosa second language for teachers	365
5.5	Conclusion	379

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1	Theories about language	381
6.2	Theories about learning	384
6.3	Theories about teaching	386
6.4	Concluding remarks and value of study	392

REFERENCES	393
-------------------------	------------

APPENDICES	402
-------------------------	------------

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation for the study

The motivation for this study stems from the need for the researcher to design a task-based multimedia specific purposes course for student teachers at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) who are learning isiXhosa as a second additional (i.e. third) language.

Due to the continued integration of different racial groups in post-apartheid South Africa, multilingual classrooms have become more and more common (if not the norm) in the Cape Town metropolitan area. Many English or Afrikaans first language speaking teachers now have a number of isiXhosa mother tongue speaking learners in their classes, and find it difficult to communicate with these learners in their home language. For this reason there has been a growing need to replace the general purposes beginner and lower intermediate level isiXhosa courses offered to student teachers at CPUT with a specific purposes course.

Further motivation for the introduction of a specific purposes course comes from the fact that the demand for teachers of isiXhosa has been greatly increased by the policy of multilingualism adopted by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED), as stated in the Department's Language Policy (WCED, 2002) and in its Language in Education Transformation Plan (WCED, n.d.). According to these policy documents the WCED is gradually introducing isiXhosa as a second additional language for a minimum of three year during the Intermediate and Senior Phases (Grades 4-9). As the biggest supplier of Intermediate and Senior Phase teachers to the WCED, CPUT has a responsibility to train non-mother tongue speaking students to teach isiXhosa as a second additional language.

Because the structure of isiXhosa is typologically vastly different from that of English and Afrikaans (the latter having developed from seventeenth century Dutch),

attention to linguistic form is of particular importance in isiXhosa third language instruction. Hence the focus in this study on focus on form.

1.2 Theoretical framework, research focus and methodology

This study is undertaken within the broad theoretical framework of communicative second language teaching and learning. As is the case in most of the international literature on applied linguistics, no distinction will be made in this study between the terms 'second language' and 'third language'. The communicative approach to language teaching was developed in the 1970s in reaction to earlier methods of language teaching (e.g. the grammar translation method and the audiolingual method) which, it was believed, had placed too much emphasis on the teaching of linguistic structure. With the communicative approach the emphasis was put on meaning, rather than form, and curriculum design focused on providing learners with opportunities to communicate within a variety of situations. The overt teaching of linguistic form was thought to have little or no effect. Linguists such as Krashen believed that learners had to be provided with comprehensible input and that learners were able to deduct whatever grammatical patterns and rules they needed to acquire the target language from the positive evidence present in the input provided (Long & Robinson, 1998).

During the late 1980s and the early 1990s, however, a growing body of empirical evidence developed which proved that formal instruction of linguistic form does have positive effects on language acquisition (Fotos, 1993:386). It was argued that linguistic form should be taught more covertly than was the case prior to the advent of communicative language teaching. The terms 'consciousness raising', 'noticing' and 'input enhancement' were introduced to refer to the process through which learners can be made aware of specific linguistic constructions in instruction where the emphasis remains on meaning, and where the communicative flow is not interrupted. In further studies on the role of grammar in second language teaching, the term 'focus on form' was introduced. This term refers to the occasional shift of attention to linguistic features during a lesson which is still mainly meaning focused

(Long & Robinson, 1998:23). More recent studies (e.g. Klapper & Rees (2003)), have also found more explicit attention to linguistic form to be successful. This study aims to investigate the different options available for focusing learners' attention to linguistic form. This research focus is supported by Ellis (2008:17) who argues that because language proficiency, i.e. pragmatic and communicative competence, "[is] realized primarily by means of linguistic resources" the focus in research will remain on how linguistic resources are acquired.

Apart from focus on form, this study will focus on how attention to linguistic form can be incorporated into a task-based approach to second language teaching and learning. Task-based language teaching and learning has been established over the past twenty years as one of the most meaningful ways to organise a second language syllabus. Further motivation for researching task-based language teaching is offered by Long & Robinson (1998:23), who claim that focus on form can best be achieved in a syllabus based on pedagogical tasks, i.e. tasks based on learners' language needs in the target language. Determining and catering for learner needs is the central premise of specific purposes language teaching.

Finally, this study will investigate principles for course design regarding the inclusion of computers into the second language curriculum (CALL), with specific attention to the possibilities for using computers to focus on form.

The following research questions will be addressed:

- 1) How are sentence structures identified for the purposes of focus on form in pedagogic tasks within a task-based approach?
- 2) What is the importance of the accurate grading and sequencing of tasks and how is this done?
- 3) What are the principles that govern specific purposes course design, particularly regarding the inclusion of focus on form via computer?

In Chapters 2, 3 and 4 the results of an extensive literature review are presented. During the literature review specific attention is paid to focus on form in relation to other fields of study, e.g. general second language teaching and learning theory, task-based language teaching and learning, language for specific purposes and computer-assisted language learning (CALL).

A needs analysis was conducted to determine the communication needs of Afrikaans and English speaking teachers who have isiXhosa speaking learners in their classes. This was done by means of a letter sent to a number of primary schools in the Cape Peninsula in which teachers were encouraged to indicate the communication needs they experience. Teachers were given a blank form on which to write their communication needs. A blank form was used in stead of a predesigned form so as to encourage teachers to write freely, without having been biased by being asked to indicate preferences or priorities on a previously compiled list.

The teachers' responses were analysed and compared to determine common communication needs. Based on a number of common themes that emerged from teachers' responses, e.g. welcoming a new learner, comforting a learner who is upset, discussing a learner's progress with his or her parents and addressing a group of parents, a number of real-world target tasks are constructed. These tasks were used to construct sixteen dialogues based on a variety of communication needs. The dialogues are considered semi-authentic tasks because even though they are not transcriptions of actual conversations, they greatly resemble conversations between teachers, learners and parents in the target situation in terms of both content and language. Sixteen dialogues are presented in random order for analysis.

The sixteen dialogues are analysed to determine the communicative purpose and the generic moves employed to realise the communicative purpose. The dialogues are then analysed in terms of Robinson's (2005) cognitive complexity framework. Furthermore, to inform decisions about the grading and sequencing of tasks and about focus on form, the dialogues are analysed to determine their syntactic complexity and to identify salient language structures. Robinson's (2005) cognitive

complexity framework is used to grade and sequence the sixteen dialogues by means of placement into one of four quadrants. By means of exemplification it is shown how tasks can be graded and sequenced by using not only the cognitive complexity information, but also the information obtained during the syntactic complexity analyses and by identifying the salient language features of tasks.

A procedure for the design of specific purposes CALL is proposed based on the results of the literature review and the information obtained from the analyses of the dialogues. The procedure is presented within a design-based research approach.

1.3 Organisation of Study

Chapter 2 investigates issues related to the inclusion of some form of attention to linguistic form in second language instruction. After defining 'focus on form' the rationale for the adoption of focus on form in instructed second language learning will be reviewed. An overview will be given of research findings about the effectiveness of focus and form and various types of focus on form will be discussed. The role of feedback in focus on form will be investigated in Section 2.7, after which follows a discussion of the importance of uptake in focus-on-form instruction. This is followed by a review of the issue of timing in focus on form, after which the role of metalanguage in focus on form is investigated. Concluding remarks are made in Section 2.10.

In Chapter 3 task-based language teaching and the use of tasks in specific purpose courses are reviewed. Task-based language teaching will be defined and discussed within the broader field of second language teaching and learning. The rationale for adopting task-based language teaching will be reviewed and a classification of various task types will be given. Various models for the grading and sequencing of tasks will be discussed, after which the role of focus on form within a task-based approach to second language teaching will be reviewed. The section on task-based language teaching concludes with a discussion of task-based methodology and assessment in task-based language teaching. Section 3.3 of Chapter 3 is dedicated

to an investigation of the main research issues in the field of language for specific purposes (LSP). After defining 'language for specific purposes' the position of LSP within the broader theory of second language learning is discussed. The role of needs analysis, discourse analysis, speech acts and genre analysis is investigated. LSP methodology and LSP course design are reviewed, after which concluding remarks about LSP are made. Chapter 3 is concluded with some final comments in Section 3.4.

Chapter 4 gives an overview of the key issues regarding the incorporation of computers into a task-based approach to second language teaching, with specific reference to the possibilities for using computers to focus on form. After defining 'CALL', various theoretical influences on CALL design and practice are reviewed. This is followed by a discussion of CALL research perspectives and of task-based language teaching in CALL. Methods for input enhancement and focus on form using CALL are reviewed in Section 4.6. In Section 4.7 the importance of interaction in CALL is discussed, after which production in CALL tasks is investigated. In Section 4.9 different options for the inclusion of focus on form in a task-based CALL methodology are discussed. Concluding remarks to this chapter are made in Section 4.10.

In Chapter 5 a number of dialogues are analysed to illustrate how the grading and sequencing of tasks should be undertaken and a procedure for the design of a task-based specific purposes course that uses multimedia to focus on form is proposed. This chapter starts with an overview of key issues in task analysis. In Section 5.2.4 sixteen dialogues are analysed to determine for each their communicative purpose, the generic moves realised and their syntactic complexity. For each task salient language structures are also identified. In Section 5.3 CALL design and input enhancement through focus on form are discussed and a procedure for designing an LSP CALL curriculum is proposed. The procedure is exemplified by referring to information obtained from the analyses done for the sixteen tasks analysed in Section 5.2.4. Concluding remarks are made in Section 5.5.

In Chapter 6 concluding remarks about course design are presented.

CHAPTER 2

FOCUS ON FORM

2.1 Introduction

This chapter investigates issues related to the inclusion of some form of attention to linguistic form in second language instruction. It has become widely accepted within the field of second language learning and teaching that learners acquiring a second language in a classroom situation are more successful and make better progress in the target language if they are led to pay some attention to linguistic form. This attention to form within a broad communicative approach to second language teaching is known as focus on form. The term 'focus on form' will be defined in Section 2.2 and contrasted with other related terms. In Section 2.3 arguments in favour of the adoption of focus on linguistic form during instruction will be presented. Section 2.4 is devoted to an historical overview of research into the effectiveness of various types of form-focused instruction, while in Section 2.5 research findings about the effectiveness of different kinds of attention to linguistic form are reviewed. In Section 2.6 a classification of the different kinds of form-focused instruction is made. This is followed by a discussion of the role of feedback in focus on form in Section 2.7 and of the role of uptake in Section 2.8. Issues related to the importance of timing in focus on form are reviewed in Section 2.9, while the role of metalanguage is discussed in Section 2.10. Concluding remarks are presented in Section 2.11.

2.2 Defining 'Focus on form'

The term 'form' is used to refer to structural aspects of language, which includes phonological, lexical, grammatical and pragmalinguistic aspects of language (Ellis, 2001:1).

The meaning of the term 'focus on form' is best understood when compared to and contrasted with that of the terms 'focus on forms' and 'form-focused instruction'.

The treatment of grammar in second language teaching has received much attention over the years. In earlier approaches to second language teaching, such as the Grammar Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method, the Silent Way and Total Physical Response, syllabuses were designed around target language grammatical structures, lexis, and functions and notions. In these approaches grammar was typically taught overtly and often separately from meaning (Long & Robinson, 1998: 15-16). This treatment of grammatical structure is known as focus on forms (Doughty & Williams, 1998:3).

In more recent approaches to second language teaching, such as Task-based Language Teaching, grammar is treated more covertly and is not taught separate from meaning. This treatment of grammatical form is known as focus on form, and is defined by Long and Robinson (1998: 23) as "...an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production".

Doughty (2001:211) points out that focus on forms and focus on form are "not polar opposites ...". She further stresses that "focus on form entails a focus on formal elements of language, whereas focus on forms is limited to such a focus ...". Doughty and Williams (1998:3) emphasize that the crucial distinction between focus on forms and focus on form is that "focus on form entails a prerequisite engagement in meaning before attention to linguistic features can be expected to be effective". A further distinction is pointed out by Ellis (2001:15) who states that with focus on form the attention to form must be "brief and unobtrusive".

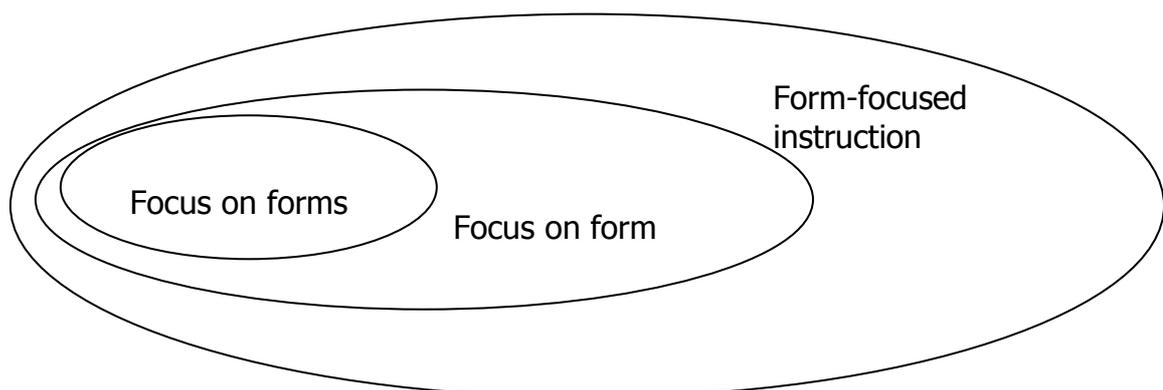
The term 'form-focused instruction' (FFI) is used by some authors as an umbrella term which includes both focus on form and focus on forms. Ellis (2001:2) states that form-focused instruction is a cover term for terms such as " 'analytic teaching', 'focus on form', 'focus on forms', 'corrective feedback/error correction' and

'negotiation of form' ". Ellis (2001:1) defines form-focused instruction as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form". Klapper and Rees (2003:287) cite a definition by Spada in which form-focused instruction is defined as "... any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form, either implicitly or explicitly".

Doughty and Williams (1998:4) point out that the term 'form-focused instruction' is also frequently used in literature to refer to instruction which is in fact focus on forms. They emphasize that 'form-focused instruction' encompasses *both* focus on forms and focus on form. Doughty and Williams (1998:4) argue that focus on form and focus on forms "are not polar opposites in the way that 'form' and 'meaning' have often been considered to be". They state that "focus on form *entails* a focus on formal elements of language, whereas focus on forms is *limited* to such a focus, ...". A fundamental feature of focus on form is that at the time when learners' attention is focused on a linguistic form, they must already be familiar with the meaning and the appropriate usage of that form. If information about meaning and usage are lacking, the attention to form would be considered focus on forms.

Ellis et al. (2002:420) use the term 'form-based instruction' but do not offer a definition for this term. Based on their discussion of different kinds of treatment of form in second language teaching, it is however assumed that they use this term to be similar in meaning to 'form-focused instruction'.

Doughty and Williams's definitions of 'focus on form', 'focus on forms' and 'form-focused instruction' can be represented schematically as follows:



Sheen (2002: 303) proposes that there is a fundamental difference between focus on form and focus on forms, as far as the theoretical underpinnings of these two approaches are concerned. According to Sheen focus on forms is based on the assumption that when learners learn a second language in a classroom situation they are learning a skill, and that they are utilizing general cognitive processes to do so. As a skills-learning activity, the focus of forms approach is seen to take place in three stages:

- learners are brought to understand the grammar, by means of overt grammar explanation, which often includes explanation in the first language and a comparison of the first and target language structures;
- non-communicative and communicative exercises in which the targeted grammatical forms can be practised;
- learners are provided with plentiful opportunities for communication, in which they can use the targeted grammatical constructions, so that the use will eventually become automatic and accurate. (Sheen, 2002:304)

By contrast, focus on form, according to Sheen (2002:303), derives from the assumption that first and second language acquisition are to a certain extent similar processes. Both these processes are seen to utilize "exposure to comprehensible input arising from natural interaction". Focus on form is, however, also based on the realization that there are significant differences between first and second language acquisition. Typically, learners' exposure to the target language is insufficient for them to acquire the grammar, and in order to make up for this lack of exposure learners' attention needs to be focused on structural elements of the target language, i.e. there needs to be some focus on form (Sheen, 2002:303).

The above definitions and accompanying discussion of the terms 'focus on form', 'focus on forms' and 'form-focused instruction' were presented in an attempt to point out all possible distinctions between these terms. It is important to note, however, that these distinctions are theoretical distinctions, and that in practice the two approaches are not mutually exclusive. Although it is important from a course design perspective to distinguish between focus on form and focus on forms, and to design

materials and classroom methodology according to decisions informed by theory about how attention to linguistic form should be catered for, both focus on form and focus on forms could be used in the same course and in the materials designed for it. As stated above, the two terms do not represent polar opposites, but should rather be seen as lying along a continuum.

2.3 Motivation for adopting focus on form

It is generally accepted that second language learners need to be engaged in meaning-focused communicative activities in order for them to acquire the target language. It is also a given that learners have limited capacity to process the second language and that they find it difficult to attend to meaning and form at the same time. Learners will, when engaged in a communicative activity, automatically prioritize meaning over form. For this reason it has become widely accepted by second language researchers that ways have to be found to draw learners' attention to form while they are engaged in communicative activities (Ellis et al., 2002: 422).

It is also widely accepted that second language learners who receive only meaning-focused instruction can acquire linguistic forms without receiving instruction in the use of these forms. Many researchers have, however, come to believe that without instruction in the linguistic elements of the second language, learners are not likely to achieve very high levels of linguistic competence. Learners, therefore, also need to be provided with opportunities to attend to linguistic form. Ellis et al. (2002:421) cite the work of Swain, who has conducted extensive research in this regard studying immersion programmes in Canada, to substantiate this argument. Klapper and Rees (2003:287) also refer to the work of Swain and state that there typically are important formal differences between the learners' first and second language, which the learners cannot learn only from positive evidence gained from being exposed to second language usage. Again the point is made that some form of attention to linguistic form is needed in instruction for learners to fully acquire the grammar of the second language.

A similar argument is put forward by Doughty and Williams (1998:2) who state that research findings are beginning to indicate that some attention to formal aspects embedded in activities that are primarily meaning focused will improve the limited effectiveness of purely communicative classroom practice. They refer to a strong and a weaker claim regarding the need for attention to linguistic form within a communicative approach to second language teaching. According to the strong claim, learners need to be provided with focus on form in order for them to develop their ability in the second language beyond that of communicative competence, in order to achieve targetlike command of the second language. The weaker claim calls for focus on form in instruction even though it may not be vital for successful second language acquisition. According to the weaker claim, focus on form will provide learners with "a more efficient language learning experience" because it is believed that focus on form "can speed up natural acquisition processes" (Doughty & Williams, 1998: 2).

Various proposals have been put forward over the years for options on how form should be dealt with in instructed second language learning. One such proposal, that of consciousness raising, was made by Sharwood Smith. This approach entailed that teachers make students aware of formal aspects of the target language by highlighting these in the input. According to Long & Robinson (1998:17) the idea with consciousness raising was not that learners would necessarily be expected to produce the forms that are being focused on in input, but merely that learners should be made aware of these forms. Long & Robinson (1998:17) criticize consciousness raising by pointing out that with this approach the main design emphasis was still on linguistic form and that no clear indication was given about how explicit or elaborate the proposed treatment of form should be. The concept of consciousness raising was also criticized because of claims that this approach would affect learners' internal mental state. It was never clear exactly how this was to be achieved, or how the extent or the results of the proposed internal mental state would be determined.

A more recent approach, called input enhancement, was introduced by Sharwood Smith. Long & Robinson (1998:17-18) indicate that with this approach the emphasis was placed on the design and production of classroom materials through which target constructions could be brought to learners' attention (e.g. by highlighting items or by providing rules), rather than on attempting to change learners' internal mental state, as was the case with consciousness raising (Long & Robinson, 1998:17-18). Input enhancement will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4 of this study.

With the advent of the communicative approach to second language teaching in the 1970s, linguists such as Krashen argued that acquiring a second language is similar to the acquisition of a first language, in that all that is needed for successful acquisition is positive data. The argument was that providing second language learners with comprehensible input (proposed in Krashen's Input Hypothesis) was sufficient and that instruction in the structural aspects of language would have no effect on learners' linguistic competence (Norris & Ortega 2001:159). Hence, overt grammar teaching was abandoned in favour of a 'non-interventionist approach, and teachers' efforts were focused on providing learners with sufficient input and opportunities for communication in the target language.

In his Monitor Model Krashen proposed that both conscious and unconscious processes are involved in language development (Robinson, 1996:1). The conscious process was described as one of deduction. With this process Krashen proposed that learners consciously deduce language rules through the application of these rules, which then results in a learned system. The unconscious process was described by Krashen as a process of unconscious induction which results in an acquired language system. The unconscious process was claimed to be the more important of the two systems and providing learners with input just beyond their current level of comprehension was seen as priority (Grove, 1999:818).

Krashen's Monitor Model has been much criticized, e.g. by McLaughlin (1987). Researchers such as McLaughlin argue that it is impossible to distinguish between

conscious and unconscious learning, because it is not possible to tell which process is being used at any given time. Krashen's proposal that second language learners need only be given comprehensible input in order for successful acquisition to take place, has also been strongly criticized in literature. According to McLaughlin (1987:56) this term is problematic because Krashen does not define 'comprehensible input' and therefore his Input Hypothesis is considered to be untestable.

Critics of Krashen's non-interventionist approach argue that exposure to positive data is not sufficient and that some form of intervention in the form of structural input is necessary for successful acquisition of the target language to take place. According to De Keyser (1998:42) the majority of literature on the topic since the early 1990s is in favour of "some kind of focus on form". Doughty and Williams (1998:2) also state that research has begun to show that "pedagogical interventions embedded in primarily communicative activities can be effective in overcoming classroom limitations on SLA".

Although there appears to be consensus in recent literature that some attention must be paid to linguistic form during classroom second language instruction, there is little agreement as to exactly how this form focus should take place. Two different positions on this issue, the weak interface position and the strong interface position, are discussed by Norris & Ortega (2001:159-160). Researchers in favour of the weak interface position argue that there are instructional techniques that may contribute to the acquisition process. These techniques draw learners' attention to relevant structural features in input in a manner which is relatively unobtrusive, but at the same time salient enough to focus learners' attention on the targeted forms to such an extent that further cognitive processing can take place. The aim with this kind of focus on form is to bring about changes in learners' focal attention so that they will be more likely to notice certain structural elements in input, which will then ultimately lead to acquisition of the relevant forms. Researchers in favour of the strong interface position argue that with sustained practice it will be possible for learners to convert conscious knowledge of language rules to unconscious knowledge available for spontaneous use in the target language (Norris & Ortega, 2001:160).

Those researchers who advocate this position are therefore in favour of more covert grammar teaching than is the case with researchers in favour of the weak interface. This study will investigate the merits of both these positions.

Over the years researchers have conducted numerous studies in an attempt to prove the effectiveness of instructed second language acquisition. Amongst these have been studies that investigated the effectiveness of instruction that included focus on the formal aspects of language.

Ellis (2001:6) refers to studies that he conducted in which the sequence of acquisition of German word-order rules were compared between a group of instructed learners and a group of non-instructed learners. The results of these studies showed that instructed learners followed the same acquisition order as the non-instructed learners, and that instructed learners managed to proceed further and more rapidly, indicating that attention to form in instructed second language acquisition can be beneficial.

Since the 1990s second language researchers have begun to turn their attention to theories of information processing and skill learning, which traditionally fall within the field of cognitive psychology, in an effort to further understanding about the processes involved in instructed second language acquisition. Ellis (2001:7) cites the work of Schmidt, who has proposed the 'Noticing Hypothesis'. According to this hypothesis learners have to consciously notice forms and their meaning in the input in order for them to acquire these forms. Schmidt does not claim that the noticing of forms will guarantee acquisition, but he sees noticing as a condition for enabling learners to change input into intake (Ellis, 2001:8). The Noticing Hypothesis therefore supports the claim that focus on form creates opportunities for learners to pay attention to forms in the input, which they can then notice and acquire.

Another argument for the adoption of focus on form comes from Van Patten, who draws on information processing theory (Ellis 2001:8). As mentioned in the first paragraph of this section, Van Patten argues in favour of the adoption of focus on

form because, according to information processing theory, second language learners cannot attend to form and meaning at the same time, and therefore prioritize one over the other. If learners are engaged in a communicative activity, they will give preference to meaning, hence neglecting form. By adopting focus on form, the second language teacher can help learners to overcome this problem by focusing their attention on form during activities that are mostly meaning focused.

Further motivation for adopting focus on form is offered by researchers who have drawn on Skill building theory, e.g. DeKeyser and Johnson (Ellis, 2001:8). These researchers claim that given enough practice which includes focusing learners' attention on form can lead to proceduralization of declarative knowledge. In other words, given enough opportunities to use language in communicative activities, and provided with attention to form (e.g. negative feedback) during communicative activities, learners will become able to use their conscious knowledge of grammatical structures automatically, or unconsciously.

Klapper and Rees (2003:306) also come out strongly in favour of form-focused instruction. They compared the progress and ultimate results of a group of university students who were exposed to focus on forms to that of a group of students who were exposed to focus on form. Klapper and Rees state that "any [form-focused instruction] is beneficial to [second language] development". Their study indicated that students who received focus on forms, where the attention to form is conscious and explicit, managed to make faster gains initially. They found that the benefits of focus on form are not evident immediately, but that they become evident over the medium or long term. Klapper and Rees see focus on form as serving the purpose of raising learners' consciousness by helping them to notice important forms in input.

Another researcher who has returned to Sharwood Smith's term 'consciousness raising' is Ellis. Ellis (2002b) proposes that second language teachers should make use of consciousness raising for the teaching of explicit knowledge, which will then lead to the acquisition of implicit knowledge. He uses the term 'consciousness

raising' to refer to pedagogical activities that second language teachers can use to help learners to develop declarative knowledge. In Ellis's use of the term, consciousness raising has the following characteristics: A specific language structure is selected and is then illustrated to the learners by supplying them with data containing the structure. The data may be accompanied by explicit information about the rule or the usage of the structure, but this is optional. Learners have to utilise intellectual effort to understand the selected language structure, and the teacher could provide further explanation or data if the learners fail to understand the use of the targeted structure. The teacher may require the learners to articulate the rule or information about the usage of the construction, but this is not compulsory (Ellis, 2002b:168).

Ellis (2002b:169) states clearly that "the main purpose of consciousness raising is to develop *explicit knowledge* of grammar". Learners are not engaged in practice sessions with the aim that they will be able to use the targeted construction correctly. Consciousness raising activities are merely employed so that learners will "know about" the targeted structures (Ellis 2002b:169). Unlike with Sharwood Smith's (much criticized) original use of the term, Ellis does not claim that consciousness raising will lead to a change in learners' mental state. The aim of consciousness raising activities is to provide learners with opportunities to gain explicit knowledge about a linguistic feature or rule, in other words, the same kind of intellectual knowledge that they would gather in any other subject. Ellis admits that gaining explicit or intellectual knowledge about the use of a linguistic feature is of limited use to the second language learner, as having this kind of knowledge does not necessarily enable the learner to use the feature when communicating in the target language. Implicit knowledge of a linguistic feature is needed before a learner can start using that feature in free language production. He argues, though, that consciousness raising will contribute indirectly to the acquisition of implicit knowledge (2002b:171).

According to Ellis (2002b) the acquisition of implicit knowledge involves three processes: noticing, comparing and integrating. Noticing involves that the learners

will become aware of a linguistic feature in input which they had not paid any attention to in the past. Comparing entails that the learners compare the newly noticed language feature with their own mental grammar and that they become aware of the extent to which there is a gap between the input and their mental grammars. Ellis sees these two processes as involving conscious attention to linguistic form. The third process, integrating, involves the integration of a new linguistic feature into the learners' mental grammars. This takes place at a 'deep', psycholinguistic level, only if the learners are at the right stage developmentally to integrate the particular form, and happens without learners being aware of it.

Ellis is in favour of adopting consciousness raising because he argues that it will lead to the acquisition of implicit knowledge in two ways. Firstly, consciousness raising contributes to noticing and comparing, which will in time lead to integration of new features into learners' mental grammars. Secondly, because consciousness raising results in explicit knowledge, it will help learners to keep noticing a particular linguistic feature even if they cannot immediately integrate that feature into their mental grammars. Ellis argues that learners' explicit knowledge of the particular feature will enable them to keep noticing the feature in input until they are developmentally ready to acquire the feature through integration into their mental grammars. He states that it is unlikely that consciousness raising will enable learners to immediately acquire a linguistic feature, and that the effect of consciousness raising should be seen as a delayed effect.

From the above discussion it is clear the current second language teaching and learning literature is generally in favour of some form of focus on linguistic form. No consensus however exists about what this attention to form should entail. This point will also emerge in the section below.

2.4 Historical overview of research on focus on form

Early research into the use of form-focused instruction was concerned with finding the best method of second language teaching. Until the 1970s it was assumed that

a second language was best taught by focusing on grammatical form and research concentrated mainly on determining the best way to teach form.

According to Ellis (2001:3) early research was comparative by nature in the sense that it compared instructed second language acquisition with naturalistic acquisition in an attempt to determine how classroom instruction could imitate naturalistic second language acquisition. These studies indicated that learners follow a natural order of acquisition and it was found that sequences existed in the acquisition of target language structures. The natural order and the acquisition sequences were found to be universal, and in addition to this, it was found that learners' first language and individual factors such as age had little influence on test results. Because of these results, researchers started questioning whether attention to form in instruction was in fact necessary. This, in turn, led to two further research questions (Ellis, 2001:4). Firstly, proficiency levels of learners who had received form-focused instruction were compared with that of learners who had not. Secondly, research was conducted to determine whether the language of learners who had received form-focused instruction displayed the same order and sequence of acquisition. According to Ellis the majority of studies investigating these two questions indicated that learners who received form-focused instruction made faster progress and attained higher levels of proficiency overall. Other studies, however, suggested that the acquisition process was not influenced by instruction because it was found that instructed learners followed the same acquisition order and sequence as learners acquiring a second language naturalistically. These apparently contradictory results have been interpreted by researchers as seeming to indicate that second language instruction, and form-focused instruction in particular, does not change the processes involved in naturalistic second language acquisition, but facilitates these processes.

Once it had been established through comparative research that form-focused classroom-based second language instruction does facilitate language acquisition, research emphasis shifted during the 1980s to classroom process research (Ellis, 2001:4). This type of research studied classroom practices, focusing on error

treatment at first, and later also on the nature of interaction in second language classrooms and different aspects of classroom language, such as turn-taking and repair. The results of these studies showed that both meaning-focused and form-focused aspects of classroom instruction were beneficial to second language learning.

During the late 1980s and early 1990s research concentrated on the questions "Does form-focused instruction work?" and "What effect does form-focused instruction have on the order and sequence of acquisition?". To the first of these questions research findings showed that form-focused instruction does have positive effects on learners' progress and that these effects were durable (Ellis, 2001:6). Research findings to the question of the effect of form-focused instruction on the order and sequence of acquisition "provided additional support for the claim that instructed learners followed the same order and sequences of acquisition as naturalistic learners but [also] that they proceeded further and more rapidly" (Ellis, 2001:6). In contrast, other studies found that form-focused instruction was only effective if learners were developmentally ready to acquire particular structures. Instructing learners in the use of structures that were beyond their developmental level was found to be fruitless.

Ellis (2001) states that in the early 1990s second language research took on a new dimension when researchers were strongly influenced by theories of information processing and skill learning, drawn from cognition theory. In this time Schmidt proposed his "noticing hypothesis", according to which learners will only acquire certain forms once they have noticed these forms in input. With this theory Schmidt did not propose that the noticing of forms guaranteed acquisition, but merely that through noticing forms learners were able to process forms in their short-term memory. Schmidt's hypothesis did not make the claim that noticing would lead to forms being taken up in learners' interlanguage. The noticing hypothesis therefore contradicts Krashen's theory that acquisition is an unconscious process, but it is compatible with claims that form-focused instruction facilitates acquisition because it

helps learners to notice forms in input that they may not have noticed otherwise (Ellis, 2001:8).

Another angle to research into the role of form-focused instruction utilized Information Processing Theory. Van Patten proposed that especially beginner learners find it difficult to concentrate on form and meaning simultaneously and that they consequently focus on one in favour of the other (Ellis, 2001:8). Ellis further states that Skill Building Theory was also drawn from in the 1990s by researchers such as De Keyser and Johnson. These researchers proposed that form-focused instruction was valuable because by means of practice it could help turn learners' declarative knowledge of an instruction into proceduralized knowledge, especially if learners were also provided with negative feedback during practice.

Ellis (2001:10) also mentions the work of Long, which is a further example of theory-driven research done during the 1990s, and which has greatly influenced current research into the use of focus on form. Long proposed that attention to form will be most effective if it is used in the context of meaning-focused communication, rather than instruction which focuses on structural aspects only.

As is evident from the above discussion, Ellis (2001:11) points out that much of the research on form-focused instruction done in the 1990s was performed with the aim of testing certain hypotheses, and was therefore theory driven research. Much less attention was paid to pedagogic issues in the research of the time, with the result that second language teachers were still looking for answers as to what constitutes the best practice for focusing on form in the classroom.

Ellis (2001:12) cites two findings that are recurrent in research done during the 1990s. Firstly, researchers seem to agree that form-focused instruction, particularly more explicit focus, is effective in promoting language learning. Secondly, there appears to be consensus that form-focused instruction does not alter the natural processes involved in language acquisition.

2.5 Research findings regarding focus on form

It is evident from the previous section that numerous studies have been conducted to test the effectiveness of including some focus on linguistic form in second language teaching. The results of the majority of these studies indicate that some form of focus on form is effective for second language instruction. This section will take a closer look at the findings of some of the studies that have been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of form-focused instruction.

Ellis (2001:12) emphasizes that research findings about the effectiveness of form-focused instruction in second language learning should be interpreted with great caution. Although numerous studies have been conducted, the findings are difficult to compare and sometimes even contradictory because of the many variables that are involved. Ellis points out that factors such as "learners' developmental stage, the structure being taught, the instructional context, and the instructional materials" can influence the success of form-focused instruction. Two findings are, however, recurrent: firstly that form-focused instruction (specifically more explicit instruction) does have a positive effect on language learning, and secondly that form-focused instruction does not change the natural processes involved in second language acquisition.

Norris and Ortega (2000) conducted one of the largest studies done to date to compare the results of different studies undertaken to investigate the effectiveness of second language instruction. They compared the results of 49 studies published between 1980 and 1998 and attempted to answer six research questions, two of which will be dealt with in this section. These research questions are as follows:

- 1) What is the relative effectiveness of different types and categories of second language instruction?
- 2) Does instructional effect last beyond immediate post-experimental observations?

Norris and Ortega's findings regarding each of the above research questions will now be discussed individually.

- 1) What is the relative effectiveness of different types and categories of second language instruction?

This research question compared whether form and meaning were integrated in instruction or not (i.e. whether Focus on form or Focus on forms was used) and the effectiveness of each of these two approaches, as well as the extent to which form and meaning were integrated (i.e. whether form was dealt with implicitly or explicitly). Norris and Ortega (2000:482) found that both Focus on form and Focus on forms had a large overall effect on instruction and that there was no significant difference in the effectiveness of Focus on form compared to Focus on forms. It was also found that for both types of grammar treatment, explicit attention to structure was more effective than implicit, and that explicit treatment was most effective in Focus on forms.

- 2) Does instructional effect last beyond immediate post-experimental observations?

Norris and Ortega (2000:488) found that the effects of form-focused instruction did last beyond immediate post-test observation. The effects of form-focused instruction are therefore deemed to be durable, although deterioration does take place over time. The results of Norris and Ortega's study also indicated that longer-term treatments of form are more durable than short-term treatments.

In their research Norris and Ortega (2000:500) also found that there was no significant difference in the effectiveness of Focus on forms, compared to that of Focus on form.

Norris and Ortega do, however caution that the observation of and the interpretations about the effectiveness of second language instructional treatments were influenced by the way in which a particular test was conducted and by the outcome-measure used in the test. For the studies that they compared for their survey, Norris and Ortega found that 90% of the studies required learners to use the

second language to complete very specific and discrete linguistic tasks, while only 10% of the studies required extended, free use of the target language. Learners were, therefore, mostly required to utilize explicit declarative knowledge, rather than to freely use contextualised language. The result of this is that the findings and interpretations noted in Norris and Ortega's study, including those that commented on the effectiveness of Focus on form and Focus on forms, might have been different had the outcome-measure for the different studies been different.

The effect of form-focused instruction on learners' free production in the target language was also investigated by Ellis (2002a), who conducted a survey of 11 studies with the aim of examining the role of form-focused instruction in developing learners' implicit knowledge of the target language. He quotes N. Ellis, who defines implicit knowledge as "knowledge about the distributional properties of language, which can only be revealed to the learner through substantial and repeated experiences with input" (R. Ellis, 2002a:224).

As was the case with the studies compared by Norris and Ortega that were discussed above, Ellis also found that it was extremely difficult to make definite deductions about the effectiveness of form-focused instruction because of the numerous variables involved in comparing the 11 studies. He could deduct with certainty that the effects of form-focused instruction are durable. Ellis found that in seven of the eleven studies "form-focused instruction was successful in improving accuracy scores based on free production" (2002a:229). In all four studies where form-focused instruction was unsuccessful, learners were older than twelve years. Form-focused instruction was found to be successful in all four of the studies in which learners were twelve years old or younger. In nine of the 11 studies instruction was based on focus on form (as defined in Section 2.2 above). In seven of the 9 focus-on-form studies positive results were recorded in learners' free production. Both of the two studies in which instruction was of the focus on forms kind (see section 2.2) showed results indicating that form-focused instruction had had no effect on learners' free language production. Ellis concludes that because of the small sample of studies that has investigated the effects of FFI on free production of a second language, "it

is not possible to reach any firm conclusions regarding the variables that have an impact on success" (2002a:232).

Despite the limited sample mentioned above, Ellis does however feel that his analysis of the eleven studies provides sufficient insight to make reasonable assumptions about other possible variables that might influence the effectiveness of form-focused instruction on free production (2002a:232). He states that the nature of the construction that is focused on, as well as the length of the treatment are important factors that determine the success of form-focused instruction. Ellis found that form-focused instruction is more successful if the focus is on simple morphological features of the target language, and if the treatment of these structures is frequent and extended over a period of time.

A further variable that has to be taken into account when looking at the findings of the studies compared by Ellis that focus on free production, is the level of the learners' ability in the target language. Ellis (2002a: 231-232) states that all the available research to date has been done on learners above beginner level, i.e. either at intermediate level or higher. How to measure beginners' implicit language is as yet not clear, which has the implication that the effect of form-focused instruction on learners' implicit knowledge which is tested in free production has not been yet been tested. It is important to note that this observation only concerns testing learners' implicit knowledge and their performance in free language production. It could, however, be argued that at beginner level learners would not be required to use much implicit knowledge or to produce much free language. The fact that the effects of form-focused instruction on beginners' implicit knowledge have not been tested need therefore not detract from the value of Ellis's research.

In contrast to the caution with which Ellis puts forward assumptions and deductions about the effectiveness of form-focused instruction on learners' implicit knowledge, he states clearly that there is "strong empirical evidence to show that FFI can affect explicit knowledge" (Ellis, 2002a:234). He holds the opinion that it is easier to teach

explicit knowledge than implicit knowledge, and that explicit knowledge could lead to the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

One of very few longitudinal studies on the effectiveness of form-focused instruction was conducted by Klapper and Rees (2003). In this study they compared over a period of four years the proficiency of two groups of university students studying German as a second language. One group received focus-on-form instruction, and the other focus-on-forms instruction. Klapper and Rees found that students who received focus-on-forms instruction showed greater gains in proficiency than students who received focus-on-form instruction. They clearly state that for classroom-based foreign language learning, where teaching takes place in a mostly first language environment, focus-on-forms produces best results (2003:304). The results of their study have led them to believe that "foreign languages are taught more efficiently and effectively when meaning-based classroom interaction in L2 is linked to focus on forms, rather than (just) focus-on-form instruction" (2003:309). They also state that "there is still a role for formal (declarative) knowledge of language in contexts where naturalistic input is limited" (2003:304).

In a more recent study Macaro and Masterman (2006) found that a short, intensive intervention consisting of explicit instruction did not lead to reduced production errors (i.e. improved accuracy) in controlled or uncontrolled production tasks. Their study supported previous research findings that more prolonged attention to form is necessary to improve accuracy. Macaro and Masterman (2006:322) argue that the results of their study does not exclude the possibility that short sessions of explicit attention to form could be beneficial if used in combination with other types of focus on form.

Viewed in totality, the above research findings do not provide definite answers as to which kind of attention to form is most effective. For this reason the researcher argues in favour of an eclectic approach to decisions about attention to form. Focus on form (in the strict meaning of the term as defined in Section 2.2 above) could be used in conjunction with short, more explicit form-focused interventions (i.e. focus

on forms). Until research provides definite answers as to whether learners' implicit or explicit knowledge should be targeted, it might be best to target both. Ellis (2002a:234) argues that explicit knowledge can lead to the subsequent acquisition of implicit knowledge, and therefore suggests that providing learners with explicit knowledge about grammatical constructions could eventually lead to them acquiring implicit knowledge through the working of the innate human categorization ability.

2.6 A typology of form-focused instruction

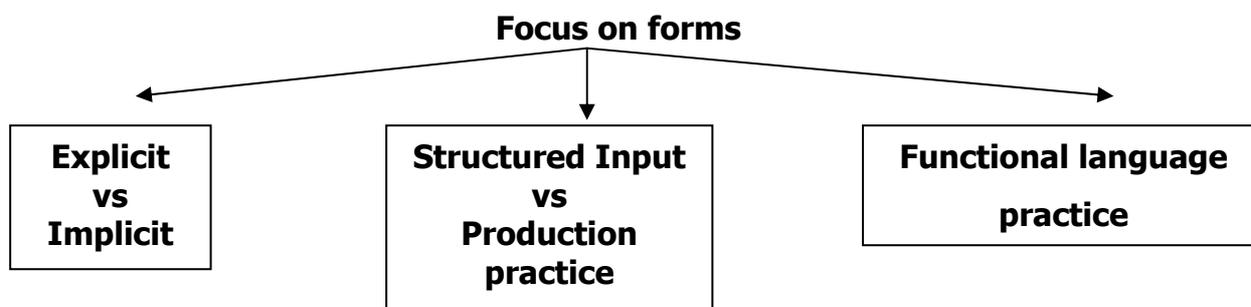
Various factors have to be taken into account when looking at the different options that are available for focusing on linguistic form in second language teaching. This section will explore the different features that make up the various options available.

Before exploring the various kinds of form-focused instruction, it is important to note that despite the numerous references to kinds of form-focused instruction found in literature, the main distinction is between treatment of form where the focus is primarily on form and treatment of form where the primary focus is on meaning.

Ellis (2001) distinguishes between three types of form-focused instruction, namely focus on forms, planned focus on form, and thirdly, incidental focus on form.

2.6.1 Focus on forms

As can be seen in the diagram below, there are three different possible options with Focus on forms.



Explicit vs. implicit focus on forms

Explicit focus on forms involves that learners' attention is drawn to a form or forms in an overt way, i.e. learners will be expected to think about a rule. The rule can be presented to the learners (a deductive presentation of the rule) or learners can be supplied with input containing examples of the rule, from which they must arrive at the rule themselves (an inductive treatment).

Implicit attention to form involves that learners memorize certain pieces of language that contain a linguistic form or rule, or that they infer a rule from input provided, without them being aware of exactly what the rule is that they are learning. The distinguishing factor therefore is that with implicit focus on forms, learners will not be aware of the form or rule that they are learning.

Structured input vs. production practice

Ellis (2001:19) considers structured input to be merely another way of teaching a structural syllabus. With this approach, input is provided in such way that it provides abundant opportunities for learners to notice the structure being focused on. The input is presented in such a way that learners' attention will be focused on form, rather than meaning.

Functional language practice

With this type of focus on forms, learners are provided with material that provides them with opportunities to practice target linguistic forms as they manifest in language functions. Language functions are typically identified according to a particular communicative situation or context. Hence, this approach is also referred to as the situational or contextual approach. Although, with the recreation of a communicative situation or context, ample opportunities are provided for focusing on meaning, the primary focus of functional language practice remains on the form. Learners are made aware of the forms they are expected to focus on (Ellis 2001:20).

2.6.2 Planned focus on form

Ellis (2001:20) identifies two types of planned focus on form, namely enriched input and focused communicative tasks.

Enriched input

Enriched input uses input that has been carefully modified with the aim that learners will notice the target forms in the input. Enriched input is similar to structured input (discussed above), but it differs because with enriched input the input is structured in such a way that learners are expected to focus mostly on meaning.

Ellis mentions two ways to enrich input, namely input flood and input enhancement. Input flood is achieved when input is purposefully enriched with numerous examples of target forms, but without any means of drawing learners' attention to the forms that are being targeted. The rationale with input flood is that acquisition will take place because of frequent exposure to targeted forms, and, by implication, that negative input is not necessary for acquisition to take place.

Input enhancement

Input enhancement is similar to enriched input, but with the important difference that with input enhancement there will be some means of drawing learners' attention to the form being focused on. This is achieved by simple mechanisms such as highlighting the targeted forms in texts. Input enhancement will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4 of this study.

Focused communicative tasks

Focused communicative tasks are the kind of tasks that have become widely used since the advent of the task-based approach to second language teaching. (See Chapter 3 of this study for a discussion of task-based second language teaching.) According to Ellis (2001:21) the aim with focused communicative tasks is to provide opportunities for learners to produce a particular target form. This is done by designing tasks around a communicative setting that is typically based on real-world events. The crucial element of focused communicative tasks is that while performing

the tasks, learners' attention should be focused on meaning and not form. Acquisition of target forms is considered incidental, and not the intended purpose as is the case with functional language teaching. Ellis states that the distinction between focused communicative tasks and functional language teaching lies in the perspective that with the former learners see language as a tool which can be used to communicate in a near real-world communicative situation. With functional language teaching the perspective falls more heavily on the language and on the particular form or forms that need to be dealt with in order to complete an activity successfully.

A slightly different approach to planned focus on form within the context of communicative tasks is proposed by Ortega (1999). Ortega uses the term '**planning**' to refer to focus on form which takes place during time set aside before the start of the communicative activity. She views planning as a "pedagogical manipulation" which is used with the aim of providing learners with an opportunity to focus on the formal aspects of the second language which might be needed for the successful completion of the communicative task which is to follow (Ortega, 1999:110). The rationale for adopting (pre-task) planning is that focusing learners' attention on linguistic form before they engage in a communicative task will lessen the cognitive load during the activity, and provide better opportunity for learners to pay attention to speech production while performing the task.

Ortega's notion of planning during focus on form differs from that discussed above in the sense that with her kind of planning the decision about which forms should receive attention as well as the extent of the attention is left to the learners. She therefore sees this kind of focus on form as learner-initiated and learner-regulated. These characteristics of planning are seen to be important because greater learner involvement may result in learners noticing the gaps between their own interlanguage and the target language. The argument is that with teacher-initiated planned focus on form, the teacher may not be aware of the gaps that need to receive attention. Ortega believes that if learners are given the opportunity to negotiate the forms that they consider important for their present level of

interlanguage development, the attention paid to form is likely to be more beneficial to learners' language development.

2.6.3 Incidental Focus on form

Two kinds of incidental focus on form have been identified: pre-emptive and reactive (Ellis, 2001:22).

Pre-emptive focus on form

During pre-emptive focus on form the teacher or the learners decide to turn the attention away from a communicative activity to focus conversation on linguistic form for a short while before resuming the (otherwise meaning-focused) communicative activity. This kind of focus on form is referred to by Ellis et al. (2002b) as unfocused tasks.

With this kind of focus on form the shift of attention away from communication to linguistic structure is pre-empted by the teacher or the learners, and is therefore not the result of an error in production that has occurred or of a problem with meaning that has been encountered. With pre-emptive focus on form either the teacher or the learners feel a need for clarification around some or other structural point, in order to facilitate understanding of the meaning-focused activity that will follow.

Examples of pre-emptive focus on form would be if the teacher overtly asked the learners if they were experiencing any problems that are form related and if the teacher verbalized a grammatical rule. Further examples would be if the teacher used metalingual terminology to explain a grammatical point and also if the teacher asked the students to verbalize grammatical rules.

Ellis et al. (2002b:427) state that pre-emptive focus on form can be **conversational** or **didactic** in nature. Conversational pre-emptive focus on form takes place when the teacher or the learners initiate focus on form that has arisen because of a communicative need. According to Ellis et al. this kind of focus on form is rare, as opposed to didactic pre-empted focus on form which occurs frequently. During

didactic pre-empted focus on form, the teacher or the learners interrupt the otherwise communicative activity to focus on linguistic structure. The form that is being focused on, then becomes the topic of discussion.

Students will choose to interrupt the communicative flow to focus on form if there is a self-perceived gap in their knowledge of a particular linguistic feature. Teachers will choose to interrupt an otherwise meaning-centered activity if they feel that a particular form will cause students difficulty during the rest of the activity.

Ellis (2001:23) states that very little research has to date been done about the effectiveness of pre-emptive focus on form, but refers to a study by Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2002) which found that pre-emptive focus on form occurred as often as reactive focus on form.

Reactive focus on form

Reactive focus on form takes place when the teacher provides negative feedback to actual or perceived errors made by the learners (Ellis 2001:23). The nature of the feedback can vary from implicit to explicit negative feedback. (See Section 2.2.7 below for a detailed discussion of the role of feedback in Focus on form.)

Ellis et al. (2002b:423) distinguish between conversational and didactic reactive focus on form. **Conversational reactive focus on form** happens when a linguistic error made by the student leads to a communication problem, to which the teacher responds by engaging the student in negotiation of meaning.

Conversational reactive focus on form can be achieved by means of requests for confirmation or requests for clarification. The teacher can negotiate meaning by requesting confirmation from the student, who typically repeats the problematic item or phrase with or without reformulating it. With requests for clarification, negotiation of meaning is achieved because the learner has to first figure out why the teacher is not understanding the utterance, and then come up with a way to reformulate the utterance in such a way that the teacher will understand. Ellis et al. (2002b: 424)

are of the opinion that requests for clarification are more challenging for the learner than requests for confirmation. With the latter, the student need often merely repeat the utterance, and reformulation is only necessary if it becomes apparent that the teacher has not understood correctly. In the case of requests for clarification, the learner has to grasp why there is a problem with communication and then also decide how to reformulate the utterance in such a way that the teacher understands what the intended meaning of the utterance was, so that communication can resume.

Didactic reactive focus on form occurs when the teacher chooses to react to an error in linguistic form that a learner has made even though the error has not led to communication problems during conversation. Ellis et al. (2002b:424) calls this kind of error treatment a "pedagogic 'time-out'" and state that this kind of focus on form is found more often in adult second language classrooms than conversational reactive focus on form.

When investigating the different options that are available for the treatment of linguistic form in the second language classroom, it is important to note that often the distinction between one option and another lies only in the perspective of the teacher. Reference is often made to whether treatment of form is done implicitly or explicitly. These two terms should be seen as representing opposite sides of a continuum. The perspective of the teacher will determine where on this continuum his or her treatment of form would be placed. Reference was made to explicit vs. implicit focus on forms at the beginning of this section. It should be noted, however, that this distinction does not only apply to focus on forms, but also to the other kinds of treatment of form that have been mentioned in this section. Implicit vs. explicit feedback will be discussed in the section on the role of feedback in focus on form below.

Ellis (2001:16) also distinguishes between intensive and extensive treatment of form in the second language classroom. Intensive treatment of form is typically found in planned focus on form, because in this type of form treatment one or two

preselected forms are focused on many times. Extensive focus on form is likely to occur in incidental focus on form, because here the teacher or the learners could draw the attention to a variety of constructions that may occur during the course of a communicative activity.

Learner generated focus on form

Yet another variable that needs to be taken into account when trying to form an understanding of the treatment of form in the second language classroom is that of the initiator of the focus on form. As mentioned above, the teacher as well as the learners can initiate attention to form.

Williams (2001a) conducted extensive research about learner-generated attention to form. She found that learners do attend to form spontaneously, but not very often. Williams's study showed that the higher the learners' level of proficiency, the more likely they were to focus on form spontaneously. A possible explanation for this could be that beginner learners find processing data in the target language more difficult, and that they therefore prioritize meaning over form during communicative activities. Williams offers as a possible explanation for this that beginner learners may not focus on form as often as more advanced learners because they may not notice as many formal aspects of the target language as more advanced learners would. Beginner learners' interlanguage may still be too far removed from the target language for them to become aware of problems with structure.

Williams also found that learners prefer asking the teacher for assistance with issues of form, rather than other learners. Regarding the kind of form that learners choose to focus on when they generate attention to form, Williams found that about 80% of learner-initiated episodes of focus on form were lexical in nature. This included requests for information about the meaning of lexical items, information about the correct form of a word, its pronunciation and also its spelling.

Given the above array of different types of attention to form, the question arises as to what would be the ideal type. Given the limited research conducted to date about

the effectiveness of the various methods (see Section 2.5 above), it appears that at present research cannot provide a clear answer to this question. Until research can produce a clear indication of the ideal kind of form-focused instruction, the researcher recommends an eclectic approach, with different options evaluated and chosen to best suit each individual situation.

2.7 The role of feedback in focus on form

As discussed earlier, many linguists hold the opinion that second language learners need to be given negative input in addition to positive input in the second language. The argument is that negative input, or feedback, will enable learners to distinguish between correct and incorrect usage of linguistic forms. One way of providing learners with negative input is by providing them with feedback about ungrammatical usage.

Feedback can form an important part of focus on form. If the focus on form does not take place in a planned or pre-emptive manner (as discussed in the previous section), it will typically take the form of feedback given by the teacher once an error has been made by a learner. Feedback of this kind, is also referred to in literature as 'corrective feedback'. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (2001) cite the work of Lyster and Ranta, who distinguished six kinds of feedback.

In the first instance, the teacher can supply **explicit correction** of the error that has been made. The teacher tells the learner that an error has been made and supplies the correct form. Secondly, **recasts** can be used. Recasts entail that the teacher supplies a more implicit correction by reformulating the student's utterance, partly or in full. A third method of providing feedback proposed by Lyster and Ranta is that of **clarification requests**. With this kind of feedback, the teacher requests clarification from the learner by using phrases such as "Khawuphinde? (Say that again?)". The teacher can also provide the learner with **metalinguistic feedback**, by commenting on the well-formedness of a student utterance, or by asking questions in this regard. Another kind of feedback can be if the teacher asks the

learner directly to reformulate an utterance, referred to by Lyster and Ranta as **elicitation**. The sixth and last kind of feedback proposed by Lyster and Ranta is that of **repetition**. With this kind of feedback the teacher repeats the learner's incorrect utterance and uses intonation to draw attention to the learner's error.

A study conducted by Ellis et al. (2001) showed that 55% of the incidences of feedback were in the form of recasts. A possible explanation for the large incidence of recasts could be that teachers prefer this kind of feedback because of its non-interventionist nature. By implicitly reformulating a learner utterance that contained a linguistic error, the teacher can provide the learner with the necessary feedback without causing too much interference to the communicative flow of the activity.

Ellis et al. (2001) also refer to a later work by Ranta in which a distinction is made between two kinds of recasts, namely isolated recasts and incorporated recasts. With isolated recasts the teacher reformulates the learner's incorrect utterance without adding any further meaning. In the case of incorporated recasts, the teacher adds meaning and incorporates the learner's utterance into a larger utterance.

A negative aspect of feedback, mentioned by Ellis et al., is that learners may find it difficult to recognize which part of an utterance, and which linguistic feature of a specific part of an utterance, the teacher is trying to correct. In their efforts not to disturb the communicative flow of an activity, teachers might give too little information about the part of the utterance that needs correction as well as about why the utterance was not correct. If the learner perceives the feedback as unclear, it may cause an interruption in the communicative flow of the activity because the learner might have to request further clarification in order to understand the feedback.

If the teacher wants to ensure that he does not draw the attention away from meaning during a communicative activity, he could use a method that is known as 'camouflaged repair' (Ellis et al. 2001:289). This can be achieved in two ways: the

teacher can simply produce the correct form without making a negative comment or explicitly stating that a mistake had been made, or secondly, by providing the correction without placing any emphasis on the structure that is being corrected through the use of pitch, volume or decreased speech tempo.

Research about the effectiveness of explicit feedback in focus on form compared to implicit feedback has produced conflicting results. Ellis (2001:9) mentions studies by Carroll, Swain and Roberge, and Carroll and Swain which found that explicit feedback was more effective. More recent studies have, however, shown that implicit feedback in the form of recasts can also have a positive effect on acquisition. In the light of these conflicting results it might be good to expose learners to both types of feedback.

2.8 Uptake

The term 'uptake' refers to the corrected language that learners use after they had become aware of an error in a recent utterance. This is an important aspect when considering the effectiveness of focus on form. Although successful uptake is not considered to be proof that acquisition has taken place, it is seen as a step in the direction of acquisition. Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2002) quote Lightbown in this regard: "A reformulated utterance from the learner gives some reason to believe that the mismatch between learner utterance and target utterance has been noticed, a step at least toward acquisition."

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) refer to other authors who have used the term 'uptake' with different intended meanings. Allwright used the term to refer to "what learners are able to report learning during or at the end of a lesson". Ellis et al. (2001:285) also refer to the work of Lyster and Ranta, who have used the term 'uptake' to refer to "learners' response to feedback they receive from teachers on their efforts to communicate".

The definition proposed by Ellis et al. (2001:285) is similar to that of Lyster and Ranta, except that Ellis et al. use the term in a broader sense. They view uptake as an optional student move that "occurs in episodes where learners have demonstrated a gap in their knowledge". They see uptake as occurring in reaction to preceding input that the learner has received about a linguistic feature, but they do not consider the provision of feedback as a prerequisite for uptake to take place. Ellis et al. see uptake as being successful if the learner understands the linguistic feature in question or if the learner is able to use the feature correctly. Uptake is not seen as a prerequisite for acquisition, but Ellis et al. propose that uptake may facilitate acquisition.

Ellis et al. (2001:287) offer two arguments as theoretical grounds as to why uptake may contribute to acquisition. In the first instance, uptake is seen as a kind of "practice" opportunity for learners to use the specific linguistic feature after their attention had been drawn to the feature, or after they themselves had become aware of the feature. Because uptake provides learners with a "practice" opportunity it may facilitate automatizing the use of the particular linguistic feature. Secondly, Ellis et al. draw on the work of Swain who has argued that it is insufficient for the teacher to only provide comprehensible input. Swain advocates providing opportunities for the learners to give "pushed output", which is vitally important because in order to produce pushed output the learner is forced to "process syntactically rather than semantically". The fact that learners have to improve on forms that they had used incorrectly earlier, or forms about which they had received feedback, is seen as providing opportunity for learners to produce pushed output.

Ellis et al. (2001) distinguish various kinds of uptake according to different types of form-focused episodes.

Responding form-focused episodes:

In this kind of episode one of the participants (typically the teacher) responds to an utterance produced by another participant (typically the learner) because the utterance contained some or other linguistic error or because the meaning was not clear.

1) Acknowledgement:

In this kind of uptake the participant who produced the utterance that gave rise to the form-focused episode acknowledges receiving the feedback, either by merely saying *yes* or by giving a non-verbal indicating such as nodding.

2) Repair:

Uptake in the form of repair is found when the participant who produced the utterance that lead to the form-focused episode manages to produce the problematic feature correctly after receiving feedback from the other participant(s).

3) Needs Repair:

The participant whose incorrect use of the targeted form triggered the form-focused episode, produces the utterance incorrectly again after receiving feedback.

Student-initiated and teacher-initiated form-focused episodes:

In student-initiated form-focused episodes the learner initiates focus on a particular form, typically by asking a question about the form involved, while with teacher-initiated episodes it is the teacher who focuses the learners' attention on a specific linguistic feature that is perceived as being problematic for the learners.

1) Recognition:

The learner recognizes that an error has been made and acknowledges the feedback received from the teacher or another learner.

2) Application:

The learner uses the information received in the form of feedback and attempts to correct the error by reformulating the original erroneous utterance.

3) Needs application:

The learner attempts to correct the error, but does not succeed in producing a correct utterance because of a lack of application of the information received during feedback.

The results of a study conducted by Ellis et al. (2001) showed that form-focused episodes involving a teacher were more frequent than interactions between learners. Another important finding was that uptake was found to be more successful in instances where the learners focused on linguistic features that they themselves considered important and also in cases where the learners had ample opportunity to negotiate form.

2.9 The issue of timing in Focus on form

Apart from the question about *how* focus on form should be implemented in the second language classroom, the question of *when* also needs attention. The timing of focus on form is important because for it to be maximally effective, focus on form needs to be provided at a time during a lesson when learners are cognitively ready to process this kind of input. Doughty (2001) proposes four options for the inclusion of focus on form, namely simultaneous attention to form, meaning and use, focus on form in advance, shifts of attention during processing, and immediately contingent focus on form.

Simultaneous attention to form

This option entails that attention to form be given to the learners during a communicative activity, at exactly the time that they need to focus on form in order to complete the activity successfully. Focusing on form during a communicative activity, does, however, have the implication that learners will be expected to focus on the structural aspects of language while at the same time processing meaning and language usage. Given the fact that humans have a limited processing ability, and given that fact that (especially) beginner learners tend to prioritize meaning over form (as discussed earlier) it would appear that this option for incorporating attention to form is unlikely to yield the best results. Focusing on form during a communicative activity could also interrupt the activity and lead to a breakdown in the communicative flow of the activity.

Focus on form in advance

The rationale behind this option is that learners should be given some information in advance about the structural aspects of the target language that they are likely to encounter during the communicative activity that is to follow (Doughty, 2001:250). The reasoning here is that it would be beneficial to give learners some "advance organizers" that will help them to recognise the language features that they are likely to encounter in the communicative activity (Doughty, 2001:250).

Doughty proposes two possibilities for how this focus-in-advance could be conducted. Firstly, brief and explicit grammar lessons could be used to alert learners to linguistic features that they can then recall when involved in the subsequent meaning-focused activity. The purpose of an explicit grammar lesson immediately prior to the activity would be to provide the learners with forms that will then be stored in their short-term memories for retrieval as needed during the meaning-based activity following the grammar instruction. Doughty does, however, point out that it has not been proven through research that learners can utilize metalinguistic information during activities that require simultaneous attention to form, meaning and usage.

A second possibility is that the teacher can establish thorough declarative knowledge about one or more constructions prior to their inclusion in a communicative activity. This proposal is in line with the skill-acquisition model known as the Adaptive Control of Thought Theory (see DeKeyser, 2001:132), according to which knowledge starts off as declarative knowledge, then goes through a phase of proceduralization, and finally through a stage during which proceduralized knowledge is refined until the learner achieves optimal performance. The idea is to give learners declarative knowledge of one or more linguistic features during a brief, explicit grammar lesson and then to provide opportunity for learners to proceduralize their declarative knowledge during communicative activities.

Another possibility for advance preparation mentioned by Doughty (2001) is that instead of focusing on specific linguistic features that learners are likely to come

across in an upcoming activity, learners could be orientated to the event structure of an upcoming task.

Doughty points out that the effects of focus on form in advance as well as event structure orientation have as yet not been tested in second language research (2001:251).

Shifts of attention during processing

Doughty (2001:250) states that in terms of learners' cognitive ability it has been proven that learners can shift their attention briefly away from the main language processing task. She refers to studies in which it has been proven that learners can recall input that was supplied while they were busy processing another, main task. Learners can, for example, read a text while listening to very brief pieces of input such as single words being played over headphones. Her discussion of how this kind of attention to form will benefit learners' performance is, however, vague and no indication is given of how this can be achieved with beginner learners, who can for instance not be given a long text to read.

Immediately contingent focus on form

Providing learners with immediately contingent focus on form entails that learners be given corrective feedback immediately after an error was made. This option appears plausible from a cognitive point of view because it is generally accepted that learners have the cognitive ability to retain a recent utterance in their working memory. Doughty (2001:253) argues in favour of this option for focus on form because it seems probable that learners will be able to successfully compare corrective feedback received immediately after an incorrect utterance has been spoken, with the original utterance. In this way learners will be able to notice differences between their own incorrect utterances and the corrective feedback provided by the teacher. Noticing the differences between the two sets of information will then enable learners to make changes to their interlanguage.

Given the fact that none of the above suggestions about the timing of focus on form has been tested in second language classrooms, and that there is no conclusion as to which option might produce the best results, it might be best to suggest that a combination of the different options be employed.

2.10 Metalanguage in focus on form

In the preceding sections focus-on-form has been investigated in detail and various aspects of focus on form have been elucidated. In this section the actual language used by teachers and learners during form-focused episodes will be discussed.

Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis (2002) state that very little research has been done to determine the extent to which metalanguage is used in episodes of form focus in second language teaching. Most of the studies that have been conducted concentrated on the use of metalanguage in focus-on-forms instruction. The use of grammatical terminology in the second language classroom is a controversial issue. Many second language teachers and linguists who promote communicative second language teaching are not in favour of using grammatical terminology, even during brief sessions of focus on form within otherwise meaning-focused activities.

Basturkmen et al. (2002) conducted a study in which they investigated the use of metalanguage by learners and teachers in both pre-emptive form-focused episodes and reactive form-focused episodes, which were of a true focus-on-form nature, i.e. the main focus of the activity was meaning focused. They also investigated the relationship between the use of metalanguage and uptake (see Section 2.8) for a discussion of uptake). The aim of the research was to determine whether the use of metalanguage led to successful uptake.

The results of their study indicated that metalanguage was used in 32% of form-focused episodes. This figure can however not be used to generalize about the use of metalanguage in second language teaching because of the limited scale of the study. Ellis et al. found that the majority (64%) of cases where metalanguage was used, the form-focused episode was initiated by the teacher. Eighty seven percent

of the incidences of metalanguage occurred during pre-emptive episodes of focus on form, with only 13% occurring during reactive focus on form.

Regarding the relationship between metalanguage and uptake, Basturkmen et al. (2002:9) found that there was "no significant relationship between metalanguage and uptake in reactive focus on form and teacher-initiated focus on form". They did find a significant relationship between the use of metalanguage and uptake in learner-initiated focus on form. This implies that learner-initiated focus on form where metalanguage was used "was more likely to contain uptake". It would therefore appear that metalanguage could be an important tool at learners' disposal for the initiation of classroom discourse about linguistic form. Basturkmen et al. state that the metalanguage need not be of a very technical nature for learners to benefit from its use.

Even though the above-mentioned study by Basturkmen et al. was conducted on a relatively small scale, the findings are significant. The significant relationship found between the use of metalanguage and uptake in learner-initiated language could be an indication of the important role that metalanguage could play in form-focused instruction. Providing learners with basic, non-technical grammar terminology could help learners to distinguish different grammatical features more clearly. Being able to distinguish between different features will make those features more explicit to the learners, which could promote noticing of the features in subsequent input, which could in turn lead to acquisition.

2.11 Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to give an overview of the main issues found in current literature about the inclusion of attention to linguistic form in instructed second language acquisition. It was illustrated that one of the main debates in the literature is about whether attention to form should be of the focus-on-form or the focus-on-forms kind. This debate essentially evolves around the issue of whether attention to linguistic form will affect learners' explicit or implicit knowledge of the structural

aspects of the language they are learning. This will be discussed further in Section 3.2.6 of Chapter 3 of this study.

It was also demonstrated that theoretical motivation for both types of attention to form exist and that research findings, limited though they might be, have been offered to support both approaches. Because focus on form and focus on forms do not represent opposite ends of a continuum, the two approaches do not have to be mutually exclusive. Instead of deciding on a single approach, course designers and second language teachers can choose to incorporate a selection of methodological options for focusing learners attention on form. Various methodological options were discussed in Section 2.6 of this chapter.

In the context in which this study is undertaken (investigating options for attention to form in a specific purposes course for student teachers learning isiXhosa as a third language) the researcher argues in favour of an eclectic approach to the inclusion of attention to form. The structure of isiXhosa (being an African language) differs vastly from that of the students' first and second languages, i.e. English and Afrikaans, both of which are European languages. (Afrikaans developed from seventeenth century Dutch.) For this reason, viewed on a continuum, more explicit attention to form, i.e. focus on forms is advocated, especially for beginner learners. Attention to linguistic form of the focus-on-form kind can, however, also be used with beginners and then gradually increased as learners' proficiency increases. This view is supported by Klapper and Rees (mentioned in Section 2.5), who clearly state that for classroom-based foreign language learning, where teaching takes place in a mostly first language environment, focus-on-forms produces best results (2003:304).

Apart from decisions about whether attention to form should be handled explicitly or more covertly, successful course design also requires decisions about a number of other related issues. For example: How should the forms that are to be focused on be identified? How can focus on form be incorporated into a task-based approach to second language teaching? What role can computers play in facilitating attention to

linguistic form? How are decisions about focus on form accommodated in course design? These issues will be addressed in the chapters that follow.

CHAPTER 3

TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING AND LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide an overview of current literature on task-based language teaching (TBLT) and will investigate issues involved in the design of a specific purposes language course. The section on task-based language teaching and learning draws extensively on the work of Rod Ellis (2003b), which is considered seminal in the field. This source is the most extensive, current publication available on task-based language teaching and learning. Ellis's discussion of and proposals for task-based language teaching is based on the work of other influential applied linguists, and as such provides an exhaustive overview of the research that has shaped the development of this field.

Section 3.2 below is dedicated to task-based language teaching and learning, while language for specific purposes (LSP) is investigated in Section 3.3. Section 3.2.1 compares various definitions for task-based language teaching and learning. In Section 3.2.2 TBLT is discussed in relation to other approaches to second language teaching. The rationale for adopting a task-based approach is discussed in Section 3.2.3, while Section 3.2.4 is devoted to a classification of the different types of tasks. In Section 3.2.5 various proposals for the grading and sequencing of tasks are reviewed. The incorporation of focus on form is discussed in Section 3.2.6. In Section 3.2.7 mention is made of task-based syllabus design, but this issue will only be addressed in Chapter 5 of this study. Different options for the design of a task-based methodology are reviewed in Section 3.2.8. The final section about TBLT, Section 3.2.9, is devoted to assessment in task-based language teaching.

In Section 3.3 different issues in the field of language for specific purposes are investigated. Section 3.3.1 compares various definitions of the term 'language for

specific purposes' and in Section 3.3.2 different theories of language learning that inform LSP are reviewed. The role of needs analysis in LSP is discussed in Section 3.3.3. In Section 3.3.4 the importance of discourse analysis, speech acts and genre analysis in LSP is investigated. LSP methodology is reviewed in Section 3.3.5, while various issues related to LSP course design are discussed in Section 3.3.6. After some concluding remarks about LSP in Section 3.3.7, the chapter is concluded in Section 3.4.

3.2 Task-based Language Teaching and Learning

Since the 1990s task-based language teaching has gained recognition by applied linguists and language teachers alike, and has since developed into an influential field of research. Task-based language teaching is considered a valuable theoretical construct in that its study informs course and syllabus design, as well as classroom methodology (Ellis, 2003b).

3.2.1 Defining Task-based Language Teaching

The notion of 'task' in second language teaching was first explored in the mid 1980s. Widespread criticism of synthetic syllabuses (which use linguistic structures, language notions and functions, as well as topics and situations as units of design) lead to the exploration of 'task' as the ideal unit for designing second language syllabuses (Long and Crookes, 1993).

Since the mid 1980s various definitions have been put forward for the concept 'task'. This section will give an overview of some of the definitions that have appeared in literature, with the aim of providing insight into what task-based language teaching entails and what developments have taken place over the past twenty years.

One of the earlier definitions of 'task' is that of Long (1985), here cited from Long & Crookes (1993:39):

A task is "a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, ..., finding a street destination and helping someone across a road. In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people *do* in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between. Tasks are the things people will tell you to do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists."

This everyday, non-technical definition of 'task' does not specify that language use is compulsory for the completion of a task (e.g. painting a fence), nor does it make reference to language learning or teaching. For these reasons Long's definition was discarded as not being particularly useful for use in the field of language teaching. Various authors have attempted to give more technical definitions of what a 'task' in language teaching is. Richards, Platt and Weber (1985), cited from Nunan, 1989, define 'task' as:

"... an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language. [] A task may or may not involve the production of language. [] The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative ... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake."

This definition by Richards, Platt and Weber does contain reference to language teaching, but was still considered too broad in that it does not define 'task' as being a construct which is exclusive to language teaching and learning. This aspect was addressed in the following definition by Breen (1987), quoted from Nunan (1989):

"any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning."

Nunan (1989) uses the term 'communicative task' as synonymous with 'task' and defines it as:

"... a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form."

Nunan's definition introduces a very important aspect of 'task' – that of the focus on meaning rather than linguistic form. Another definition in which the emphasis on meaning is evident is that of Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001), cited in Ellis (2003b:5). Bygate, Skehan and Swain define 'task' as:

"... an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective."

The emphasis on meaning is also found in the following definition by Skehan (1996), cited in Ellis (2003b):

A task "is an activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some sort of relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome".

Skehan's definition introduces the notion that tasks, as performed in the language classroom, should have some relationship to the real world. Long and Crookes (1993:39) distinguish between 'real world target tasks' and 'pedagogic tasks'. Real world target tasks are the tasks that learners would want to perform outside the classroom, in the real world. Pedagogic tasks are the tasks designed for classroom use with the aim of providing learners with the language they will need to perform real world target tasks. The relationship between classroom tasks and real world tasks, as well as the focus on meaning in task performance (referred to above) will be discussed in more detail in Section 3.2.3 below, which will investigate the rationale for task-based language teaching.

Yet a further definition of 'task' is that of Prabhu (1987) cited here from Ellis (2003b:4). Prabhu's definition makes reference to the cognitive processes that are involved when performing a task:

A task is "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process".

Ellis (2003b) maintains that the numerous definitions that have been proposed for 'task' reflect various dimensions that are focused on by the various authors. Firstly, definitions vary in terms of scope. Long's definition above is clearly wide in scope, while that of Nunan is a much narrower definition. Another dimension, which Ellis identifies in the definitions, is authenticity. The tasks listed in Long's definition are clearly authentic tasks, i.e. tasks that can be performed outside the classroom. Skehan's definition cited above does not list specific examples of tasks, but states that tasks should have "some sort of relationship to the real world".

Ellis (2003b:5) points out that the definitions of 'task' vary in terms of perspective, i.e. some definitions are written from the perspective of the language learner, while most are written from the perspective of the task designer. Breen's definition mentions a "structured language learning endeavour" and "a range of work plans", while others refer to "a piece of classroom work" and "an activity".

A common feature of the definitions of 'task' cited above is that tasks must result in a clear outcome, apart from the language use required to perform the task. This aspect is also emphasized by the focus on meaning rather than linguistic form (mentioned earlier), which is also a common feature in definitions of 'task'. The fact that 'tasks' have a clear outcome, together with the fact that tasks are meaning focused, is important because these features are what distinguish tasks from 'exercises'. The latter are activities that have a language focus only.

Ellis (2003b:16) proposes the following definition of 'task':

"A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in

the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes." Ellis's definition incorporates a number of critical features of a 'task' (Ellis, 2003b:9). Firstly, as in the definition by Breen cited above, Ellis approaches 'task' from the perspective of the course or materials designer, calling it a "workplan". Secondly, Ellis considers meaning to be the main focus of a task. Tasks aim to engage learners in communicating real meaning, and not merely to use language for the sake of producing and displaying target language features. In the third instance, Ellis also includes reference to the fact that tasks should bear some resemblance to activities that are performed in the real world. This is what Skehan in his definition (see above) refers to as "some sort of relationship to the real world". The fourth feature of 'task' that Ellis includes in his definition, is the "clearly defined communicative outcome" that tasks should have (Ellis, 2003b:10). He states that tasks should include details about the goal of the activity. These goals should be in line with the real-world focus of the tasks. Ellis also includes in his definition reference to the cognitive processes that are involved in the performing of a task. He mentions "selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning, and evaluating information" as examples of the cognitive processes that could be utilized in task performance (2003b:10). Lastly, Ellis's definition states clearly that all four language skills could be targeted in tasks: "productive or receptive, and oral or written skills".

The definition proposed by Ellis (2003b:16) quoted above, will be adopted for use in this study. The real-world focus that Ellis proposes all tasks should have (as mentioned in the third and fourth characteristics in the previous paragraph) makes this definition ideal for adoption in a specific purposes curriculum. The use of tasks in an LSP curriculum will be reviewed in Section 3.3 below.

3.2.2 Task-based language teaching and second language teaching

Since the 1970s the communicative approach to language teaching has become widely accepted as the most effective option available, especially for second and foreign language teaching and learning. The rationale behind communicative

language teaching is that learners will acquire a language if they are encouraged to communicate in the language in real communication situations. Learners are not merely provided with information about the language, but rather with opportunities to use the language itself. Over the years many different versions of communicative language teaching, manifesting in the use of different classroom techniques and activities, have been developed. The use of tasks is one of the options that have been adopted, leading to the development of a task-based approach to language teaching. This section will investigate the role of task-based language teaching within the broader context of communicative second language teaching.

The terms "weak" and "strong" are used to describe the opposite ends of the continuum that represents the different approaches to communicative language teaching. Weak communicative language teaching is considered to be not too far removed from more traditional approaches. Ellis (2003b:28) sees weak communicative language teaching as "interventionist and analytic". The proponents of this end of the continuum believe that the different components that make up communicative competence can be isolated from one another and taught separately. Functional and notional syllabuses are typical examples of weak communicative language teaching. These two syllabus types entail that language functions and notions are identified, taught in isolation, and that learners are then later helped to acquire the whole language system through communicative activities. Strong communicative language teaching, on the other hand, is non-analytic in the sense that this approach does not identify specific structures to be taught individually. Instead, learners are exposed to the whole language system by means of communication activities. The strong end of the communicative language teaching continuum is considered by Ellis (2003b:29) to be "non-interventionist and holistic". Ellis also states that Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach, as well as task-based language teaching are examples of strong communicative language teaching. On the continuum spanning from more traditional, analytical approaches to second language teaching (e.g. functional and notional syllabuses) to the more recent, non-interventionist approaches, task-based second language teaching therefore is at the latter end.

The terms "strong" and "weak" have also been applied to describe the extent to which task-based instruction is utilized in the communicative approach to second language teaching. According to Skehan (1996:39) weak forms of task-based instruction can be much similar to general communicative language teaching. Weaker versions of task-based instruction use task as an integral part of instruction, but tasks may be preceded and/or followed by focused instruction. Skehan cites Littlewood in maintaining that weak versions of task-based instruction could amount to the traditional presentation, practice, production sequence, with tasks featuring in the production phase. Weaker versions of task-based instruction could then be placed close to the middle of the strong-weak continuum of communicative language teaching, or perhaps on the strong side of the middle of this continuum. Skehan states that strong versions of task-based instruction entail that tasks are "the *unit* of language teaching, and that everything else should be subsidiary" (1996:39). Strong versions of task-based instruction would use task as the unit of syllabus design and instruction. The rationale behind strong versions of task-based instruction is that the communication and especially the negotiation of meaning that occurs during task performance will provide learners with sufficient opportunity to develop their interlanguage, and eventually to acquire the target language. Strong versions of task-based instruction will thus be placed on the strong end of the communicative language teaching continuum.

Ellis (2003b:28) uses the terms "task-supported language teaching" and "task-based language teaching" as synonyms for "weak" and "strong" task-based instruction.

3.2.3 Rationale for Task-based Language Teaching

Over the past twenty years task-based syllabuses have been adopted in many second and foreign language teaching settings in reaction to other syllabus types that were considered as not being optimally successful. The current section will give a brief overview of the main reasons why other, more traditional syllabus types have been rejected, and of the rationale for the adoption of task-based syllabuses.

Traditional syllabus types are collectively known as 'synthetic' or 'interventionist' syllabuses (Long & Crookes, 1993) or 'linguistic' syllabuses (Ellis, 2003b). **Structural syllabuses** consisted of lists of linguistic structures. These structures were typically graded and presented to learners in order of increasing complexity, typically one construction at a time due to the belief (at the time) that linguistic constructions are acquired additively, one at a time. This kind of syllabus often resulted in learners acquiring knowledge about the language, without being able to use the language itself. The focus was on the structures that had to be acquired, rather than on communication.

Dissatisfaction with the results obtained using structural syllabuses led to the development of **Functional and Notional** syllabuses. These syllabuses consisted of lists of language functions (e.g. greeting, complimenting, describing) and notions (e.g. time, proximity, quantity). Hence, this type of syllabus was still synthetic and interventionist, because the target language was still being divided into small units which were then presented to learners one or two at a time. Ellis (2003b:207) maintains that functional and notional syllabuses did not represent a major departure from structural syllabuses, but that they did provide a more useful way of meeting learners' communicative needs, because using functions and notions makes it possible to specify learners' needs more clearly.

Syllabuses designed using **situations and/or topics** were also developed in reaction to earlier options, e.g. structural syllabuses. These syllabus types were still considered synthetic and interventionist, because although the primary units of design were situations (e.g. at the bank) or topics (e.g. shopping), designers still resorted to listing linguistic structures or functions and notions for each situation or topic (Long & Crookes, 1993).

The above three syllabus types have been criticized widely by researchers and rejected because they have not been found to be effective in terms of learner success. They are seen to lack a thorough psycholinguistic basis in that the pre-selection of linguistic structures does not make provision for the cognitive processes believed to be involved in interlanguage development. Moving away from the pre-selection of linguistic forms, Prabhu then proposed a 'procedural syllabus', in which learning content was specified in "terms of holistic units of communication, i.e. tasks" (Ellis 2003b:208). The rationale behind Prabhu's procedural syllabus is that a second language should be taught **through** communication, and not **for** communication. This kind of syllabus lists tasks that are meaning focused, and the aim is to provide learners with communication opportunities through which they can acquire linguistic structures by means of induction. No focus on form was provided in procedural syllabuses. From Prabhu's procedural syllabus, other versions of task-based syllabuses developed over time. The term 'task-based syllabus' has become the generic term used to refer to all the different variations of syllabuses designed using 'task' as organizing principle.

An important argument in favour of the adoption of a task-based syllabus is that the use of 'tasks' is in line with what is known about the psycholinguistic processes involved in second language learning. Long & Crookes (1993) also state that the decision to adopt task as unit for syllabus design is based on the findings of second language classroom research conducted over many years, as well as on generally accepted principles of course design as developed since the advent of communicative language teaching during the 1970s. Similar arguments in favour of the adoption of

task-based syllabuses are proposed by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993). Pica et al. emphasise the role that interaction plays in language teaching and learning. Tasks are clearly ideal for providing opportunities for interaction. They also argue that tasks are the ideal tool for providing opportunities for the negotiation of meaning, which is believed to be ideal for the activation of acquisition processes.

Another argument in favour of the adoption of task as organising principle for syllabus design is that proposed by Long & Crookes (1993) who argue that tasks are the ideal tool for specifying learners' needs. They argue in favour of using "real-world target tasks" to determine what learners need to be able to communicate in the target language. Once learners' specific needs have been determined, pedagogic tasks can be designed for classroom use. Long & Crookes propose that pedagogic tasks and "other methodological options" (they don't specify what form these could take) should contain attention to linguistic code, i.e. focus on form. The role of focus on form in task-based language teaching and learning will be discussed in further detail in Section 3.2.6 below.

According to Ellis (2003b:209) the rationale for the adoption of task-based syllabuses is based on three kinds of arguments. Firstly, task-based syllabuses are advocated because from a theoretical point of view it is believed that task-based language teaching is compatible with the psycholinguistic processes involved in second language acquisition (as indicated above). The second type of argument in favour of task-based teaching is related to the level of learner involvement that is possible when using tasks, e.g. it is argued that tasks create the ideal opportunity to engage learners cognitively, and that using tasks related to real-world needs or experiences that learners may have will serve as motivation for learners. Thirdly, Ellis states that it is argued that tasks are a useful and suitable unit for specifying learners' needs, which makes tasks the ideal unit for the design of specific purposes syllabuses, which will be reviewed in Section 3.3 below.

The overview of arguments for the adoption of a task-based approach to language teaching given in this section, clearly illustrates the benefits of this approach. The theoretical basis from which this approach has developed is sound and continues to dominate research in this field. In Chapter 5 of this study further motivation will be given for why tasks are seen to create ideal opportunities for second language acquisition. It will be illustrated how, through the manipulation of the cognitive characteristics of tasks, conditions that are ideal for second language acquisition can be created.

3.2.4 Classification of task types

Over the years numerous classification systems have been proposed for the classification of task types. The present section will give a brief overview of the different types of tasks and of the different classifications.

Task classification has a number of benefits (Ellis, 2003b:211). Having access to a comprehensive classification of tasks will ensure that syllabus designers and language teachers incorporate a variety of task types in their courses, choosing from amongst the different types of tasks available. If a detailed list of task types is available it will enable teachers to select tasks that are most suitable for a particular group, and it will make it possible for teachers to systematically experiment with different task types in an attempt to determine which tasks work best in a given teaching context (Ellis, 2003b:211).

The most salient distinction between different types of tasks is the distinction between focused and unfocused tasks. Focused tasks are tasks that contain some form of attention to one or more linguistic feature. Despite the fact that focused tasks contain attention to form, they are still tasks, i.e. the main focus is still communication. Ellis (2003b) also distinguishes between focused tasks and situational grammar exercises. With focused tasks, the teacher does not make the specific linguistic focus of the task known to the learners, and the focus on form can therefore be seen as incidental. In situational grammar exercises the linguistic focus

is communicated to the learners beforehand, and the attention to form is therefore intentional. With unfocused tasks there is no planned attention to linguistic form – the aim is to encourage communication and the negotiation of meaning. The use of focus on form in task-based language teaching will be discussed in further detail in Section 3.2.6 below.

Ellis (2003b) identifies four approaches that have been used for the classification of tasks: pedagogic, rhetorical, cognitive and psycholinguistic. A brief discussion of these four classification approaches follows.

3.2.4.1 Pedagogic classification

Pedagogic classifications of tasks are based on activities or operations that learners are expected to carry out during task performance. Learners can be expected to compare, order, sort or list information, or they can be asked to solve a posed problem, to share personal experiences, and also to use a number of task types to complete several stages of a task, known as a creative task (2003b: 211-212).

3.2.4.2 Cognitive Classification

For a **cognitive** approach to task **classification** the different cognitive operations involved in performing different types of tasks are used to create a typology. Ellis (2003b:213) cites the work of Prabhu to illustrate the cognitive classification of tasks. Cognitive operations such as encoding or decoding information from or into language would be required to perform information gap tasks, which typically involve the transfer of information from one learner to another. Operations such as inference, deduction and practical reasoning will be needed to perform reasoning-gap activities, e.g. using maps of different parts of a campus to compile a single campus map. Opinion-gap tasks are a third task type which could be identified using cognitive operations as means of classification. Ellis cites the work of Prabhu in maintaining that operations such as "identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude" are involved in opinion-gap tasks. Prabhu considers the use of thought and

logic as vital for second language learning, hence his adoption of a cognitive approach to task classification.

3.2.4.3 Rhetorical Classification

A **rhetorical classification** of tasks uses "theories of rhetoric that distinguish different discourse domains in terms of their structure and linguistic properties – narrative, instructions, descriptions, reports, etc." (Ellis, 2003b:212). This type of classification is useful for specific purposes courses because it makes it possible for course designers to easily specify learners' needs in terms of the specific domains they need to acquire for later use in the target language in. Ellis (2003b:212) suggests that a more useful alternative for task classification would be the use of the concept 'genre'. The term 'genre' refers to a group of communicative events that display similar communicative purposes, structures and linguistic style, e.g. recipes, research articles, religious sermons and curricula vitae (Swales, 1990, cited in Ellis 2003b). Genre can be taught effectively through the use of tasks.

3.2.4.4 Psycholinguistic classification

A **psycholinguistic classification** of tasks aims to classify tasks "in relation to their potential for language learning" (Ellis, 2003b:214). Pica et al. (1993) propose a psycholinguistic typology of tasks based on the categories of interactant relationship, interaction requirement, goal orientation and outcome option. The effect of these categories and "their various realizations on opportunities for learners to comprehend L2 input, be given feedback on their production, and to modify their output" underlie this classification system (Pica et al., 1993:18).

The category of interactant relationship is concerned with which participant holds the information needed for task performance, and with who supplies or requests this information. If one participant holds all the information, the flow of communication is likely to be in one way only. When both participants hold information the resultant two-way flow of communication, with both parties requesting and supplying information, is believed to lead to more negotiation of meaning (Pica et al., 1993:13). This is believed to be a valuable task type. The second category

underlying the typology proposed by Pica et al. is that of interaction requirement. It is believed that a task designed in such a way that both (or all) participants are required to request and supply information will lead to more interaction. The goal orientation of a task refers to whether a task is designed to necessitate participants to work towards a single outcome (convergent goal orientation), or whether there can be more than one outcome to the task (divergent goal orientation). Pica et al. argue that tasks with a convergent goal orientation require more interaction and collaboration from participants, hence leading to more negotiation of meaning than tasks with divergent goal orientation. The final category proposed by Pica et al. deals with the outcome options of tasks that participants could possibly achieve. This category is divided into "open tasks", which can have more than one outcome, and "closed tasks", which have only one acceptable outcome.

Pica et al. (1993) apply their classification system to five types of tasks, i.e. jigsaw tasks, information gap tasks, problem solving tasks, decision making tasks and opinion exchange tasks. The following table (cited from Pica et al., 1993:19) gives an indication of how task types can be distinguished based on how the categories of interactant relationship, interaction requirement, goal orientation and outcome option are realized.

Task Type	INF holder	INF requester	INF supplier	INF requester-supplier relationship	Interaction requirement	Goal orientation	Outcome options
Jigsaw	X & Y	X & Y	X & Y	2 way (X to Y & Y to X)	+ required	+ convergent	1
Information gap	X or Y	X or Y	X or Y	1 way > 2 way (X to Y/Y to X)	+ required	+ convergent	1
Problem-solving	X = Y	X = Y	X = Y	2 way > 1 way (X to Y & Y to X)	- required	+ convergent	1
Decision-making	X = Y	X = Y	X = Y	2 way > 1 way (X to Y & Y to X)	- required	+ convergent	1+
Opinion exchange	X = Y	X = Y	X = Y	2 way > 1 way (X to Y & Y to X)	- required	- convergent	1+/-

Communication task types for L2 research and pedagogy analysis based on: Interactant (X/Y) relationships and requirements in communicating information (INF) to achieve task goals

(Pica et al., 1993:19).

In their discussion of the five task types Pica et al. indicate that the most effective task type would be jigsaw tasks (followed by information gap tasks), because of the opportunities jigsaw tasks provide for learners to work towards comprehension, feedback and interlanguage modification. Both participants in jigsaw type tasks hold parts of the totality of information needed to complete the task. The participants have to exchange (request and supply) information in order to arrive at a single, convergent goal. Pica et al. consider opinion exchange tasks to be the least effective task type, because the opportunities for comprehension, feedback and modified input are likely to be fewest in this task type. In opinion exchange tasks interaction is not required, participants are not required to work towards a single goal, and more than one outcome, or indeed no outcome, is possible.

Ellis (2003b:216) criticizes the psychological typology of task types proposed by Pica et al. because of the theory of language learning on which it is based, in this instance "that two-way interaction involving plentiful negotiation of meaning creates the conditions needed for acquisition". Although research to support this claim does exist, Ellis maintains that there are other, alternative theoretical premises based on other aspects of language use, e.g. learner output. Ellis argues that although the psychological classification of tasks is grounded on sound theoretical premises that are supported by empirical findings, it is mainly useful in terms of providing a basis for task selection (2003b:216). For this reason Ellis (2003b:216) suggests **a general framework** for task classification, "based on a number of key dimensions of tasks".

3.2.4.5 General framework for task classification

From the above discussion of the classification of task types it is evident that no generally accepted typology of tasks exists. Researchers have also not been able to identify and agree upon an organizing principle for the formulation of a typology of task types. For this reason Ellis (2003b) suggests a general framework for the classification of tasks, based on what he calls "key dimensions of tasks". Ellis's General Framework uses elements from the rhetorical, cognitive and psycholinguistic task typologies discussed in Sections 3.2.4.2 – 3.2.4.4 above. His framework is made up of four design features, i.e. input, conditions, processes and outcomes, and

for each of these features a number of key dimensions are identified according which tasks can be classified. The combination of the four design features with the various key task dimensions makes it possible to achieve a highly detailed classification of tasks. Ellis's framework is set out in the table below:

Design Feature	Key Dimensions
Input , i.e. the nature of the input provided in the task	1 Medium a pictorial b oral c written 2 Organization a tight structure b loose structure
Conditions , i.e. way in which the information is presented to the learners and the way in which it is to be used	1 Information configuration a split b shared 2 Interactant relationship a one-way b two-way 3 Interaction requirement a required b optional 4 Orientation a convergent b divergent
Processes , i.e. the nature of the cognitive operations and the discourse the task requires	1 Cognitive a exchanging information b exchanging opinions c explaining/reasoning 2 Discourse mode a monologic b dialogic
Outcomes , i.e. the nature of the product that results from performing the task	1 Medium a pictorial b oral c written 2 Discourse domain/genre e.g. description, argument, recipes, political speeches 3 Scope a closed b open

A general task framework (Ellis, 2003:217)

3.2.5 The grading and sequencing of tasks

An important aspect of course or syllabus design is that course content should be sequenced correctly so as to ensure optimal acquisitional opportunities for learners. Various theories of language teaching and learning proposed over the years, have, to a greater or lesser extent, relied on the fact that the sequencing of learning material would be possible. According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis learners should always be provided with $i + 1$ input, i.e. input which is just beyond the learners' current level of interlanguage development. In order to provide learners with input just beyond their current level, teachers need to be able to grade and sequence content and tasks.

Another linguist who supports the sequencing of language learning material is Skehan (1996). Skehan bases his argument in favour of sequencing on the problem of learners who have to cope with form and meaning while learning a second language. He argues that because tasks force learners to pay attention to content in addition to form, learners' attentional resources are challenged. Skehan argues that if tasks can be sequenced "on some principled criterion" it will give teachers an idea of how taxing they are on learners' attentional resources.

Robinson (2001a and 2001b) conducted research to determine the role of task sequencing in learners' production. He found that the complexity of tasks has a considerable influence on the language learners produce during tasks, which clearly indicates the importance of accurate grading and sequencing.

In the rest of this section three different frameworks for the grading and sequencing tasks, by Skehan, Robinson and Ellis will be discussed in order of publication.

3.2.5.1 Skehan's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks

Skehan (1996:52) proposes a framework for the sequencing of tasks based on three factors. He proposes that when sequencing tasks the **code complexity** (formal aspects) should be considered along with the **cognitive complexity** (content), as

well as the amount of pressure under which learners will be expected to perform the task (**communicative stress**). **Code complexity** involves the difficulty and range of the traditional "language issues" such as the syntax, morphology and lexis used in the task instructions or required for performing the task.

Cognitive complexity deals with the difficulty of the content involved in completing the task. Skehan proposes that for sequencing purposes a distinction between **cognitive processing** and **cognitive familiarity** is made. Cognitive processing refers to the amount of real-time processing required for performing and completing the task, while cognitive familiarity deals with the extent to which learners can rely on known or existing content knowledge. Included in Skehan's notion of 'cognitive familiarity' would be the availability or not of recognizable schematic knowledge, such as macrostructures in different genres.

The third factor in Skehan's framework is that of **communicative stress**. This deals with a number of factors that are not related to the language code or content, but that do play a role in determining the level of difficulty of a task (Skehan, 1996:52). The **time pressure** under which learners have to perform a task is the first of the factors contributing to communicative stress. The time learners have between receiving the instructions for a task and the actual performance can play a role, as well as whether or not learners are given a time limit in which to perform the task. The **modality** of the task also needs to be taken into account when taking decisions about sequencing. This refers to whether the tasks will require of learners to speak or write, or to read or listen. It is generally accepted that in real-time task performance learners will find speaking more stressful than writing, and listening more stressful than reading. The **scale** of a task can also play a role in the amount of communicative stress. Learners might feel more stress if there are more participants involved in a task, and also if there are more different participant roles to cope with in performing the task. The **stakes** involved in completing a task can also contribute to communicative stress. Learners will experience more stress if it is considered important to complete a task, and even more if it is considered important to complete the task correctly, i.e. to arrive at the set outcome for the task.

Communicative stress is, in the last instance, also influenced by the level of **control** learners have over different aspects of task performance. Skehan cites Pica et al. (1993) when stating that learners will perceive less communicative stress if they are allowed to negotiate e.g. the goals of the task, or if they are allowed to ask clarifying questions, giving them greater control over the content. Participants will also perceive less communicative stress if they are allowed to negotiate participant roles for the task.

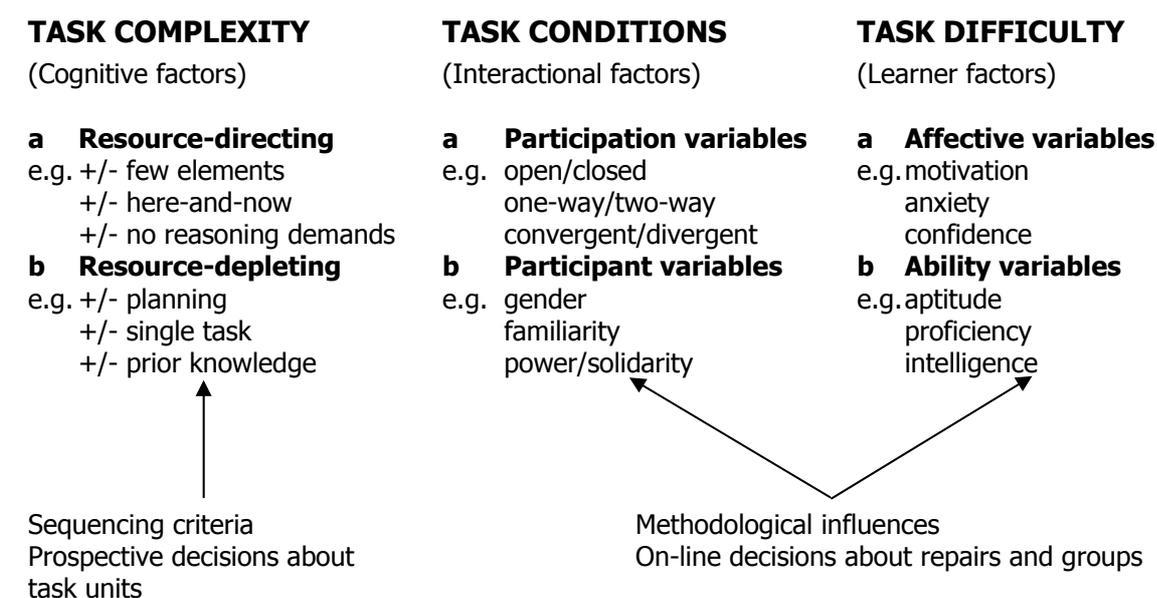
Skehan states that the value of having a framework such as the above according to which tasks can be sequenced is that it will enable teachers to find an effective balance between attention to fluency and accuracy (1996:53). He further claims that being able to sequence tasks properly will make it possible to free up learners' spare attentional capacity, which will make it possible for newly acquired structures to be incorporated into real-time language production.

Although relatively simplistic, Skehan's framework is useful in that it formalizes what might otherwise be teachers' random thoughts on how to grade and sequence tasks. The simplicity of this framework could also be seen as a plus, because this makes the framework accessible to language teachers at a secondary or even primary school level who might not have the time or the academic proficiency to use a more advanced framework.

3.2.5.2 Robinson's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks

Robinson's framework is based on a distinction between what he calls "cognitively defined task *complexity*, learner perceptions of task *difficulty*, and the interactive *conditions* under which tasks are performed" (2001b:27). He proposes that the process of sequencing should be based on decisions about increases or decreases in the cognitively defined complexity of tasks. Robinson refers to proposals by Long (1985, 1997), Skehan (1996, discussed in the previous section), Brindley (1987) and Nunan (1989) and comments that these authors use the terms 'complexity' and 'difficulty' interchangeably. These authors also claim that task difficulty/complexity is influenced by a large array of factors, including "cognitive, affective, linguistic,

interactional, experiential," et cetera (Robinson, 2001b:29). Robinson proposes that the terms 'difficulty' and 'complexity' refer to different kinds of influences on task performance. He further proposes that the factors influencing 'difficulty' and 'complexity' should be treated separately from factors influencing task 'conditions' (2001b:29). In Robinson (2001a) he calls his framework a "triadic framework". Robinson's framework is set out in the diagram below:



Framework for grading and sequencing of tasks based on task complexity, condition and difficulty. (Robinson, 2001b:30)

Robinson views '**task complexity**' as "the result of the attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner" (2001b:29). This term is therefore similar in meaning to Skehan's notion of 'cognitive complexity' discussed in the previous section. Robinson distinguishes between two kinds of cognitive factors which could influence the complexity of a task, i.e. resource directing and resource depleting factors. **Resource directing factors** that could influence task complexity are for example the number of elements involved in the task input, the context (here-and-now or a different, perhaps lesser-known context) and also the amount of reasoning required to complete the task (e.g. whether mere requesting or transfer of information is required, or whether further reasoning is required, e.g. using information received to form and express an opinion). Factors such as these are

seen as resource directing because they can direct learners' resources to certain language aspects which learners can employ during task performance, e.g. using the present tense to perform a task set in a here-and-now context (Robinson, 2001a:295). **Resource depleting factors** that influence task complexity are for example the amount of planning time learners will be allowed, whether the task performance involves one or more tasks, and whether learners have prior knowledge of the task content. Tasks will be considered complex if these factors are seen as depleting learners' available cognitive resources. A task for which learners are e.g. given little or no planning time, which requires of learners to perform more than one task, and which is centred around a topic learners have little or no prior knowledge of, will be considered complex because of the depleting effect such factors will have on learners' cognitive resources. Robinson is of the opinion that with factors such as the above taken into consideration, it will be possible for teachers and course designers to design tasks that will free up learners' attention sufficiently for them to focus on the language needed during task performance, rather than on task content (2001b:31).

In contrast with 'task complexity' which (as explained in the previous paragraph) Robinson views as being related to cognitive complexity resulting from demands put on learners' resources because of task structure and content, Robinson uses the term '**task difficulty**' to refer to the factors that learners bring to the task (2001b:31). He distinguishes between affective variables and ability variables. Affective variables are factors that may influence learners' performance temporarily, e.g. motivation, anxiety and confidence. More constant or inherent factors that learners bring with them to the task are the so-called ability variables, e.g. learners' aptitude, proficiency and intelligence.

Robinson states that task complexity and task difficulty are not in a fixed relationship to each other (2001b:31). He points out that if two learners are compared, one may find the same task more or less difficult to perform than the other because of what he calls "inherent ability differentials", i.e. differences in aptitude and intelligence. Another reason offered by Robinson why task complexity and task difficulty are not

in fixed relationship is that if two learners are compared, doing the same task and having equivalent intelligence or aptitude, the temporary, affective variables such as motivation, anxiety and confidence could cause one learner to perform better or worse than the other on a given day.

The third set of factors in Robinson's framework is that of **task conditions**. These are factors influenced by the interactive demands of tasks. Robinson (2001b:32) distinguishes between **participation variables** and **participant variables**. Under participation variables he includes factors such as the task outcome, i.e. whether the task is considered closed or open. The direction of the information flow, whether one-way or two-way, as well as the communication goal, whether convergent or divergent, are also considered to be participation variables. 'Participant variables' refers to factors such as learners' gender and their familiarity with other group members and with the role they have to assume for performing the task, e.g. requester or supplier of information.

As is clear from the diagram above of Robinson's framework, factors related to task conditions and task difficulty influence teachers' methodological decisions, or what Robinson calls "on-line decisions about pairs and groups" (2001b:30). By this he refers to decisions that teachers have to take in class about task performance, e.g. which roles will be assigned to which learners, based on for example the gender of the learners (participant variables) and the motivation (affective variables) of the different participants. The cognitive factors, which determine task complexity, are what is important for decisions about the grading and sequencing of tasks. In support of this statement, Robinson points out that factors influencing task difficulty, such as motivation, anxiety and confidence, are difficult or impossible to determine before the actual task performance starts.

Robinson (2001b:33) points out that interactions between the three sets of factors in his framework are to be expected. Task complexity, as determined by e.g. resource directing factors, will probably have an effect on task difficulty, e.g. affective factors. Cognitive factors such as a large number of elements involved in a task, combined

perhaps with high levels of reasoning required, will cause learners to perceive a task as more difficult, because of possible greater levels of anxiety and reduced confidence. Exactly what the influence of differences in one of the three sets of factors will be on the other sets of factors cannot be predicted with any certainty. Robinson stresses that further research is necessary to determine the exact nature of interactions between the three different sets of factors.

Robinson's framework is more advanced than that of Skehan discussed above and is likely to lead to greater accuracy in the grading and sequencing of tasks. Despite the fact that existing research makes it impossible to specify the interaction that could be found between the three sets of factors, Robinson's motivation of the importance of determining the cognitive factors involved in tasks for purposes of grading and sequencing, makes his framework a viable option. In Chapter 5 a later version of Robinson's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks (Robinson, 2005) will be adopted for use in this study. In the 2005 version Robinson proposes that task sequencing and grading should be done in terms of the cognitive characteristics of tasks.

3.2.5.3 Ellis's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks

A more recent framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks than that of Skehan and Robinson, as discussed above, is proposed by Ellis (2003b). Ellis states that the rationale behind the sequencing of tasks is that correctly sequenced tasks will enable the language teacher / course designer to provide tasks that match the learners' level of development in the target language. Although a high level of precision in the sequencing of tasks is obviously desirable, Ellis (2003b:220) points out that it is not necessary to grade tasks with the same level of precision as is required for the grading and sequencing of linguistic content. Ellis's motivation for this is that tasks do not prescribe the exact linguistic and non-linguistic content learners have to use when performing a task. When performing a task learners have the freedom to choose the exact linguistic structures they want to use (although the nature of some tasks may limit this choice), as well as the non-linguistic resources that will be needed to complete the task and to reach the set outcomes.

Ellis (2003b:221) proposes a framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks based on the work of Brindley, Candlin, Nunan, Skehan and Robinson. His proposed framework constitutes a synthesis of the work of these authors on task complexity. Ellis's framework aims to account for task complexity in terms of four criteria: **input, conditions, processes and outcomes**. Each of these criteria will here be discussed in some detail. Ellis points out that his framework presents these factors that influence task complexity taxonomically because current research does not provide sufficient insight into how these factors are interrelated (2003b:221). Ellis's framework is illustrated in the diagram below:

Criterion	Easy	Difficult
A Input		
1 Medium	pictorial →written	→ oral
2 Code complexity	high frequency vocabulary; short and simple sentences	low frequency vocabulary; complex sentence structure
3 Cognitive complexity		
a information type	static → dynamic	→ abstract
b amount of information	few elements / relationships	many elements / relationships
c degree of structure	well-defined structure	little structure
d context dependency	familiar	unfamiliar
B Conditions		
1 Interactant relationship (negotiation of meaning)	two-way	one-way
2 Task demands	single task	dual task
3 Discourse mode required to perform task	dialogic	monologic
C Processes		
1 Cognitive operations:		
a type	exchanging information → reasoning	→ exchanging opinions
b reasoning need	few steps involved	many steps involved
D Outcomes		
1 Medium	pictorial	→ written →oral
2 Scope	closed?	open?
3 Discourse mode of task outcome	lists, descriptions, narratives, classification	→ instructions, arguments

Framework for the grading of tasks. (Ellis, 2003b:228)

3.2.5.3.1 Factors relating to input

The input given to learners in a task can influence its complexity in a number of ways. The **medium** used to convey the input can take various forms, which influences the perceived complexity of the task. It is generally believed that learners perceive input received in writing or in pictures to be easier to process, because they can do the processing in their own time. Input provided orally is seen as more difficult because processing then has to happen in real-time. Ellis (2003b:222) points out that pictorial input is probably easier to decode because this does not require any linguistic processing (in the target language) by the learner. For this reason pictures and other visual material are recommended for beginner courses.

The difficulty of a task is also influenced by the **code complexity** of the input. This refers to the level of the lexis and syntax used in the input. Input containing vocabulary known to the learners and syntax containing constructions the learners have encountered before or which are on a level accessible to the learners, will be easier for the learners to decode than input containing unfamiliar vocabulary and complex or unknown syntactic constructions. The amount of subordination in the syntax is a code feature which should be considered when determining the code complexity of input. Ellis (2003b:222) referring to work by Oh (2001) states that there is evidence that "elaborative input, i.e. input that employs devices such as paraphrases and glosses rather than simplification, is more comprehensible than simplified input".

The **cognitive complexity** of input is another factor which has to be taken into consideration when grading and sequencing tasks. This refers to the cognitive demands the learner has to cope with when processing the information supplied in the task input. According to Ellis (2003b:222-3) both the nature of the information and the amount of information to be processed has to be taken into account when trying to grade and sequence tasks. Task input can contain static information, i.e. information that remains constant for the duration of the task, or dynamic information, i.e. information that changes as the task progresses, such as times and events that change during a video presentation. A third information type is abstract

information. In input this could be found in information that has to be used to processed in order to perform an opinion exchange or a decision making type of task. Ellis cites the work of Brown et al. in saying that static information is considered the easiest to process, followed by dynamic information, leaving abstract information at the more difficult end of the continuum. Ellis also refers to the work of Prabhu (1987) who states that task input that requires "learners to work with 'concepts' proved more difficult than tasks involving the names of objects and actions" (Ellis, 2003:223).

The amount of information provided in the input also influences the cognitive complexity of a task. The more detail, such as names and character information supplied in the input, the more difficult the task will be to perform. Ellis (2003b:223) also points out that information presented in a readily identifiable macrostructure will be easier to process than information presented more loosely.

Task complexity could also be influenced by the **context dependency** of the input provided to the learner. It is generally believed that textual input supported by visual material for the purpose of providing context will decrease task complexity. Ellis (2003b:223 and 120), however, indicates that research to date has not been able to prove that contextual support improves learners' task performance.

The final factor related to input which could have an effect on the grading and sequencing of tasks, as discussed by Ellis (2003b) is the **familiarity of information** provided in the input. A task will be easier for learners if they have greater prior knowledge of the theme of the task. Choosing tasks so that their themes correspond with learners' real-world knowledge will make the input more accessible to the learners.

3.2.5.3.2 Factors relating to task conditions

The second set of factors in Ellis's framework for grading and sequencing tasks deals with factors relating to **task conditions**. In this regard Ellis mentions **conditions**

influencing the negotiation of meaning, task demands and the **discourse mode** required by the tasks.

Ellis (2003b:224) indicates that **conditions influencing the negotiation of meaning** should be considered when determining the degree of difficulty of a task for grading and sequencing purposes. Tasks where conditions are favourable for the negotiation of meaning are thought to be less difficult than tasks where the participants have less opportunity for the negotiation of meaning, e.g. one-way tasks. Task conditions (see Ellis's General Framework of Task Types in section 2.4.5 above) such as the information configuration (whether one or all participants hold information), the interactant relationship (whether the communication flow is one way or two way), interaction requirement (either optional or required) and the task orientation (convergent or divergent) should therefore be kept in mind when grading and sequencing tasks.

The second aspect Ellis mentions with reference to task conditions is that of **task demands**. Tasks with more than a single demand (e.g. not only identifying the main characters in a story but also having to relay their biographical details) will obviously be more demanding, and grading and sequencing should happen accordingly.

Discourse mode is also a factor relating to task conditions which needs attention when grading and sequencing tasks. Ellis (2003b:225) mentions that intuitively tasks with a dialogic discourse mode are expected to be easier because the participants can work together and assist each other. Ellis also refers to Skehan's (1996) framework (as discussed in the previous section) in saying that the level of control learners have over the task performance, influences the communicative stress they are likely to experience. In dialogic tasks learners have the opportunity to ask for clarifications, giving them the possibility to negotiate meaning, and giving them a sense of control over the way the task is performed, which could reduce communicative stress.

3.2.5.3.3 Factors relating to the process of performing a task

The third set of factors influencing task complexity in Ellis's framework deals with the cognitive processes or operations needed to perform and complete a task. He distinguishes between the type of cognitive processes involved and the amount of reasoning needed to complete the task. The cognitive processes could vary from relatively easy operations such as exchanging information to more complex operations such as formulating and exchanging opinions, with the implication that information-gap tasks would be graded as easier than opinion-gap tasks. The amount of reasoning required to perform and complete a task successfully should also be considered when grading tasks. Ellis (2003b:225) cites the work of Prabhu (1987) to illustrate that task difficulty increases as the number of reasoning steps increases. A task that for instance requires learners to use information supplied to determine the relationship between different characters in a story, requires less reasoning than when the task would also require of learners to list the main events of the story in a chronological order.

3.2.5.3.4 Factors relating to task outcomes

The fourth and final set of factors that determine task complexity in Ellis's framework is related to task outcomes. He discusses these with reference to medium, scope, discourse domain and the complexity of the outcome.

The choice of **outcome medium** can influence the complexity of a task. Tasks that do not require the use of language for the output, e.g. tasks where learners are only requested to perform an action or to produce a map or drawing, would be easier for most learners. Oral or written tasks would require the use of the target language and will, as such, be more complex. Oral tasks where learners are expected to perform in front of the rest of the class would be even more difficult, as this would place more stress on the learners (Ellis, 2003b:226).

Regarding the **scope of the task outcome** Ellis states that no literature exists which compares the relative difficulty of tasks with open and closed outcomes (2003b:226). One can, however, intuitively assume that tasks with open outcomes

would be more difficult because numerous options might be available. In tasks with closed outcomes, especially if there is a single outcome, learners would know what outcome they have to work towards.

The grading and sequencing of tasks based on the **discourse domain of the task** outcomes is the third factor Ellis discusses in this section of his framework (2003b:226). As with the scope of the task outcome discussed above, Ellis points out that no research evidence is available to help teachers and course designers determine the cognitive demands of the different discourse domains. He suggests a continuum based on intuition: lists and descriptions are accepted to be easier than classification and narration, with instructions and arguments at the more difficult end of the continuum. For each of these discourse domains the amount of detail required in the outcome will also determine the degree of complexity.

The **complexity of the outcome** is the final factor Ellis discusses in his list of factors relating to task outcome (Ellis, 2003b:227). The more detailed the outcome that is expected of learners, the more complex the task will be. High levels of detail require a larger vocabulary and greater accuracy in syntax.

Ellis's framework is clearly more detailed than those of Skehan and Robinson (discussed in the previous sections). The larger amount of detail included in this framework will probably lead to more accurate grading and sequencing of tasks than that which would be possible with e.g. Skehan's framework. A possible disadvantage of Ellis's framework is that its detailed nature could make it time consuming to use. It also requires a higher level of academic proficiency for proper use, which may limit its value to academically less adept users. A weakness of Ellis's framework is that it does not address the possible interaction between the different sections. As mentioned earlier, Ellis acknowledges this fact and states that a lack of research necessitates the mere taxonomical listing of factors. For this reason Robinson's framework (the 2005 version) will be adopted for use in Chapter 5 of this study.

3.2.6 Focus on form in a task-based syllabus

In Chapter 2 focus on form was discussed in detail. It was indicated that focus on form is currently believed to be the most effective option for incorporating attention to linguistic form into the second language syllabus. The preceding sections of Chapter 3 have been devoted to a discussion of the merits and characteristics of task-based language teaching and learning. The present section will evaluate motivation for the use of focus on form in a task-based approach, as well as the rationale for the adoption of focused tasks as the ideal vehicle for the incorporation of focus on form in a task-based methodology.

The motivation for the inclusion of focus on form in a task-based approach to second language teaching is analogous to the rationale for the inclusion of focus on form into communicative second language instruction, as was discussed in Section 2.3 of the previous chapter. Because the task-based approach places such strong emphasis on communication and the making and negotiating of meaning, learners' attention is primarily focused on the content and on task performance and reaching task outcomes. The implication of this is that learners may have very limited (if any) processing capacity remaining with which to focus on language and form. The result of this limited attention to language and form (or the complete lack thereof) might be that learners' interlanguage development may be impaired or lacking. In order to address this imbalance, some form of attention to linguistic form is needed in order to facilitate interlanguage development. Skehan (1996:42) states that without attention to form, task-based instruction may result in learners merely acquiring processing strategies for task completion, while only engaging in what he calls "lexicalized communication", i.e. communication that relies heavily on memorised vocabulary and chunks of language. In other words, without sufficient attention to form, learners' acquisition of the target language may not be as successful as their acquisition of information processing and task completion strategies.

This point is reiterated by Richards (2002). He uses the term 'the grammar gap in task work' to refer to the fact that task-based instruction can fail to provide learners

with sufficient attention to linguistic form needed for interlanguage development and ultimately for target language acquisition. Richards (2002:156) illustrates by means of the transcription of a role-play task that it is possible that learners can complete a task successfully in terms of the set task outcomes, while using extremely poor language. It is possible that learners can manage to negotiate sufficient meaning to reach the task outcomes, while using language which consists mostly of memorised vocabulary and chunks of language. Richards points out that without appropriate attention to form, i.e. without "addressing the grammar gap", learners may end up communicating "in spite of language, rather than [...] through language" (Richards, 2002:156, there cited from Higgs and Clifford, 1982:61).

A review of current literature reveals that there are three stages of a task-based lesson during which attention can be given to form. Skehan (1996), Richards (2002) and Ellis (2003b) propose that focus on form can be incorporated prior to task performance, during the task and after task performance. Each of these options will be discussed in Section 3.2.8 below, which deals with task-based methodology.

Ellis (2003b:319) considers tasks to be "the ideal tool for achieving a focus on form". Various options are available for the incorporation of attention to linguistic form into a task-based approach to language teaching. In order to accommodate focus on form in a task-based methodology, Ellis suggests the use of focused tasks and unfocused tasks. In addition to the use of focused and unfocused tasks for the purpose of incorporating attention to linguistic form, Ellis further suggests that a separate, code-based module could be used, as well as traditional presentation-practice-production exercises. This serves as support for the adoption of an eclectic approach to focus on form advocated in the previous chapter of this study.

Ellis defines a 'focused task' as "an activity that has all the qualities of a task but has been designed to induce learners' incidental attention to some specific linguistic form when processing either input or output" (2003b:342). Focused tasks are distinguished from unfocused tasks because of the possibility with the former to induce learners' attention to linguistic form. With unfocused tasks communication

and the negotiation of meaning are the main aims. An important aspect of Ellis's definition of the term 'focused task' is the fact that attention to form must be incidental. Learners are not informed of the specific linguistic focus of the task. Although focused tasks are designed to elicit the use of predetermined linguistic features, the emphasis is still on communication and meaning. Ellis (2003b:141) contrasts the incidental nature of the focus on form found in focused tasks with the intentional focus on form encountered in so-called situational grammar exercises. The latter type of exercise provides learners with opportunities to practice a specific linguistic feature within a given context. Learners are informed of the linguistic feature being targeted and as such they may pay special attention to the form while performing the exercise. Ellis points out that focused tasks and situational grammar exercises can be similar in design, but that the difference lies in the implementation.

Focused tasks are believed to be the ideal vehicle for incorporating focus on form because of the strong psycholinguistic bases underlying this kind of task. Ellis (2003b) reviews two types of cognitive theories of learning, both of which offer support for the adoption of focused tasks.

The first theory is that of skill-learning and automatization. According to this theory the acquisition of a skill begins with conscious knowledge. In the case of second language learning, this would imply that learners have to be given factual or explicit knowledge about the language, specifically about the structure of the language. This knowledge can be processed using general (i.e. not language specific) cognitive skills and problem-solving procedures. It is believed that if learners are provided with plentiful opportunities to use the target language (even in controlled situations such as a classroom), their explicit or declarative knowledge will become more automatized or proceduralized. Focused tasks are ideal for providing learners with opportunities for communicative practice. According to skill-building theories, the automatization and proceduralization of knowledge about the language will enable learners to process the target language in real time and eventually to use it in real-world situations. Skill-building theory therefore also implies that explicit knowledge will, over time, become implicit knowledge if learners are exposed to sufficient

opportunities for practice. Opportunities for practice can be provided in class by means of a methodology that employs focused tasks in combination with other options, such as more traditional, as well as unfocused tasks, which offers learners the opportunity for more free language production than would be possible with focused tasks and exercises of the presentation-practice-production kind.

The second type of cognitive theory that Ellis (2003b) offers as support for the adoption of focused tasks is that of implicit learning. Ellis (2003b:148) cites the following definition of implicit learning by N. Ellis: "Implicit learning is the acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations." Ellis (2003b:148) points out that according to this theory learning takes place unconsciously and automatically. Supporters of this theory claim that it accounts for the effortless and unconscious manner in which a first language is acquired - a claim which is generally accepted. Some linguists (e.g. Krashen, also see Chapter 2), however, claim that learners acquire a second language in a manner much similar to the first language and therefore that the second language is also acquired by means of implicit learning. This theory therefore rather favours the use of unfocused tasks, but because the opportunities for communication that are created through focused tasks may also make implicit learning possible, Ellis (2003b:151) considers the use of focused tasks as also being justified by the theory of implicit learning.

A further motivation for the adoption of a task-based methodology in order to accommodate attention to grammatical form is that such a methodology can accommodate consciousness-raising tasks. As discussed in Section 2.3 in Chapter 2, consciousness-raising tasks aim to provide learners with explicit cognitive or intellectual understanding of grammatical constructions. No emphasis is put on learners' immediate production of the targeted constructions. Although the emphasis with consciousness-raising tasks is on providing explicit knowledge, Ellis (2002b) argues that consciousness-raising will also contribute to the development of learners' implicit knowledge. He argues that consciousness-raising will make the integration of new linguistic structures possible because it enables learners to notice new

structures and to compare the noticed structure with their existing mental grammar, i.e. 'noticing the gap' (Ellis, 2002b:171).

From the above it is clear that ample theoretical motivation exists for the inclusion of focus on form in a task-based approach to second language teaching. The exact manner in which focus on form should be incorporated, whether through focused or unfocused tasks, or through presentation-practice-production exercises or even by means of a separate grammar module, will depend on factors such as learners' level of advancement in the target language, their age and general level of education, as well as the particular languages that are involved. In cases where the mother tongue and the target language of the learners have a similar structure, such as two European languages (e.g. French and Italian) might have, it would be possible to make more use of unfocused tasks. Where the structures of the first language and the target language are vastly different, as is the case with English (or Afrikaans) and isiXhosa, more explicit focus on form will also be necessary. In the latter situation more traditional approaches to grammar teaching will have to be combined with focused tasks. Unfocused tasks will only become viable for intermediate and advanced learners. Implicit and explicit treatment of focus on form will be discussed in more detail in Section 3.2.8 below.

3.2.7 The Design of a Task-based Syllabus

The principles of task-based syllabus design will be discussed in Chapter 5, which will investigate the issues related to the design of a specific purposes task-based syllabus, with specific reference to the inclusion of focus on form by means of computer.

3.2.8 Task-based methodology

In this section options for the implementation of a task-based methodology into the second language classroom will be investigated. Reference will also be made to the possibilities for the inclusion of focus on form.

The implementation of tasks into the curriculum ideally takes place once tasks have been graded and sequenced. This should be done according to an extensive set of guidelines to ensure accurate grading and sequencing. Principles for the grading and sequencing of tasks were discussed in Section 3.2.5 above.

Robinson (2001a:293) proposes a methodological sequence for task-based instruction. He suggests that the first phase of the sequence be devoted to language input, followed by pedagogic task performance, after which target task assessment should be conducted. Robinson suggests that during the language input phase, proactive options for focus on form can be utilized. This could for example include using activities in which input has been enhanced. During the pedagogic task performance phase, a variety of task types can be used (see Section 3.2.2 above for a detailed discussion of task types). During this phase the emphasis would be on communication and content, and attention to form should be reactive in nature. The teacher could respond to errors made by learners by providing recasts. Robinson proposes that the final phase of the methodological sequence be devoted to assessment of target task performance.

Lee (2000) also proposes a three-part methodological sequence, but one that differs considerably from the one by Robinson discussed above. Lee (2000:74-83) proposes a model according to which a task-based lesson is divided into an introductory section, which he calls "framing", followed by a task execution phase which is influenced by time constraints, followed by a conclusion. During the introduction, Lee suggests that the teacher "frame" the lesson by giving learners information about the activities or tasks that are to follow. Main points or key words can be written on the board or revealed on an overhead projector or using a computer and data projector with the aim of setting the scene for what is to follow during the rest of the lesson. During the 'execution and time constraints' part of the lesson, learners are instructed what to do and given the time limit for the activity. During the final phase of Lee's methodological sequence, the tasks or activities are concluded by the teacher. This could be done by getting final comments from learners about the

content of the task or activity that has been performed or about the outcome that was reached. Lee (2000: 98-99) indicates that language competence can be developed by using task-based activities. He stresses that attempts to develop learners' language competence should not be focused only on grammatical competence, and emphasises that language competence also includes textual, illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. Lee does not provide any information on what a task-based methodology that aims to develop language competence should look like.

Yet another three-stage methodology for task-based language teaching is proposed by Skehan (1996). Similar to the proposals of Robinson and Lee discussed above, Skehan also proposes that a task-based methodology should consist of pre-task activities, then the actual tasks, followed by post-task activities. Skehan (1996:54-55) sees the aim of pre-task activities as being two-fold. Firstly, pre-task activities can be employed to draw learners' attention to the language they will need to perform the task itself. This could be done through more or less explicit attention to language and structural aspects. The rationale behind a language focus (e.g. consciousness-raising) during the pre-task phase is to facilitate interlanguage development during task performance. The second aim with pre-task activities is to assist learners with planning for the task itself. The rationale in this instance is that planning activities and activities that focus learners' attention on task content, will free up learners' limited processing capabilities for use for language processing during task performance.

The second phase of Skehan's three-part methodology is that of the actual task itself. Skehan (1996:55) stresses that the choice of tasks is important, because if tasks are too difficult for learners, much of their processing capacity will be utilized for task content, leaving only limited capacity for attention to language production. This might cause learners to fall back on lexicalization and formulaic language use. Skehan's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks was discussed in Section 3.2.5 above. It was indicated that he considers the time available, language modalities involved (e.g. writing, speaking, reading or writing) the scale of the task, the stakes involved, as well as the level of control learners have over different

aspects of the task as important considerations when deciding on the grading and sequencing of tasks.

Skehan's framework also includes reference to two kinds of post-task activities that form part of his three-part methodology for task-based language teaching (1996:56). During the first kind of activity of the post-task phase learners could be requested to redo the task "publicly", which could include performing the task while the teacher or other learners are watching, or while being recorded on video. Skehan argues that if learners are aware of an audience, they will pay more attention to their language production than they would without an audience. He further claims that if learners are told before performing a task that they might later be asked to perform the task for an audience, they may pay more attention to language structure and accuracy when performing the task (for the first time). When re-doing a task, learners will also have more processing capacity available for attention to language, because less attention will be needed for cognitive processing (Skehan, 1996:56). This could lead to greater accuracy and fluency while also producing richer and more varied language. The second part of the post-task phase of Skehan's methodology will take place after an evaluation of the task sequence and of learners' performance. During this second post-task phase learners could be requested to redo tasks already performed, or to perform tasks that are similar to previous tasks. Skehan's rationale with the second post-task phase is that this phase will enable learners to consolidate their performance. This phase might make it possible for teachers and learners to find the desired balance between attention to language (fluency and accuracy) on the one hand, and attention to task content on the other.

A more detailed account of what a task-based methodology should entail is offered by Ellis 2003(b). Ellis stresses that because too little conclusive research is available to indicate what constitutes the best methodological choices, his proposals should not be seen as being prescriptive (2003b: 278). Because each instructional situation is unique, he suggests that teachers choose methodological options that best suit their present situation from the variety of options he discusses. He divides his

methodology into procedures that deal with lesson design and procedures that focus on the participatory structure of task-based lessons.

Procedures relating to lesson design

Drawing on the work of other authors, including Skehan (1996) and Lee (2000) discussed above, Ellis also adopts a three-phase methodology, i.e. the pre-task phase, the during-task phase and the post-task phase. Ellis illustrates his framework for designing task-based lessons as follows:

Phase	Examples of options
A Pre-task	Framing the activity, e.g. establishing the outcome of the task Planning time Doing a similar task
B During task	Time pressure Number of participants
C Post-task	Learner report Consciousness raising Repeat task

A framework for designing task-based lessons. (Ellis, 2003b: 244)

During the **pre-task phase** the teacher has various options for preparing the learners for the actual task performance that will follow. Ellis (2003b: 244) agrees with Skehan (see above) that the preparation done in this phase can be aimed at language and/or content. Attention paid to language during this phase, be it explicit or implicit, will free up learners' attention during task performance in favour of cognitive attention needed for task performance, and vice versa (Ellis, 2003b and 2005).

Ellis (2003b) proposes four alternatives for the pre-task phase. The first entails that the teacher assists learners in performing at task that is similar to (but not the same as) the task that will follow during main part of the lesson. Various methodological options are available for the pre-task phase. The teacher could for example work with the whole class and perform a task with all the learners co-operating and

contributing. Learners could also be given a task where they have to work individually, focusing on performance strategies, language structures and/or task content.

A second alternative for the pre-task phase is presenting learners with a model of the task they will be required to perform later in the lesson. This could be given in the form of a written dialogue or an audio or audiovisual recording of others performing a similar task. Hearing and or seeing others perform a similar task will help learners with planning for their own performance in terms of strategies, content and also in terms of language structures, vocabulary and sociolinguistic competencies that could be encountered or required during task performance.

The third option for pre-task activities suggested by Ellis (2003b: 246) is the presentation of non-task preparation activities. As with the other options discussed here, the aim with non-task preparation activities is to reduce the cognitive and/or linguistic demands placed on the learner during task performance. The former can be addressed through brainstorming and mind maps. Ellis (2003b: 247) indicates that regarding linguistic demands, activities that focus on vocabulary, rather than grammar, are mostly proposed in literature. Ellis, following the work of Newton (2001), suggests three kinds of non-task activities that can be used to help learners with vocabulary: Learners could be asked to predict vocabulary that might feature during task performance; they could be asked to look up meanings and definitions of words and then sharing the information with other group or class members; and lastly, learners could be asked to match a list of words with a list of definition or even pictures that illustrate the meaning of word. Ellis does not give any suggestions for grammar non-task activities that could be used during the pre-task phase, and comments that "vocabulary is seen as more helpful for the successful performance of a task than grammar" (2003b: 247), but fails to substantiate this statement.

The fourth and last option for the pre-task phase proposed by Ellis is that of strategic planning. Strategic planning entails that individuals, pairs, small groups or even the

whole class work on their own or with the teacher to plan their performance of the actual task. If the teacher is involved in the planning process, he or she can direct learners' attention to form and/or content. For attention to form, the teacher can for example ask learners to think of the kinds of constructions they would need to use during task performance. The teacher can assist learners in identifying certain important constructions and could explain these where necessary, even supplying rules if considered necessary and appropriate. Should the teacher elect to focus on content, learners could be asked to predict content that would lead to the desired task outcome. Ellis indicates that the time allocated to strategic planning could vary from one to ten minutes, depending on the circumstances (2003b: 248).

Ellis (2003b) points out that available research does not provide answers about the effects that certain methodological choices made during the pre-task phase will have on actual task-performance and outcomes. Teachers will therefore have to experiment with the different options discussed here in order to determine which options or combination of options will produce best results in their particular instructional setting. Ellis (2005), however, states that as far as task rehearsal is concerned, research has indicated that learners' performance does improve if they are required to repeat the same task, with greater fluency and complexity being noted in the second performance. These effects are, however, not noted when learners are required to perform a different task after the rehearsal (Ellis, 2005:18).

The value of pre-task planning is confirmed in a recent study by Mochizuki and Ortega (2008), who found positive effects for pre-task planning that incorporates some focus on linguistic form, a process they termed "guided planning", in lower proficiency level classes. Mochizuki and Ortega found that if the teacher provided linguistic assistance during the planning stage, learners managed to achieve greater accuracy during task performance (2008:31).

The **during-task phase** is clearly the main part of a task-based lesson. Ellis (2003b: 249) proposes methodological options of two kinds, i.e. task performance options and process options. Task performance options are decisions about the

performance of the task that the teacher can take prior to the actual task performance. Ellis uses the term 'process options' to refer to "online" decisions that the teacher and the learners can take during actual task performance about how the task has to be performed.

Task performance options

Ellis uses the term 'task performance options' (2003b: 249) to refer to decisions that the teacher can take before task-performance that will influence the way in which the task is performed and possibly also the outcomes of the task. Ellis mentions three decisions of this kind: time pressure, access to input data and including a surprise element during task performance. Making learners perform a task under **time pressure** will influence the kind of language learners produce. According to Ellis (2003b: 250) learners are likely to produce more accurate language if there is no time limit set, whereas with a time limit learners are likely to produce more fluent language. Decisions about whether learners should be allowed to keep the input data for the task with them when performing the task are also likely to influence learners' performance. If learners are not allowed access to **task input data**, the result may be that learners will utilize more of their attentional capacity for content than for language, which may result in less complex and less accurate language use. The third and last performance option discussed by Ellis is that of adding **a surprise element** to the task (2003b: 250). This could entail providing learners with additional information they did not have access to during the pre-task phase or during the introduction of the task. The introduction of a surprise element will force learners to make changes to strategies they may have already planned. The surprise information could also be given to learners during task performance. This will force learners to be creative and will encourage the taking of online decisions. Ellis comments that the introduction of a surprise element "may also help to enhance students' intrinsic interest in a task".

Process options

The term 'process options' is used by Ellis to describe decisions teachers and or learners may have to take while the task is being performed (2003b: 251). Ellis

points out that decisions taken by the teacher and the learners during task-performance can be seen as a reflection of their prior experiences of teaching and learning and also their personal interpretation of the current task. The beliefs of both teachers and learners about how language teaching and learning should take place, as well as beliefs about the roles of the teacher and the learner, will also influence the kinds of process options decided on during task performance. Different typical process options will be chosen if teachers and/or learners hold a more traditional view of language teaching, as opposed to a more contemporary view recognizing the value of the principles of a task-based pedagogy. A more traditional view of language teaching and learning will typically be in favour of a more form-focused approach, i.e. an approach where form is treated more explicitly and is seen as a central part of instruction. In contrast, a task-based approach will stereotypically place less emphasis on language and more emphasis on meaning, content and communication. The diagram on the next page illustrates how Ellis (2003b: 253) summarizes stereotypical classroom processes in a traditional form-focused pedagogy and how he contrasts it with a task-based pedagogy.

It is important to note that the processes juxtaposed in the diagram below represent opposite ends of a continuum. Ellis (2003b: 252) emphasizes that the processes described under task-based pedagogy in the diagram "are a rarity even in classrooms where the teacher claims to be teaching communicatively". As a possible explanation for this Ellis points out that teachers and learners may find it difficult to break away from the traditional teacher-learner roles. This could explain aspects such as topic development and turn-taking, which are typically teacher-dominated in a traditional form-focused pedagogy. He also points out that in a classroom situation teachers and learners could experience difficulty in treating language as a tool and adopting to the more equal roles of language users, as opposed to the traditional teacher-learner roles (Ellis 2003b: 252). This clearly has implications for the type of language learners are likely to produce in the classroom. It would therefore be realistic to suggest that the task-based pedagogical processes listed above should be treated as an ideal for teachers and learners to work towards.

Traditional form-focused pedagogy	Task-based pedagogy
Rigid discourse structure consisting of initiate-respond-feedback exchanges	Loose discourse structure consisting of adjacency pairs
Teacher controls topic development	Students able to control topic development
Turn-taking is regulated by the teacher	Turn-taking is regulated by the same rules that govern everyday conversation, i.e. speakers can self-select
Display questions, i.e. questions that the questioner already knows the answer to	Use of referential questions, i.e. questions that the questioner does not know the answer to
Students are placed in a responding role and consequently perform a limited range of language functions	Students function in both initiating and responding roles and thus perform a wide range of language functions, e.g. asking for and giving information, agreeing and disagreeing, instructing
Little need or opportunity to negotiate meaning	Opportunities to negotiate meaning when communication problems arise
Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to produce correct sentences	Scaffolding directed primarily at enabling students to say what they want to say
Form-focused feedback, i.e. the teacher responds implicitly or explicitly to the correctness of students' utterances	Content-focused feedback, i.e. the teacher responds to the message content of the students' utterances
Echoing, i.e. the teacher repeats what a student has said for the benefit of the whole class	Repetition, i.e. a student elects to repeat something another student or the teacher has said as private speech or to establish intersubjectivity

Stereotypical classroom processes in traditional form-focused pedagogy and task-based pedagogy (Ellis, 2003b: 253).

An important aspect of task-based methodology is the inclusion of focus on form during task performance. This aspect is of particular importance for this study and options for the inclusion of focus on form using multimedia will be explored in Chapter 4. As discussed in Chapter 2 and also in Section 3.2.6 of this chapter, it is widely propagated that focus on form during task performance should be reactive and incidental in nature. The ideal is that the entire emphasis during task performance should be on content, meaning and communication. The flow of the communication should only be interrupted when the teacher perceives that a need arises, or when learners request clarification on a particular linguistic feature. As

was indicated in Chapter 2, most researchers suggest that such episodes of focus on form should be brief so as not to disrupt the communicative flow of the task (Ellis 2001:15, Doughty 2001:250 and DeKeyser 2001:132).

Ellis (2003b) identifies implicit and explicit techniques for focusing on form in the during-task phase. Ellis points out that as far as methodological options for implementation are concerned, the teacher can be the initiator of the focus on form, or the teacher can wait to react to problems with form in learners' utterances, or to requests by learners for clarification or assistance (2003b: 256). The table below lists implicit and explicit ways in which focus on form can be dealt with during task performance.

Type of technique	Interactional device	Description
Implicit	1 Request for clarification	A task participant seeks clarification of something another participant has said, thus providing an opportunity for the first participant to reformulate.
	2 Recast	A task participant rephrases part or the whole of another participant's utterance.
Explicit	1 Explicit correction	A task participant draws explicit attention to another participant's deviant use of a linguistic form, e.g. "Not x but y."
	2 Metalingual comment/question	A task participant uses metalanguage to draw attention to another participant's deviant use of a linguistic form, e.g. "Past tense not present tense."
	3 Query	A task participant asks a question about a specific linguistic form that has arisen in performing the task, e.g. "Why is 'can' used here?"
	4 Advice	A task participant (usually the teacher) advises or warns about the use of a specific linguistic form, e.g. "Remember to use the past tense".

Implicit and explicit techniques for focusing on form during a task
(Ellis, 2003b: 257)

The above table indicates that two techniques are available to teachers and learners for implicit focus on form, i.e. a participant can request clarification of something said by another participant, or a participant can rephrase what another participant has

said. More explicit focus on form can be achieved using one of four techniques. A task participant can explicitly correct an incorrect form used by another participant. This can be accomplished with or without the use of metalanguage. A third option is an explicit query by a task participant about a particular linguistic form that arises during task performance. The last option Ellis proposes for explicit focus on form during task performance is advice or a warning given by a task participant (typically the teacher) about a specific form that arises during task performance.

An important aspect reflected in the table above is that both the teacher and the learners can be the initiators of focus on form. Both the teacher and the learners can also be the suppliers of the focus on form. Decisions about whether the attention to form should be implicit or explicit have to be taken online, during task performance. During task performance the teacher has to constantly gauge the nature and the extent of the focus on form to ensure that it does not have a detrimental effect on the communicative flow of the task.

Ellis (2003b: 258) admits that process options, i.e. decisions that are made online during task performance are "challenging". He also cites Skehan in saying that "fine-tuning tasks while they are running is not easy". The fact that decisions have to be taken and implemented in real-time, combined with the many variables that interact during task performance, are reasons why teachers will struggle with performing process options.

The **post-task phase** is the final phase of the task-based methodology proposed by Ellis (2003b: 258). He sees this phase as having three pedagogic goals: creating an opportunity for learners to redo the task, providing an opportunity for reflection on task performance, and lastly to encourage focus on form.

Letting learners do a repeat performance of a task, is seen to have several benefits. Ellis (2003b: 258) cites research studies that indicate that if learners are given the opportunity to redo a task, they are likely to use more complex linguistic constructions, to formulate propositions more clearly and to become more fluent.

Pedagogic options for the post-task phase include letting learners redo the same task under the same conditions, choosing to change the task slightly and allowing learners to perform the task under different conditions, e.g. with different group members, in a smaller or larger group, or publicly (Ellis, 2003b: 258-9).

A second pedagogic option for the post-task phase is to give learners the opportunity to reflect on the task just completed. Learners can give verbal feedback to the teacher or submit feedback in writing. Learners can be asked to give a summary of the task outcome, to evaluate their performance strategies and also to comment on their own performance, including reference to language use (Ellis, 2003b: 259). Ellis also argues in favour of letting learners do a brief evaluation of the task itself. He argues that information obtained from learners can help the teacher with future planning.

The third and last option suggested by Ellis (2003b: 259) for the post-task phase is attention to linguistic form. Ellis sees focus on form during the post-task phase as important, because during this phase learners' attention can be drawn to accuracy, which is often neglected in favour of fluency during task performance. After the task has been completed, more explicit attention can be paid to form without the fear that the communicative flow of the task will be interrupted. Ellis (2003b: 260) states that the pre- and post-task phases allow for more explicit attention to form, of the kind that has come to be known as *focus on forms*, as was discussed in Chapter 2. Although Ellis states that explicit attention to form of the focus on forms kind can be used in the pre- and post-task phases, he maintains that "a focus on form constitutes a valuable during-task option and that it is quite compatible with a primary focus on message content, which is the hallmark of a task" (2003b: 260).

The selection of the linguistic forms that should be focused on can be made through analysis of the learners' language usage during task performance. Ellis states that the teacher should focus on forms that learners used incorrectly during task performance and on forms that learners did not use, but which are considered "useful" or "natural" to use when performing the specific task (2003b: 260).

There are various options available to the teacher for focusing on form(s) during the post-task phase. Ellis (2003b) suggests a review of learner errors, consciousness-raising tasks, production-practice activities and noticing activities. A **review of learners** could be done if the teacher notes down errors learners make during task performance. In the post-task phase, these errors can be pointed out on the board and the class could be asked to help correct them. If the task performance is recorded, the teacher and learners can also pay attention to forms that are identified during the playback of the recording (Ellis 2003b: 260-1). Ellis also suggests the use of **consciousness-raising tasks** during the post-task phase. An example of such a task would be if learners were showed utterances recorded during task performance containing similar mistakes. Learners could then be asked to identify what the mistake is, to correct the sentences and to work on a possible explanation as to why the sentences were incorrect (Ellis, 2003b: 261). Once learner errors have been identified and corrected, learners could be given **production-practice activities**, which could be of the more traditional kind. Learners could be asked to repeat sentences containing the corrected use of a form, to do cloze exercises, to correct jumbled sentences or to read dialogues containing the selected forms. The last option Ellis suggests for focus on forms during the post-task phase is the use of **noticing activities**. Ellis cites the work of Fotos (1994) who found that giving learners dictation exercises provided the necessary opportunities for noticing of specifically targeted linguistic forms (2003b: 261).

As is evident from the above discussion of a task-based methodology, task-based language teaching is a complex undertaking that poses many challenges to the second language teacher. In this section a brief summary was given of the methodologies proposed by Robinson, Lee and Skehan, after which a more detailed discussion was given of the methodology proposed by Ellis (2003b). A salient aspect of Ellis's proposals for a task-based methodology is the importance of maintaining a focus on meaning during task performance. It was pointed out that Ellis is in favour of the inclusion of a focus on form in its narrower sense, especially in the during-task phase. His proposals for the pre- and post-task phases do however make provision

for more overt, traditional attention to form. This more explicit (and even pre-emptive) attention to form is advocated in this study as being the most suitable option for the teaching of isiXhosa as a third language to adult learners – the context in which this is undertaken.

3.2.9 Assessment in Task-based Language Teaching

In the preceding sections of the current chapter it has been argued that tasks are considered the ideal methodological construct for use in the second language classroom. As motivation for the use of tasks in second language teaching, it was argued that tasks provide plentiful opportunities for interaction, which is believed to be ideal because this creates opportunities for the negotiation of meaning (Pica et al., 1993). If learners are taught by using tasks as methodological tool, it follows logically that the form of assessment used should also include tasks. This section will investigate issues related to the use of tasks as an assessment tool.

Ellis (2003b: 279) views assessment tasks as "devices for eliciting and evaluating communicative performances from learners in the context of language use that is meaning-focused and directed towards some specific goal". It is evident from this definition that assessment tasks should be similar to the pedagogic or instructional or teaching tasks used in the classroom. Nunan (2004:138) considers this an important principle of curriculum design and states that "assessment should reflect what has been taught". He is of the opinion that assessment tasks can be the same as teaching tasks, but states that what differs will be what the teachers does with what the learners produce during the task. Nunan states that "task-based tests require candidates to perform an activity which simulates a performance they will have to engage in outside the test situation" (2004:145).

This point is also stressed by Chalhoub-Deville (2001) who emphasises the importance of learner-centeredness, contextualisation and authenticity in assessment tasks. With the term 'learner-centeredness' Chalhoub-Deville indicates that as in the case of instructional tasks, assessment tasks should be designed to elicit learners' own meaning and language and to utilise the background knowledge and experience

that they bring to the task (Chalhoub-Deville, 2001:214). She emphasises contextualisation as important in assessment tasks for the same reasons that it is considered important in second language teaching in general, namely that providing context embeds the task in a situation which can contribute to the real-world orientation of a task. Chalhoub-Deville (2001:215) defines 'authenticity' as "the establishment of a more direct relationship between language use and activities employed in instruction and assessment". Assessing learners who are performing tasks that resemble real-world tasks should provide a good indication of whether learners will be able to perform these tasks successfully in a real-world situation.

A review of literature about the use of tasks for assessment reveals that the task characteristics which have to be taken into consideration for task design are also relevant when designing tasks for assessment. In Section 3.2.5.2 above a detailed discussion was given of the research of Skehan (1996), Robinson (2001a) and Ellis (2003b) on task characteristics that are important for the grading and sequencing of tasks. In Section 3.2.5.2 it was also pointed out that Ellis's framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks is considered the most detailed. Ellis's framework clearly indicates which task characteristics are likely to have an influence on the degree of difficulty of a task.

These same characteristics have to be taken into account when designing tasks for assessment purposes. Skehan (2001) conducted research on the effect of task characteristics on learners' performance during task-based assessments. He studied the effect of five task characteristics on the accuracy, complexity and fluency of learners' performance during assessment tasks. The table on the next page shows how Skehan summarised the results of his studies.

The table on the next page indicates that task characteristics can in certain instances influence the accuracy, complexity and fluency of learner performance during assessment tasks. In most instances, however, changing the task characteristics had no or very little effect. Skehan (2001:183) argues that despite the seemingly insignificant results of this study, the results do indicate that having

varying task characteristics could affect the validity and reliability of marks allocated to learners. Skehan's argument has the implication that the same, or at least similar, characteristics should be used for assessment tasks as for instructional/pedagogical tasks. If the assessment task differs significantly from the pedagogic tasks learners had been exposed to, learners' performance in the assessment task may be affected to a lesser or greater extent. A further implication of Skehan's study is that if learners' performances in task-based assessment are to be compared, learners should be given the same task, or tasks with similar characteristics.

Task characteristic	Accuracy	Complexity	Fluency
Familiarity of information	No effect	No effect	Slightly greater
Dialogic vs. monologic tasks	Greater	Slightly greater	Lower
Degree of structure	No effect	No effect	Greater
Complexity of outcome	No effect	Greater	No effect
Transformations	No effect	Planned condition generates greater complexity	No effect

Summary of the effects of task characteristics on complexity, accuracy and fluency (Skehan, 2001: 181)

Another important characteristic of task-based assessment is that it should be performance referenced. Performance-referenced tests are used with the aim of testing learners' ability to use language in a specific context or situation (Ellis, 2003b:283). Ellis considers assessment tasks of this nature to be holistic and direct in nature. Assessment tasks are deemed holistic because they strive to test learners' use of the whole language system (albeit in a specific context), as opposed to only testing certain aspects of language use, e.g. certain grammatical constructions or pre-selected vocabulary. Assessment tasks are considered direct if they require of students to produce language that is closely related to language that students would be required to produce in a real-world situation (Nunan, 2004:139).

3.3 Tasks in Language for Specific Purposes

Task-based language teaching is considered by many applied linguists to be ideal for use in specific purpose language courses. Long and Crookes (1993), for example, are in favour of the adoption of a task-based approach for specific purpose language courses because of the emphasis on a real-world focus in task-based teaching. Another proponent of the use of tasks in language courses for specific purposes is Chanier (1996) who also advocates the use of multimedia in these courses in order to facilitate a communicative approach to teaching.

This section of the current chapter of this study will be devoted to a discussion of the main characteristics of specific purpose language courses.

3.3.1 Defining 'Language for Specific Purposes'

The term 'language for specific purposes' is often used as an umbrella term to include other types of specific purposes courses. 'Language/English for academic purposes' (L/EAP), 'language for vocational purposes' (LVP) and 'language for occupational purposes' (LOP) are examples of terms which are generally understood to be included in the term 'language for specific purposes'.

The term 'language for specific purposes' is used to contrast this type of course with general-purpose language courses, also known as LGP courses. As the term LSP implies, language courses of this kind are offered to learners who have a specific reason or motivation for wanting to learn the target language. Learners' motivation is often linked to work (they need to communicate about their work or in their work situation with speakers of another language) or study (learners need to read or write academic material or attend lectures in a second language). Because the context in which such learners need to use the target language is limited (or specific) in scope, a general language course would not best serve their needs. Dudley-Evans (1997:58) refers to the work of Robinson (1991) and defines LSP as "goal orientated

and based on needs analysis". He also refers to the fact that LSP courses are subject to time limitations and that the learners are mostly adults.

In attempting to determine the nature of contexts that would warrant a specific purposes language course, Tudor (1997:91) uses the term 'markedness'. He proposes that marked situations are those that average mother tongue speakers of a language are not generally expected to be familiar with, and suggests that these would be the kind of contexts that would warrant an LSP course instead of an LGP course.

An analysis of LSP courses will show that these have unique characteristics, but it will also indicate that there are some features that are shared with LGP courses. One feature that LSP and LGP courses will typically have in common is the aim of enabling learners to achieve 'communicative competence'. Communicative competence is generally accepted to consist of the following competencies: formal/grammatical competence, sociolinguistic/ sociocultural competence, discourse competence, referential competence and strategic competence (Chanier, 1996).

Numerous characteristics of LSP courses can be distinguished. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) state that the main aims of specific purpose language courses "have always been, and remain," determining learners' language needs, analysing texts from the field of work or study learners find themselves in, and preparing learners to effectively perform the language tasks they will be expected to perform in their specific field of work or study. Belcher (2006) identifies "needs assessment, content-based teaching methods, and content-area informed instructors" as being common characteristics of LSP courses. She admits that consensus has not been reached about exactly what these characteristics entail or about how they should be put into practice. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) distinguish between what they call 'absolute' and 'variable' characteristics. Absolute characteristics are that LSP courses are designed to meet the specific needs of the learners, and that the tasks and activities of the learners' field of study or work are incorporated into the

methodology. They consider variable characteristics to be that LSP courses may be targeted at specific disciplines, that a different methodology may be used than is used in LGP courses, and lastly that although LSP courses are usually aimed at learners who already have had some exposure to the target language, LSP can also be aimed at beginner learners.

It is clear from the above that as with second language teaching in general, LSP is a complex field that is difficult to define. In the following sections the researcher will attempt to highlight further characteristics of LSP and to give a brief overview of the most important issues in the field.

3.3.2 Language learning theory and LSP

For LSP courses to be successful, conditions favourable for language learning have to be created. Various theories exist as to what constitutes conditions that are conducive to language learning. Many of these theories are general language learning theories, while some are LSP specific.

Basturkmen (2006) discusses *acculturation theory*, which claims that for learners to be successful in an LSP course, a certain degree of acculturation must take place. This entails that learners must gain access to the environments in which they need to use the target language. The theory claims that if learners are given access to the specific target language communities, they will become socially and psychologically integrated into these communities – which is seen as necessary for learners to be successful in learning the specific-purpose language. Basturkmen draws on the work of Schumann (1986) in saying that the more socially and psychologically integrated into the target situation learners become, the more successful they will be in acquiring the target language. According to Acculturation theory social acculturation is better achieved if the target language group is socially dominant and if the language learner wishes to be assimilated into the target language group (Basturkmen, 2006:86). Another social factor that influences

learners' success in acquiring an LSP is the extent to which learners share facilities with the target group. The more time learners spend within the target group, the better the acquisition of the target language is argued to be. Psychological integration refers to the level to which learners are familiar with the language and culture of the target group. Acculturation theory claims that the more familiar learners are with the culture of the target group, the less of a culture shock learners will experience and the more likely they are to be successful in the acquisition of the target language (Basturkmen, 2006:86).

LSP theory has also been greatly influenced by general language learning theories focusing on the role of input and interaction in language learning. Krashen's Input Hypothesis and Long's Interaction Hypothesis were discussed in detail in Chapter 2 of this study. Earlier in the current chapter it was also discussed how Input and Interaction Hypotheses led to the development of task-based language teaching. Task-based language learning theory has had a big impact on LSP theory and practice. It is widely accepted that task-based language teaching is ideal for use in LSP because of the strong real-world orientation that lies at the heart of TBLT.

Basturkmen (2006) states that in LSP course design real-world tasks or activities are replicated for use in the LSP classroom. As was discussed in Section 3.2.9 above, it is believed that task-based teaching should be assessed in a task-based manner. This is also the case in LSP, but with the difference that in LSP the assessment criteria are set by experts in the specific field. Decisions about LSP assessment criteria are largely determined by non-linguistic, often content-related considerations, while in general language courses task-based assessment places more emphasis on linguistic factors.

Other theories of language learning that have influenced LSP theory and practice focus more on the cognitive processes that learners have to engage in when learning a second language. One such theory is Information Processing Theory, which was mentioned in Sections 2.3 and 2.4 of Chapter 2. Information Processing Theory claims that learners acquire the highly complex system that makes up a language by

first acquiring various simpler processes (Basturkmen, 2006). Through instruction learners are given small pieces of relatively simple information to store in their short-term memory. Because of the limited capacity of the short-term memory, learners can only attend to a limited amount of information at any given time. Through repetition, typically in the form of classroom practice, the information stored in learners' short-term memories gradually becomes imbedded their long-term memory. This happens through a process known as *automatization*. Through practice and repetition learners' explicit or declarative knowledge of the language they are acquiring will over time become implicit or procedural knowledge. Basturkmen (2006:100) states that Information Processing Theory manifests in LSP through attempts to instruct learners about rules, routines, strategies and text patterns. In LSP courses teachers often demonstrate certain discourse elements in isolation, taken from texts that are typical of the real-world situation learners are being prepared for. Together with discourse elements, learners might be instructed about certain language or structural points, often dealt with individually for instruction purposes. Initially learners will have to rely on their short-term memories to store this information. As the LSP course progresses, learners will be able to synthesize the separate pieces of information by means of high-level processing skills.

Another theory of learning that is widely used in LSP course design is that of learning through content (Basturkmen, 2006). In content-based language teaching the syllabus is organized around content, as opposed to language tasks or language elements. In LSP course design, the designers of a content-based syllabus will use a needs analysis to determine what content learners will be expected to grasp and to work with in the real-world situation. Different topics identified in the needs analysis will be used to organize the course content. Language is seen as holistic, and no attempt is made in this kind of teaching to isolate language structures to aid acquisition. The four basic language skills are integrated and these are often practised by making use of texts selected from the real-world situation learners are being prepared for (Basturkmen, 2006).

Vygotskian theories of learning as a sociocultural activity have also influenced theoretical perspectives of learning in LSP research (Basturkmen, 2006:105). Sociocultural theory views learning as being the result of social interaction. This theory advocates the use of group work in order for learners to interact with other learners while learning. It is believed that interaction with other learners and with the teacher will facilitate learning. According to the sociocultural theory of learning other learners and the teacher provide the learner with supportive dialogue during interaction, known as *scaffolding*. After interacting with other learners and receiving scaffolding from the teacher, the learner should be able to work independently (Basturkmen, 2006:15).

Another claim of the sociocultural theory of learning is that learners are active participants in the learning process because they actively construct their own learning environment (Basturkmen, 2006:105). According to this claim, learning amounts to more than providing learners with input and letting them take in the input by means of classroom and other (language) learning activities. It is believed that learners' sociocultural background and their personal goals affect the way they interact with the learning material and with other learners. This perspective is known as *activity theory*. According to activity theory learners' sociocultural background and their personal goals influence how they react during task performance. Basturkmen (2006:106) states that "the key to understanding learning is to find out how individual learners have decided to engage with the task as an activity".

The current section has attempted to give an overview of theoretical underpinnings of how learning is viewed in LSP. The researcher holds the opinion that none of the theories outlined here offer a single, best explanation of how learning takes place in LSP and how this should be reflected in course design. LSP courses should be designed to accommodate a number of learning theories.

3.3.3 The role of needs analysis in LSP

It is generally accepted that in order to provide learners with a specific purposes course a careful study must be made of what their specific needs are. A needs analysis is therefore typically the first step when planning and designing an LSP course. Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) assert that needs analysis is the "cornerstone" of LSP.

Basturkmen (2006) states that the purpose of needs analysis in LSP is to determine the specific variety of language learners will need in the target situation they are being prepared for. Time constraints typically make it impossible to teach learners a general variety of the target language. For this reason needs analyses are employed to determine the specific variety learners are most likely to encounter in the target situation.

There are various facets to needs analysis, e.g. which needs are to be analysed, and also how and when this should be done. West (1997:71) distinguishes between different types of needs analysis. 'Target-situation analysis' includes analysing which language or languages there is a need for; which skills do learners need to master (e.g. speaking and listening); which situations do learners need to use the language in (e.g. socially, or at work, and more specifically which situations at work); as well as what the tasks or functions are that learners would want to be able to perform. Another type of needs analysis proposed by West (1997:71) is 'deficiency analysis', which entails determining which gaps there are in learners' existing target language knowledge or proficiency and their target needs. West also mentions 'strategy analysis' - a term he uses to refer to the kind of decisions that need to be made relating to methodology, based on determining amongst other things learners' preferred learning styles and teaching methods. Lastly, West (1997:71-72) proposes that a 'means analysis' can be done of the environment in which an LSP course is going to be taught. This would entail obtaining information relating to the classroom culture, staffing options, the status of LSP within the institution, and also an analysis of changes that would have to be made in order to present an effective LSP course.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:125) propose that as part of a needs analysis, a linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis should also be conducted of the language that is used in the target situation. This will ensure that the course is sufficiently specific in terms of the tasks and even functions and notions that learners may encounter in the target situation. They also point out that specific purpose courses are seldom long enough to provide learners with all they need, which emphasises the importance of determining learners' linguistic, discourse and genre related needs. Discourse and genre analysis will be discussed in more detail in Section 3.3.4 below.

An important aspect of needs analysis is that course designers need to take decisions about which functions of language should receive attention during the process of needs analysis and the subsequent selection of course content. Basturkmen (2006) points out that in the past LSP course designers often considered the so-called "hard" or referential functions of language to be more valuable to learners. These language functions were given preference because they enable learners to convey facts and knowledge and to give instructions in the target language. According to Basturkmen more recent LSP work is beginning to also value the role of the so-called "soft" or social functions of language. Basturkmen states that more recent studies have indicated that the social functions of language are frequently needed in the working environment. To establish a good working relationship with fellow-workers or goodwill with customers, learners will need to know how to use both the social and referential functions of the target language. Needs analysis therefore needs to pay attention to both kinds of functions.

3.3.4 The role of discourse analysis, speech acts and genre analysis in LSP

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:87) consider the term 'discourse analysis' as being a broader term, including the analysis of speech acts and genre in texts. They define 'discourse analysis' as the analysis of texts at a level above that of sentence level.

Discourse analysis includes analysing texts in terms of cohesive elements between sentences, cohesion between sections of a text, analysing paragraph structure as well as text structure. Discourse analysis is also used for analysing spoken communication (verbal texts) (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:88). Issues such as turn-taking, discourse markers and how conversations are opened and closed are analysed. Discourse analysis is undertaken with the general aim of informing course design, and more specifically to make it possible for LSP course designers or teachers to prepare texts that are similar to what learners will encounter in the target situation.

Discourse analysis for LSP purposes often includes the identification of speech acts. The description of speech acts identified in a text type will provide learners with an indication of the communicative intentions of the speaker (Basturkmen, 2006:48). Speech acts are considered to be similar to language functions, e.g. requesting information, giving a compliment or sympathising. Determining which speech acts or language functions are common to a specific text type, enables the LSP course designer to get a good indication of the language functions learners are likely to encounter in the target situation. These functions can then be incorporated into learning material during the design stage.

Basturkmen (2006:53) draws attention to the fact that when an individual speaker uses a speech act it gives an indication of the communicative purposes of an individual speaker. The use of a genre, on the other hand, gives an indication of a collective or socially derived communicative purpose. Genre analysis focuses "on the regularities of structure that distinguish one type of text from another type [...] and the results focus on the differences between text types, or genres" (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:87). Genre analysis is of particular value for LSP courses because it enables teachers to raise awareness in learners of regular patterns that are found in a specific genre, and also of specific linguistic features that may be typical of a particular genre. Dudley-Evans (1997:62) states that genre analysis is most valuable for LSP courses because it enables teachers to equip learners with the linguistic and

rhetorical tools they need to handle the real-world communication situations they will encounter.

Genre analysis is typically conducted by identifying different sections or segments in texts, known as 'moves' or 'rhetorical stages'. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998:89) "a 'move' is a unit that relates both to the writer's purpose and to the content that s/he wishes to communicate". Despite the use of the word "writer" in this definition, it is important to note that genre analysis is by no means restricted to the analysis of written communication. Conversations, dialogues and even monologues are viewed as verbal texts and can as such also be analysed in terms of genre and moves. The different moves in a genre collectively constitute the overall communicative purposes of a genre (Basturkmen, 2006:56). In Chapter 5 of this study genre analysis will be used to identify the generic moves in sixteen tasks that will be analysed for the purposes of this study.

The moves in a text can be further analysed into 'steps', which are units that indicate how the originator of a text went about establishing the different moves in a text. Belcher (2006) citing the work of Devitt (2004) argues that there are so many possible genres that learners potentially need to know, that it might be more productive to teach learners an awareness of how genres work instead of attempting to teach them specific genres.

Chanier (1996) asserts that "sociocultural competence is not an extra but a necessity". Earlier genre analyses often did not make provision for attention to social or contextual factors. Belcher (2006), however, claims that more recent discourse and genre analysis have, in addition to the analysis of the text itself, begun to pay attention to social factors and also to the context in which a text is to be used. This broadens the concept 'genre' to being more than merely taxonomies listing text structure and templates containing moves and steps found to be common to a particular genre. This attention to context and social factors in genre analysis will make it possible for LSP teachers to also pay attention to sociolinguistic /

sociocultural competence – one of the competencies included in the broader concept of communicative competence, the ultimate goal of communicative language teaching.

The use of genre analysis to inform LSP course design is often criticized. Critics of genre analysis argue that presenting a number of genres to learners for them to imitate, results in a too static and rigid approach for learners to follow. It is argued that learners will only attempt to imitate the language presented as being typical of the particular genre and that this will inhibit their individual expression in the target language. Basturkmen (2006:55) refutes this and claims that "a genre-based perspective on language does not mean that genres are seen as fixed and static". By regularly conducting needs analyses LSP course designers can get updated information on how genres change over time to reflect the needs of the language community they are derived from. Basturkmen further argues that although genres do present learners with a model of language used by a particular language community, with suggestions for e.g. language structures and vocabulary, individual learners do have the option to use different structures or lexical items to achieve their communicative purposes. The researcher holds the opinion that this is especially true in a task-based approach to LSP. During task-production learners probably will resort to the structures and lexical options presented to them as being typical of the genre, but it is also likely that learners, especially more advanced learners, will employ other linguistic features and vocabulary that they have already encountered in other genres and contexts.

3.3.5 LSP Methodology

Although it is relatively easy to distinguish between LGP and LSP courses, it is not easy to determine and describe separate methodologies for these two kinds of second language courses. Basturkmen (2006:114) states that "[i]t is debatable whether ESP has a distinctive methodology". Where distinctions can be pointed out, these are often made with reference to the fact that in the case of LSP courses the content is specific to learner needs, as opposed to being of a general nature.

Because a detailed discussion of second language methodology was given in Chapter 2 of this study, and because task-based methodology was discussed in depth earlier in this chapter, only a brief overview will be provided here of methodological issues related to LSP.

Basturkmen (2006) discusses four methodologies, also called "macro strategies", that are used in LSP courses. Macro strategies are broad methodological principles that include a wide range of classroom techniques (Basturkmen, 2006:113). None of the macro strategies proposed by Basturkmen are unique to LSP courses, but they do however give an overview of the methodologies employed in LSP teaching. Two of the macro strategies discussed by Basturkmen are input based, while the other two focus on the importance of output in second language teaching.

Input-based strategies, as suggested in the term, view exposing learners to language input as the best option to ensure learning. Two Input-based strategies are found: Predominantly Input and Input to Output. Predominantly Input strategies claim that providing learners with sufficient input of the right kind will be sufficient for language learning to take place. No or little emphasis is put on output. Predominantly Input strategies are largely based on Krashen's Input Hypothesis. In addition to providing input, this strategy also entails providing learners with activities that will help them to notice certain linguistic features – so-called consciousness raising activities (Basturkmen, 2006:115).

The other Input-based strategy, Input to Output, still places some emphasis on providing learners with input, but more attention is paid to linguistic form. Basturkmen (2006:117) states that "the focus is on acquiring explicit knowledge of preselected language items". With this strategy learners are first given input and then expected to practice preselected language items. This could include focus on linguistic items or an analysis and discussion of the genre of the preceding input. After the language focus, learners are expected to produce the linguistic items or the genre that had been practised. Basturkmen does not specify what the language focus used in this macro strategy should entail. The researcher holds the opinion

that Focus on Form (in one or more of its many forms as discussed in Chapter 2 of this study) could be used effectively in this strategy to focus learners' attention on linguistic features.

The first of the two Output-based macro strategies discussed by Basturkmen is that of Predominantly Output. This strategy entails that learners are required to perform a task (i.e. to produce language) at the beginning of a lesson or activity (Basturkmen, 2006:124). The rationale with this strategy is that if learners are expected to produce language (i.e. if they are "pushed"), they are forced to negotiate meaning, which is believed to be a prerequisite for language learning to take place. This strategy will clearly not be effective for learners with low proficiency levels in the target language or for learners with little knowledge of the target situation.

The second output-based strategy is known as Output to Input. Basturkmen (2006:126) states that in an output-to-input strategy learners are first required to produce language (e.g. perform a task), after which they are given feedback on their performance. Optionally, this strategy may include giving learners the opportunity to reperform the task after they have received input on their first attempt. The purpose of the feedback is to draw learners' attention to how they could make their performance more native-like. The feedback they receive will enable learners to see how the language they produced differs from that of native speakers of the second language. No specific linguistic items are selected for focus during the input stage of this strategy. The linguistic input learners are given will be based on errors they may have made during the output stage.

The two output-based strategies discussed above, Predominantly Output and Output to Input, fit well within the broad framework of task-based language teaching. With task-based language teaching learners are given information which creates a setting in which they have to produce language. The emphasis on output in the above two macro strategies can therefore readily be accommodated in task-based language teaching. As discussed earlier in this chapter, task-based teaching also makes

provision for Focus on Form. In the Output to Input strategy, the language input given after task performance could be done by means of focus on form.

The four macro strategies discussed above represent a range of theoretical approaches to second language teaching and learning, as was discussed in the previous and the current chapter of this study. Decisions about adopting one of the four macro strategies should be informed by the teacher or course designer's viewpoint of second language learning theory and by practical considerations such as the learners' level of proficiency and LSP needs. It is also possible that the teacher or LSP course designer could decide to use a combination of two (or possibly more) of the above four macro strategies when designing a course and when designing materials and activities. The issue of LSP course design will be discussed in the Section 3.3.6 below.

3.3.6 LSP Course Design

General second language course material is often not specific enough for use in LSP courses. For this reason LSP teachers often design and produce their own material in order to cater for the specific needs of their learners. Numerous factors have to be considered when designing an LSP course, many of which will be informed by the needs analysis done prior to the design phase.

One of the first decisions that have to be taken about a course is about the time allocation (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:146). LSP courses can be short, intensive courses with class time taking up most of the day or the whole day, for a few days. Courses can also be designed to be longer or more extensive, taking up only part of learners' day over a longer period of time.

How intensive or extensive a course is planned to be will also determine how broad or narrow the focus will be. If more time is available a broader focus can be planned, meaning that a large range of target situations, genres and skills can be accommodated. A narrower focus will dictate covering fewer target situations,

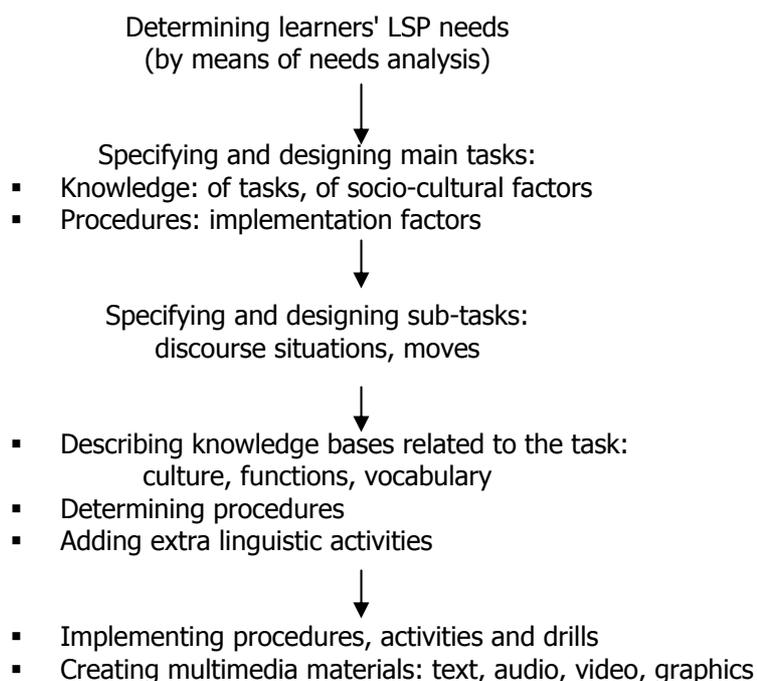
genres and skills. LSP courses with a narrow focus are suitable if the learners have limited needs (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:151), or where learners already have a fair competence in the language, but need to hone, for example, only one or two skills, perhaps in a limited number of, or even a single target situation.

Learner needs identified by means of a needs analysis will also determine the nature of the course material that has to be designed. Where learner needs in terms of target situations are very specific, the material designed will have to cater for this by using carrier content selected from the exact situations identified by the learners (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998:152). Vice versa, more general learner content needs can be catered for by designing material that uses content taken from general target situations.

In addition to taking into account the specific target situations learners need to be able to communicate in, the LSP course designer also needs to consider the skills that will be included in the course. Basturkmen (2006) claims that language skills (i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing) are not specific to a particular target situation, and considers these skills to be "specifiable elements" of the LSP curriculum. The LSP course designer therefore only needs to take decisions about the settings in which these skills will be presented to learners, and also about the micro skills that may be of particular importance in a specific target language situation.

It is important to note that in addition to the above specific factors, the features of LSP course and materials design are similar to the features of course design within a general task-based, communicative approach to second language teaching. Chanier (1996) argues in favour of the adoption of a task-oriented approach to LSP course design and further proposes that multimedia be included in LSP course design. Chanier suggests that a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) course can be designed around tasks that are chosen according to learners' LSP needs. He emphasises the importance of maintaining attention to context and socio-cultural factors in multimedia course design. The diagram on the previous page, adapted

from Chanier (1996:11) indicates different stages involved in LSP course design, including reference to multimedia. The next chapter of this study will be devoted to a detailed discussion of the role of computers and multimedia in language teaching. In Chapter 5 Chanier's model will be adapted and contextualised within a design-based approach to second language research.



Procedure for the design of an LSP course with a multimedia component
(Adapted from Chanier, 1996:11)

Basturkmen (2006) proposes a framework designed for the analysis and comparison of ESP courses. The researcher holds the opinion that this framework can also offer valuable insights for LSP course design. Basturkmen's framework consists of three main sections, termed "language", "learning" and "teaching". Each of these sections represents decisions about theory that the LSP course designer has to consider. Each section also offers options or variables that can be chosen depending on the theoretical stance the course designer wishes to adopt. Decisions about the different options available to the designer will also be informed by practical considerations such as the prior knowledge of the learners and the skills that need to be concentrated on. Basturkmen's framework is set out in the diagram on the next page.

Basturkmen's framework illustrates that the LSP teacher and course designer have to consider options regarding three broad "ideas", namely ideas about how language should be handled in a course, ideas about how learning takes place, and thirdly ideas about how teaching should be undertaken in an LSP course.

Ideas	Types of description	Options
Language	Systems	Sentence grammar Text patterns
	Uses	Speech acts Genres Social interaction Lexico-semantic mappings
Learning	Conditions	Acculturation Input & Interaction
	Processes	Intramental Social
Teaching	Methodologies	Input Input-output Output Output-input
	Objectives	To reveal subject-specific language use To train performance behaviours To develop underlying competencies To foster strategic competence To develop critical awareness

Framework for the analysis of ESP courses (Basturkmen, 2006:150)

The term "language" in Basturkmen's framework refers to theory decisions the LSP course designer has to take about how language is to be presented to learners, in terms of language systems and/or language uses. For decisions about language systems, the course designer has to decide whether to present the language system to the learners in terms of sentence grammar or in terms of text patterns, or both. Basturkmen uses the term "sentence grammar" to refer to overt grammar teaching as would be done in a traditional structural syllabus type. "Text patterns" refers to the view that language can be presented to learners in terms of anticipated text patterns, e.g. situation-problem-solution-evaluation, general-particular and preview-detail.

With the term "Language Uses" Basturkmen refers to options available to the LSP teacher or course designer for exposing learners to e.g. the different functions of language and different purposes that the speaker or writer may have with a particular type of text. This includes speech acts and genre analysis, which were discussed in Section 3.3.4 above. Ways to maintain social interaction (e.g. politeness and social strategies) as well as context-specific word meanings ("lexico-semantic mappings") also form part of Basturkmen's notion of "language uses".

The second item in the "Ideas" column of Basturkmen's framework, "Learning", refers to theoretical options about how learning takes place. Basturkmen discusses conditions for learning and learning processes. She considers acculturation as well as input and interaction as conditions for learning. Under "processes" Basturkmen includes intramental learning (i.e. involving only the individual) and social learning (involving the learner in interaction with other learners). The different theories of learning represented in this section of the framework were discussed in Section 3.3.2 above.

The third and last category in Basturkmen's framework deals with theories of teaching, which are divided into decisions the LSP teacher or course designer has to take regarding methodology and teaching objectives. Issues related to LSP methodology were discussed in Section 3.3.5 above. Under Teaching objectives Basturkmen includes five teaching objectives: to reveal subject-specific language use; to train performance behaviours; to develop underlying competencies; to foster strategic competence; and to develop critical awareness. These objectives are important for LSP course design and will be discussed briefly below.

a) To reveal subject-specific language use: This objective aims to demonstrate to learners how the target language is used in the target situation (Basturkmen, 2006:134). Teachers aiming to meet this objective could provide learners with input in the form of actual texts used in the target situation and then use these to point out language features typical of the text type and the situation. Genre training could also form part of teaching with this objective in mind.

b) To train target performance behaviours/competencies: Basturkmen sees teaching with this objective as teaching which aims to enable learners to perform certain tasks in the target situation at the standard expected of people working in that target situation (2006:135). Teaching with this objective could include teaching learners formulaic expressions and speech acts common to the target situation, as well as some form of language focus (e.g. focus on form) which will help learners to develop the specific competencies needed in the target situation.

c) To develop underlying competencies: Teaching with the objective of developing in learners underlying competencies entails that, apart from teaching the language learners will need in the target situation, learners also be trained in other competencies they will require in the target situation (Basturkmen, 2006:137). Such competencies include concepts and behaviour patterns common to the target situation. In a sense this objective aims teach learners the "culture" of the target situation they are preparing for.

d) To foster strategic competence: Basturkmen (2006:139) sees strategic competence as "the link between context of situation and language knowledge" and defines it as "the means that enables language knowledge and content knowledge to be used in communication". Designing and teaching a course with this objective entails that the designer/teacher will try to create opportunities where learners can be made more consciously aware of how language can be used in a specific context. Even though learners may have the general competence to use the second language in the target situation, this objective aims to make learners explicitly aware of linguistic features they could employ in a specific target situation.

e) To develop critical awareness: It is generally accepted that the purpose of LSP courses is to provide learners with the language skills they will need to function successfully in the target situation. LSP courses are seen as having been successful if learners can later use the second language to perform the functions that are required of them in the target situation. According to Basturkmen (2006:141) the

notion that the objective of LSP courses should be to prepare learners to "fit in" with the status quo of the target situation is increasingly being challenged. Teaching with the objective to develop critical awareness aims to make learners aware of the demands and norms of the target situation, and could include bringing learners to understand that they may not have to uncritically and unconditionally accept these demands and norms. Basturkmen points out that the objective to develop critical awareness could also include making students realise that they might be able to negotiate with members of the target situation in order to bring about certain changes to accommodate them as second language speakers and newcomers to the target situation.

Basturkmen (2006:134) states that LSP courses may be taught with one or more of the above objectives being pursued, each to a lesser or greater extent, and that it is possible that all five objectives could inform decisions about course design.

3.3.7 Concluding remarks on LSP

It is evident from the above discussion that LSP is a multi-faceted field of study that requires well-informed decisions on various critical issues. The success of LSP courses will depend to a large extent on the specificity and the accuracy of the information obtained from the needs analysis done prior to the course.

The challenge for LSP course designers and teachers lies in being able to create and teach courses that are specific enough to meet learners' needs, but which also meet the requirements of good task-based language teaching. A major challenge for the design of an isiXhosa LSP course would be to accommodate the vast differences between the structure of learners' first language (typically either Afrikaans or English) and that of Xhosa (typically learners' third language).

3.4 Conclusion

Various aspects of a task-based approach to second language teaching were investigated in this chapter, after which an overview was given of issues in current literature about second language courses for specific purposes.

It was illustrated that the task-based approach to second language teaching and learning has a solid theoretical grounding and that this approach lends itself ideally to the incorporation of focus on form. The inclusion of focus on form was discussed for each of the three phases that were proposed as part of a task-based methodology. A number of implicit and explicit techniques for focusing on form in a task-based approach were discussed. It was further indicated that assessment in TBLT should make use of tasks that are similar to the tasks learners were exposed to during task-based teaching. Various options for the classification of different types of tasks were reviewed and the grading and sequencing of tasks was investigated. It was pointed out that factors relating to the cognitive complexity of tasks are considered important in this regard. The importance of analysing tasks for their cognitive complexity will be investigated in further detail in Chapter 5 of this study.

In Section 3.3 issues related to the use of tasks in a specific purposes environment were investigated. The importance of needs analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis was pointed out. The information obtained from these types of analysis, together with the cognitive complexity analysis mentioned in the previous paragraph, will provide vital information for course and syllabus design, and will also inform decisions about the incorporation of computers into a task-based approach to second language teaching. In the next chapter, Chapter 4, the use of computers and multimedia in a second language methodology will be reviewed.

CHAPTER 4

COMPUTER-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING: THEORY & METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Over the past two decades, technology has become almost a standard feature in the second language classroom. The vast technological advances made during this time have made it possible for second language teachers who are not technology experts to incorporate multimedia into the teaching and learning environment. A plethora of software has become available which makes it increasingly challenging for teachers to choose material that best suits the specific needs of their learners. The advent of the internet has created even more opportunities for using multimedia in the second language classroom. Many teachers and course designers argue in favour of the inclusion of CALL (Computer-assisted Language Learning) into the curriculum by drawing attention to the opportunities CALL creates for providing learners with a range of types of input. Making technology available in the second language classroom is, however, no guarantee that learners will be more successful. This point is emphasized by Healy (1999), cited in Levy and Stockwell (2006: 191), in saying that "technology alone does not create language learning any more than dropping a learner into the middle of a large library does". A well-researched CALL methodology is needed to maximize the effectiveness of incorporating technology into the second language classroom. Decisions about the inclusion of technology into the second language syllabus should be guided by established methodological principles of second language teaching and learning (Doughty & Long, 2003).

Despite the availability of multimedia material, and the enormous potential thereof for use in second language teaching, there are researchers who argue that learning a second language has not necessarily become easier and that learners have not become noticeably more successful. Skehan (2003) argues that given the wealth of

input available to learners through CALL programs and particularly the Internet, one would assume there would be ever-increasing numbers of successful second language learners. This does not appear to be the case. Skehan raises the point that rich input alone is not sufficient and argues that more structured opportunities need to be created for learners to focus on form.

This chapter explores issues related to the incorporation of technology into the second language-learning classroom. The term 'CALL' is defined in Section 4.2, after which an overview will be given in Section 4.3 of the different theories of learning and second language learning that have influenced CALL design and practice. Section 4.4 is devoted to a discussion of research perspectives that have been used to conduct CALL research. In Section 4.5 the use of task-based language teaching and learning in a CALL environment is investigated, including reference to why task-based CALL is considered beneficial for second language acquisition. Input enhancement and focus on form are discussed in Section 4.6, with reference to input salience, input modification and input elaboration. Section 4.7 is devoted to a discussion of the role of interaction in CALL, including interpersonal communication via computer and also learner-computer interaction. In Section 4.8 the importance of creating opportunities for learners to produce language is discussed, after which issues related to focus on form in a task-based CALL methodology are investigated in Section 4.9.

4.2 Defining 'CALL'

The acronym 'CALL' stands for "computer-assisted language learning". Levy (1997) defines CALL as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". Chapelle (2005a:743) states that the acronym "CALL" refers to "the broad range of activities associated with technology and language learning". The term "CALL" is generally used to include reference to the use of multimedia and technology in language learning and teaching. Alternative terms such as "TELL" (Technology-enhanced Language Learning), "CAI" (Computer-aided instruction), "CALT" (Computer-assisted Language Teaching) are not as widely

used and recognized in recent literature as "CALL". Levy & Hubbard (2005) view "CALL" as a "global descriptor" and a "general label", and consider it "to stand for the use of technology in language teaching and learning". Egbert (2005:4) defines CALL as "learners learning language in any context with, through, and around computer technologies".

In this study "CALL" will be used to include the use of multimedia, i.e. text on computer, digital audio and video, hypertext, database technology, e-mail and the Internet, used in the second language classroom, or outside the classroom as part of the second language curriculum.

4.3 Theoretical influences on CALL design and practice

As has been the case with second language learning and teaching in general, numerous theories have influenced the way in which CALL has developed over the years. The theories that have contributed to shape current beliefs and research regarding second language learning have also influenced CALL research, design, methodology and practice. In this section a brief overview will be given of the theories that have influenced CALL.

Early CALL (as used in the 1970s and 1980s) largely drew on the behaviourist and structural views of language learning. CALL activities of this type generally consisted of grammar exercises and aimed at providing learners with opportunities for drill and repetition. Language structures were often dealt with out of context. This type of CALL was practised even after mainstream language acquisition theory had started emphasizing the important role of input and interaction in language learning. Although teachers had adopted the more communicative approach to second language teaching and designed their classroom methodology and activities to reflect this, much CALL from the 1980s and even 1990s still focused largely on providing learners with opportunities to practise grammar.

As CALL research developed, designers started looking more to second language research studies for answers about how to design more effective CALL material. One of the theories that had a major impact on CALL, as it had had on general L2 practice, was the Input Hypothesis, as originally posited by Krashen. In following Krashen's Input Hypothesis, CALL designers increasingly began to view the computer as a valuable source of input for the second language learner. According to Levy & Stockwell (2006:113) Krashen's Input Hypothesis was further developed by Long, who stated that more than input was needed for successful language acquisition. Long posited that in addition to input, interaction and learner output were also required. Levy & Stockwell (2006:113) state that Long's Interaction Account was refined to include reference to the role of attention and noticing, as well as the role of interactional modifications and focus on form. Levy & Stockwell (2006) also state that these refinements to Long's Interaction Account have "helped to motivate and sustain the interactionist tradition". Up to the present day, the Interaction Account has remained one of the most comprehensive theories of second language learning, and as such has also influenced CALL research and theory. The Interaction Account "provides the CALL researcher with important questions, research methods, and an explanatory framework for studying second language learning" (Levy & Stockwell, 2006:113).

Over the past decade interactionist theory has evolved to include focus on form. Theorists such as Doughty and Williams proposed that in addition to input and opportunities for interaction, second language learners also need pedagogical interventions that will draw their attention to linguistic form. (Focus on form was discussed in detail in Chapter 2 of this study.) Doughty and Williams proposed that the communicative, meaning-focused flow of the language lesson should be maintained and that short interventions be made to focus learners' attention on structural aspects (Levy & Stockwell, 2006:115). Focus on form was adopted into CALL theory, and many CALL designers argue that with the multimedia capacity of computers available today, the computer is the ideal medium through which focus on form can be achieved in the second language classroom. On-screen help, e.g. in the form of word definitions, translations or a brief grammar explanation, can be made

available to learners. These optional, short interventions do not disrupt the communicative nature of the task the learner is engaged in while using the computer.

Another theory of language learning that has influenced CALL, is Sociocultural Theory. Originally proposed by Vygotsky, Sociocultural Theory claims that learning is not something that learners should do in isolation, but rather through interaction with others (Levy & Stockwell, 2006). Vygotsky introduced the term 'Zone of Proximal Development' with which he claimed that "learners benefit most from tasks that are just beyond their individual capabilities" (Levy & Stockwell, 2006:117). Vygotskian theory claims that learners are most likely to encounter tasks in their Zone of Proximal Development if they are involved in tasks with other learners who are more knowledgeable and experienced than they are. Vygotskian theory has influenced CALL theory in the sense that in CALL practice great emphasis is placed on learner interaction – either with other learners by means of the computer, or between the learner and the computer. Because of the influence of Sociocultural Theory, the level of interactivity is considered one of the most important features to consider when selecting or authoring CALL courseware.

The last theory that will be discussed in this section is Constructivism. Levy & Stockwell (2006) point out that the term 'constructivism' is a very broad term that encompasses a wide range of views about learning in general. The basic tenet of constructivist theory is that knowledge is constructed, and the central role of the learner in constructing meaning is emphasized. The influence of constructivism on CALL theory can be seen in the strong emphasis that is placed in CALL on learner involvement in the learning process, and in the collaborative tasks involving the computer, which have become a standard feature of recent CALL programs.

From the above discussion it is clear that CALL has been influenced by various theoretical perspectives about language acquisition, second language learning and

about learning in general. The researcher holds the opinion that the various theories each has contributed positively to CALL research and CALL practice and argues in favour of an eclectic approach in this regard. Regarding the utilization of theory to inform CALL teaching and practice, the researcher argues in favour of a pragmatic approach. It is important to take factors such as learners' proficiency and communication needs into consideration when considering theoretical options to inform CALL design and pedagogical decisions. Finally, the researcher proposes that for CALL design and practice, theory should not be viewed as something that prescribes exact actions to the CALL designer and teacher. Theory should rather be viewed as offering general guidelines that can be used to take informed decisions about CALL design and practice.

4.4 CALL Research Perspectives

CALL research is a relatively new field of enquiry compared to other fields of study related to second language teaching and learning. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the study of current CALL practices reveals numerous approaches to the incorporation of technology into the second language classroom. A review of research conducted on CALL will also make it evident that the research is undertaken from a variety of theoretical perspectives. Despite this wide range of research perspectives, the exact nature of CALL procedures and methodology remains largely unexplained. Egbert (2005:3) states that "a specific picture of what CALL is and does has not emerged". The current section will give an overview of different research perspectives that are used to investigate the nature of CALL.

In an attempt to define CALL research, Egbert (2005) discusses the various elements involved in the CALL environment. She proposes that CALL research should pay attention to each of the different elements in order to gain insight into the phenomenon as a whole. The first element that should be included according to Egbert, is the context in which learning takes place. This is not necessarily the classroom only, but can include the language laboratory, computer work areas in a

library, Internet cafés or even students' homes. Secondly, Egbert (2005) proposes that CALL research should study the different technologies available to the language learner. These include not only computers, but also all peripherals and related technology, e.g. cell phones (including text messaging), digital cameras and video recorders, scanners and printers. These devices have the potential to engage all modes of communication, i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing. The third element in the CALL environment that Egbert includes is the task or activity that the teacher and learners are engaged in. Egbert draws attention to the content, structure and organization of the task and states that these task variables can have a major impact on what happens in the CALL environment. Task-based CALL will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.5 below.

In the previous paragraph the different elements in the CALL environment that should be the focus of CALL research were identified. Egbert (2005) states that much CALL research to date has focused on the effect of incorporating technology into the learning environment. In the past, many research studies investigated the effectiveness of using CALL by comparing the results of learners using CALL with that of learners not exposed to technology. Other studies compared the effectiveness of certain courseware packages compared to others. Egbert (2005) claims that in order to ensure a better understanding of CALL, a more detailed look has to be taken at the processes involved, in addition to studying the role of the elements identified in the previous paragraph. Egbert emphasizes the importance of studying the context as a whole, and of studying various contexts so that comparisons can be made. Issues that should be investigated in CALL research include which aspects of language learners are learning, at what rate and pace they are learning, and what causes learning in a CALL environment (Egbert, 2005:6). Egbert states that the perspective from which research is undertaken is important, because this will determine the nature of the research questions posed and influence the methodology used. The remainder of this section will be devoted to an overview of prominent CALL research perspectives.

4.4.1 Interactionist Second Language Acquisition Theory

As stated earlier, Interactionist second language acquisition theory has been one of the most influential and fruitful approaches to second language teaching research. Interactionist theory has also remained prominent in CALL research over the past two decades. Chapelle (2005b:56) claims that the perspectives that interactionist theory contributes to CALL research are the "most predominant".

Interactionist CALL research draws on the suggestions for pedagogy that have been developed over the years within the interactionist tradition, and tests these within the CALL environment. Studies are undertaken to investigate whether the benefits of instructed interactionist SLA (i.e. negotiation of meaning, providing enhanced input and creating opportunities to direct attention to linguistic form) can also be found when using the interactionist approach in the CALL environment. Chapelle (2005b) states that the solid theoretical base of interactionist second language theory and the useful constructs and methods that have been developed from it, contribute to the success of interactionist enquiry in CALL. According to Chapelle (2005b) there are also certain limitations for CALL when using an interactionist approach for research. One such limitation is that traditional interactionist theory focuses on face-to-face interaction. For CALL research different constructs may need to be created in order to cater for other types of interaction that are found within the CALL environment. A similar limitation is that interactionist theory was developed for a traditional classroom setting, leaving this approach lacking in terms of constructs that can be used to describe the numerous types of learning environments, inside and outside of the classroom, that are found when using CALL (Chapelle, 2005b). Chapelle points out another limitation of using the interactionist approach to CALL research, namely that interactionist theory and research have placed a strong emphasis on investigating the acquisition of vocabulary and syntax, with relatively little attention being paid to how pragmatics are acquired. Chapelle considers pragmatics to be of particular importance in CALL and states that CALL research, when conducted from an interactionist point of view, should also investigate the acquisition of pragmatic aspects of language acquisition in CALL.

4.4.2 Sociocultural Theory and CALL

Developed from Vygotskian theory, sociocultural theory of language learning focuses on the role of tools (e.g. the computer) in language learning, on the role of interaction between learners and between learners and tools (so-called social learning) as well as the developmental process learners go through or are subject to when learning a language (Warschauer, 2005). This has the implication that CALL research undertaken from a sociocultural perspective will focus, to a lesser or greater extent, on each of these aspects of Vygotskian theory. Firstly, CALL research done from a sociocultural perspective will investigate the role of the computer as a tool in language learning, and in particular how the introduction of a tool transforms the language learning process and learners' language use. Secondly, a sociocultural perspective on CALL research will focus research activity on the social factors involved when using computers in second language learning. Warschauer (2005) points out that CALL research conducted from a sociocultural theory perspective will investigate computer mediated communication in terms of how learners adopt others' linguistic chunks in their own communication and how learners adapt their writing when communicating with others via the computer. In the third instance, concerning the developmental processes involved, CALL research conducted from a sociocultural perspective will investigate the broader setting in which CALL is used. According to Warschauer (2005) the social, historical and cultural contexts need to be investigated when conducting CALL research from a sociocultural perspective. The rationale is that understanding the broader context in which learners operate will provide insight into how the use of computers will impact the language teaching and learning situation. Proponents of the sociocultural approach to CALL research will, for example, argue that a thorough understanding of how learners have developed socioculturally, will provide insight into how learners will respond to the incorporation of technology into the language learning environment. Warschauer (2005:48) comments that technology is a tool which "mediates and transforms human activity", and claims that using a sociocultural approach to CALL research can provide insight into how this happens in terms of the broader social and cultural context.

4.4.3 Situated Learning

Situated learning is a learning theory that, like socio-cultural theory discussed above, was developed from Vygotsky's social learning theory, and that aims to describe learning and human activity from a sociocultural perspective (Yang, 2005). The main premise of situated learning theory is that learning is not only an internal, cognitive process, but rather something that is co-constructed in the mind and through interaction with other people. The term 'situated' learning is taken from the central premise that learning is linked to a particular sociocultural situation or setting.

Yang (2005) states that the terms 'social world', 'person', 'learning content' and 'activity' are used to indicate the key aspects of situated learning theory. Situated learning theory claims that in order to understand how learning happens, each of these aspects involved in the learning situation needs to be studied and understood. 'Social world' refers to the social, cultural and historical context in which learning takes place, also referred to as 'the community of practice'. The learning context is made up of the 'persons' (i.e. the learners and other people whom the learners may interact with), the 'learning content' (i.e. how the person grows in and transforms his or her knowledge or skills), and lastly the 'activity', which deals with how the learner participates in the community of practice (Yang, 2005). According to situated learning theory, a beginner learner (or newcomer to a particular community of practice) initially participates peripherally and will over time become a full participant of the community of practice (Yang, 2005). It is believed that learning takes place through, or is situated in, the interactions of the members of the community of practice.

Yang (2005) argues in favour of using situated learning theory as perspective for conducting research in a CALL environment. Yang argues that investigating the sociocultural context of a CALL environment, including the social, historical and cultural background of the participants, will provide insight into how these factors interact to influence the teaching and learning taking place in the CALL environment (2005:159). Yang also argues that investigating learning from the point of view of peripheral participation in a community of practice can be used fruitfully for CALL

research, stating that this will provide insight into the power relationships between participants in a CALL environment and how these influence learning.

4.4.4 Design-based Research

Design-based research is a relatively new research methodology and perspective, developed during the 1990s by education researchers who felt that existing research methods and techniques, most of which originated in other disciplines, were not optimally effective for conducting research in an education environment (Yutdhana, 2005). The rationale behind the development of design-based research was to find a research methodology that linked theory and practice more directly. Yutdhana (2005) states that although design-based research is categorized as being a research methodology, it can also be seen more generally as an approach to research, i.e. a research perspective.

According to Yutdhana (2005:170) design-based research was developed to investigate and explain "how, when and why educational innovations work in practice". Yutdhana states that design-based research has two goals, namely to design optimally functioning learning environments, and to develop theories of learning. In order to achieve these goals, design-based research makes use of continuous cycles of design, implementation, evaluation, analysis and redesign. Another important characteristic of design-based research is that it investigates real learning environments with the aim of explaining how these environments work, why they are successful or not (Yutdhana, 2005). Unlike many other research perspectives, design-based research is not conducted by merely testing hypotheses in order to prove a theory. Yutdhana (2005) also states that a unique feature of design-based research is that the participants (e.g. designers, teachers and even learners) are considered co-participants in the process of design and analysis.

Design-based research is considered an effective research methodology or perspective for conducting CALL research, because of the strong emphasis on characterizing actual learning environments that are in a constant state of change, as is the case in CALL environments, which often call for constant analysis and redesign,

followed by the re-implementation of adapted material or pedagogy. Yutdhana (2005) states that design-based research can be used to investigate human interaction by means of the computer. Furthermore, a design-based research perspective is considered a worthwhile option for CALL because of the emphasis in design-based research on investigating the context in which learning takes place. The context includes studying the role of the learners and the teacher, the activities undertaken in the classroom, collaboration between learners, and also the interaction between learners via computer or face-to-face.

According to Yutdhana (2005) design-based research can take the form of a design narrative describing the design process and the context in which it is undertaken. Data collection can be conducted by means of traditional methods such as classroom observation, field notes, surveys, interviews and tests (Yutdhana, 2005). The end product of a design-based research study undertaken in a CALL environment will not only be the designed artefact (the actual courseware), but a rich description of the design and implementation processes, as well as of the context in which the research and implementation were conducted.

The above section aimed to give a brief overview of the major perspectives that are used for research in CALL. It is clear from the above discussion that different research perspectives will lead to different research questions and hence different research findings and interpretation of results. For this reason it is important to investigate different perspectives before deciding on a particular point of departure for CALL research.

Research using the perspectives discussed above, can be conducted using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. According to Huh and Hu (2005) qualitative research methods have dominated in CALL research. They argue that qualitative research alone does not provide in depth explanation and understanding of a field of research as complex as CALL. For this reason Huh and Hu suggest a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods for studying the use of technology in the second language classroom (2005:18-19). They further argue that

CALL research should not only aim to provide proof of the effectiveness of using technology in the second language classroom, but that CALL research should also bring to light the limitations of using technology for second language teaching, in order to provide a balanced picture of this complex issue.

In Chapter 5 below design-based research will be adopted for use in this study for the development of a procedure for the development of a CALL curriculum for a specific purposes course.

4.5 Task-based Language Teaching in CALL

Task-based language teaching was discussed in the previous chapter of this study. The current section will focus on issues related to the use of tasks in a CALL environment.

4.5.1 The contribution of CALL research to the theory of task-based language teaching and learning

In Chapter 3 various researchers' frameworks for the analysis of language tasks were discussed in detail in an attempt to illustrate the nature of language tasks and of task-based language teaching. This section will be devoted to a discussion aspects of task-based language teaching and learning in a CALL environment that can contribute to a better understanding of task-based language teaching and learning in general.

The table below (cited with minor changes from Chapelle (2003)) gives an overview of various task features. The right-hand column lists dimensions from technology research that provide further insight into the nature of task-based language teaching in general, which will be discussed below. The information listed in the columns dedicated to the frameworks of Pica *et al.* and Skehan was discussed in Chapter 3 of this study and will therefore not be covered again in the present section.

	Task Aspect	Task Feature	From Pica <i>et al.</i>	From Skehan	From technology research
1	Topics and actions	What is the task goal?	Communication goal: goal orientation and outcome option		
		What are the topics?			(1) Range, interestingness, and currency of topics
		What processes are used to develop the topics?	Interactional activity: interaction requirement	Communicative stress: control	(2) + Types of interaction; level of control in searching and gathering information
		How cognitively complex are the topics and processes?		Cognitive complexity: cognitive familiarity and processing	(3) Familiarity with genre processes
		Where does the task take place?			(4) Physical location of communication
2	Participants	Who are the participants?	Learners		(1) + Teachers, other language users, computers
		What are their interests with respect to language learning?			(2) Reasons for studying target language
		What is their experience in using technology?			(3) Knowledge of computer use, including typing
		How many participants are engaged?		Communicative stress: scale (number of participants)	(4) + Potential audience not immediately participating
		What is the relationship among the participants?	Relationships relative to information: interactant roles, interactant relationship		(5) + Relationship relative to cultural background, interests and authority of others
3	Mode	What are the modes of language use?		Communicative stress: reading/writing/speaking/listening	(1) + Non-linguistic moves
		How quickly must the language be processed?		Communicative stress: scale (length of texts) Communicative stress: time pressure for task	(2) + Time pressure for move during interaction
4	Evaluation	How important is it to complete the task and do it correctly? How will learners' participation be evaluated?		Communicative stress: stakes	

Task framework accounting for factors in Pica et al. and Skehan's frameworks in addition to those suggested by research on technology-based tasks. Adapted from Chapelle (2003).

The task aspect dealing with topics and actions is defined in terms of five task features relating to the goal of the task, the topics the task covers, the processes used to develop the topics, the cognitive complexity of the topics and the processes involved in task performance, as well as the location of the task participants during task performance. As indicated in the table above, Chapelle (2003) proposes that from the perspective of CALL research and practice, an additional four factors should be considered when analysing the topics and actions in second language tasks. Firstly, Chapelle indicates that regarding topics of tasks, great care should be taken to ensure that the range of task topics is wide enough to ensure that learners will find the tasks interesting and current. A second factor relating to topics and actions, that of the process, is also informed from a CALL perspective. Chapelle (2003:140) states that the types of interaction (between learners on the one hand, and between the learners and the computer on the other) as well as the level of control learners have over searching for information ought to be taken into consideration when determining task features. The third respect in which technology can inform the topics and actions involved in a task concerns the cognitive complexity of the topics and processes needed to perform the task. Chapelle (2003:141) indicates that task processes could include knowledge of a genre, e.g. taking notes during a lecture or providing a customer with product information. Technology could be utilized to help learners with a certain genre by for instance giving learners written text support (e.g. via the internet) while performing an oral production task. Lastly, the location of the task can also be influenced by incorporating technology in the task. Learners can for example be in class, engaged in face-to-face communication while using the Internet to obtain information necessary for the performance of the task, or they could be at home. Whether the task requires synchronous or asynchronous communication to a large extent will determine the location of the learners.

The second task aspect in the table above is that of the participants in the task. Also in this aspect research conducted in CALL environments can contribute to a better understanding of the construct 'language task'. Generally the participants in a language task are the learners. Chapelle (2003) states that research has found that CALL developers cannot assume that the task participants will be the learners only.

The teacher and the computer are also possible participants who need to be considered when studying task features. Further important aspects about the participants in a task are their reasons for wanting to learn the target language and their knowledge of using a computer, including their typing skills. Chapelle also states that with CALL tasks the task developer should consider not only who the immediate task participants are, but also the potential participants. Learners' output in an e-mail task or a synchronous chat performed by two or more learners could potentially be used as input for another group of participants. Chapelle proposes that knowledge about the potential participants in a task should be included as a task feature because this could influence the design of the task. The final task feature related to the participants that Chapelle proposes concerns the relationship among the participants. Chapelle (2003:142) states that in addition to knowledge about who holds what information (a task feature proposed by Pica et al.), the relationship between participants in terms of their cultural backgrounds and also the status of learners relative to each other is an important task feature. Learners' interest in performing a task or their goals when performing a task, relating to their expectations of other learners in the task, will also influence the relationship amongst participants and therefore also constitutes an important task feature.

The third aspect listed in the table above is that of the mode of the task, which refers to the language skills required for the task. Mode is normally associated with task features such as whether the language used involves reading, speaking, writing or reading, or a combination of these. Chapelle (2003:142) proposes that when task performance includes the use of computers, non-linguistic moves should be included as a possible task feature. This includes performing actions such as using a mouse to select different options or pressing ENTER. Regarding the mode of language used for task performance Chapelle also proposes that the time pressure on participants between different moves or turns in task performance should be included as a possible task feature.

The fourth and final aspect listed in Chapelle's table deals with task evaluation. Although Chapelle does not propose any specific task feature related to task

evaluation from the CALL perspective, she emphasizes that evaluation is equally important in the CALL environment. As with general task performance, research indicates that learners performing tasks using technology while they are aware that their performance will subsequently be evaluated are more likely to focus their attention on their language use (Chapelle, 2003:142).

From this discussion of Chapelle's framework, it is clear how research into technology-based tasks has contributed to general task-based theory by providing additional task features that should be considered during the task design stage. The framework also provides an overview of the task features that have to be taken into account when designing language tasks for use within a CALL environment.

4.5.2 The value of task-based CALL for second language acquisition

This section will investigate reasons why technology-based language tasks are considered beneficial for second language acquisition.

The first way in which computers and all related technology can contribute to second language acquisition is by providing learners with input needed for task planning and performance. Skehan (2003) states that the computer is a potentially huge source of input for teachers and learners, especially if tasks are designed in such a way that learners are required to access information and language via the Internet.

Computers are further considered valuable for second language acquisition because of the possibilities incorporating text, sound and visuals. The technological advances of the past decade have made it possible and affordable to include sound, images and video in computer-based learning material. Skehan also points out that real-time streaming video will make it possible for learners to communicate with learners and other target language speakers who are in another location.

Another important contribution that computers can make to second language acquisition lies in the potential for using technology to focus on form within the context of language tasks (Skehan, 2003). Skehan reiterates the argument that

second language learners need more than just input, and that opportunities have to be created for learners to attend to form while they are involved in meaning-based communication activities, i.e. tasks. As discussed in Chapter 3 of this study, Skehan argues that the characteristics of a task will influence the complexity, accuracy and fluency of the language that learners engage in during task performance. Task complexity and task accuracy concern formal aspects of language, and therefore task features that influence complexity and accuracy in a task will influence the extent to which learners focus on form. If tasks are easier (e.g. if there are fewer participants or if learners can work with concrete rather than abstract information) learners will have more attentional capacity available to concentrate on form. The computer can be employed to reduce task difficulty, i.e. to make tasks easier, for example, by serving as a source of readily available information needed to perform a task. More directly, the computer can also be utilized to facilitate focus on form, e.g. by providing learners with enhanced input. The vast potential of the computer to enhance input will be discussed in the next section.

4.6 Input enhancement and Focus on Form in CALL

The pivotal role of input in the language classroom is one of the fundamental issues in second language teaching and has been mentioned several times in this study. Mention has also been made of the need to enhance input for learners in order to facilitate language learning. In this section various options will be investigated for the enhancement of input using technology.

As mentioned in Chapter 2 of this study, the term 'Input enhancement' was introduced by Sharwood-Smith. Input enhancement entails that classroom materials are designed with the aim of making learners notice targeted linguistic features or lexical items. Input can be enhanced by relatively simple modifications to learning material, e.g. highlighting a grammatical form in a text, repeating a grammatical form in a text, adding pictures to text, including translations of difficult words or new vocabulary and also by simplifying texts (Chapelle, 2003).

Chapelle (2003) distinguishes between three types of input enhancement and proposes various options for how this can be achieved in a CALL environment. The three types are input salience, input modification and input elaboration.

4.6.1 Input Salience

Input salience using CALL entails that technological means are employed to draw learners' attention to preselected linguistic forms or lexical items within the input. This type of focus on form aims to ensure that learners will notice new or difficult forms or lexical items. As explained in Chapter 2, noticing is considered an important stage in second language development. Skehan (2003) states that in this acquisitional stage learners should notice a new form, and after noticing and paying attention to the form, integrate it into their existing interlanguage.

Chapelle (2003:41) suggests that input can be marked or repeated to achieve salience. In the CALL environment input can be marked by highlighting the targeted structures (e.g. using a bold font type), by printing the words in another colour or by means of underlining. The marked items could be treated as a hyperlink, i.e. learners could click on the item to view a glossary, a definition, a translation or to hear the item being pronounced. In aural input, the targeted structures can be marked by pronouncing them emphatically or by allowing a slight pause after the marked items. Chapelle states that research indicates that marking linguistic forms or vocabulary items alone has only limited value. Marking input will produce better results if this method is combined with glossing or brief explanations of highlighted items. This opinion is supported by Rott (2007) who found that even repeated visual enhancements such as bolding alone do not contribute to word encoding.

A second method that can be used to make input more salient is that of repetition (Chapelle, 2003:42). According to Chapelle, increasing the frequency of targeted items in input will contribute to learners noticing the intended items. How often an item or feature needs to be repeated will depend its relative importance the text or the task. Chapelle points out that with the repetition of items on a computer, it is up to the learner to make use of the assistance offered with the repeated items. The

number of times an item is repeated in a text may vary greatly from the number of times a learner pauses to access information about the item or to listen to the pronunciation provided with the repeated item. To ensure that learners make optimal use of repeated input, the CALL task designer may need to build in mechanisms to ensure that learners do make use of the information offered with the repeated items. One such mechanism could be to add an on-screen quiz that learners need to take before they can move on to the next section.

4.6.2 Input modification

The second method to enhance input that Chapelle proposes, is input modification. Chapelle (2003:45) defines input modification as "the provision of an accessible rendition of the L2 input". In practice, this entails making changes to the original, authentic input that will help learners to understand the text. For the design of CALL materials this could include adding images to text to facilitate meaning, providing translation in the learners' first language, making dictionary definitions in the target language available and simplifying the original text to better suit the learners' level of understanding. Images can be added to texts by means of hypermedia links that will provide learners with an image of the targeted word or a video clip that depicts the meaning of the selected items. Chapelle (2003:47) points out that with more abstract words or sentence meanings it may be difficult to use images to enhance input and suggests that in such cases other forms of input modification or input enhancement may produce better results. Chapelle also cites research that indicates that using imaging in combination with other forms of input modification will improve the likelihood that learners will retain the targeted words or structures.

The second kind of input modification proposed by Chapelle, is the provision of first language translations (2003:48). Chapelle states that the belief that learners should use their knowledge of the target language to negotiate and obtain the meaning of vocabulary items in the target is beginning to make way for acceptance of the fact that learners' first language can be a quick and effective way to provide them with modified input. In a CALL environment, target language translations can be provided

by means of hypertext links with the translations popping up if the learners clicks on the word or slides over the word with the mouse pointer.

Providing learners with word definitions in the second language is another type of input modification suggested by Chapelle (2003). Word definitions in the target language can be given in the text, in the form of a glossary appearing in the margin or by means of a multiple choice option in which learners are given two or three definitions in the target language and then expected to guess which is the correct definition. Chapelle states that the rationale behind the last option is that researchers hypothesize that learners may remember word meanings better if the method used to present it to them requires some mental activity on the part of the learners. Chapelle (2003:49) cites research done by Watanabe in 1997 which found that the best of the three options mentioned above was providing learners with a straightforward gloss. Chapelle points out that Watanabe's study was done using paper-based material and comments that testing with CALL material has not yet been conducted. The third option, requiring of learners to guess the correct word meaning from two or three options may be effective in on the computer because the learner could be given the correct option immediately (e.g. by clicking for the answer).

The third type of input modification suggested by Chapelle (2003) is the simplification of texts. This involves that the sentence structure and the vocabulary are modified to make the text more accessible to the second language learner. This could be done by using shorter sentences, by using general rather than technical vocabulary, by limiting the use of idiomatic expressions and by limiting the use of embedded clauses. Chapelle (2003:50) states that research studies have found that text simplification is effective for helping learners to grasp the basic meaning of a text, but that this method is less effective for texts that require of learners to pick up the inferential meaning. Providing learners with simplified texts does not specifically require the use of CALL technology and therefore with this type of input modification the advantages of using CALL are less definite.

4.6.3 Input elaboration

Input elaboration involves adding to the original text in order to make the text understandable for the second language learner. Instead of removing vocabulary or sentence structures that might make a text difficult for learners to understand, the input is elaborated on by adding phrases that serve to explain or define the difficult parts (Chapelle, 2003:51). Chapelle states that the rationale behind input elaboration is that structural and lexical complexity should be retained because learners need rich linguistic input in order to facilitate acquisition. In paper-based material the elaboration entails that the original text is reproduced, with the elaborations added to create a new text. In a CALL environment the original text can be retained, with elaboration added by means of hyperlinks. This is an important benefit in terms of authenticity of learning material.

The three methods for input enhancement discussed above provide an overview of the options available to the second language teacher. Chapelle (2003) states that when the CALL materials developer has to choose between the different options, it is important to note that different aspects of the target language will require different forms of enhancement. She also stresses that a combination of input enhancement options should be considered for optimum results. For example, to assist learners with vocabulary acquisition, using repetition (input salience) might be a good option. To aid understanding of new vocabulary, repetition (input salience) could also be used in combination with added images and or translations in the first language provided in the learners' first language (input modification). In addition, the original could be elaborated on by adding clauses that will clear up complex sentence structures. All three types of input enhancement can therefore be considered for use in the same CALL task.

An important issue in the design of CALL input enhancement is that a definite link between the form or vocabulary item in the text and the enhancement added has to be created (Chapelle, 2003:54). If the link between the item and its enhancement is not obvious to the learner, the enhancement is likely to be less successful. In the multimedia environment this entails that enhancements such as word glosses,

images and word translations and definitions in the first or the target language should be done as close as possible to the word or linguistic item which is being enhanced. To avoid cluttering the computer screen, the researcher suggests that most enhancements should be done by means of hyperlinks which will activate the enhancement temporarily. Using hyperlinks also necessitates some mental activity from the learner, because the learner will have to click on the hyperlink or slide the mouse pointer to the link in order to activate the enhancement.

A final comment about input enhancement is that as with all CALL learning material, input enhancements should be designed to be interactive. Chapelle (2003:54) claims that "hypermedia may offer an ideal means of providing help with comprehension interactively because learners can listen or read and request input enhancement as they need it". This statement also raises the issue of providing enhancements by means of visual as well as auditory means. Learners could, for example, be given a word definition by means of text written in a pop-up speech bubble, with the option of also listening to the word definition. This would involve using two of the senses, which is generally considered good educational practice. Providing learners the option to choose different modes for input enhancement will increase learners' sense of control over the CALL learning process. Research has linked a high level of learner control over the CALL learning environment to improved learner success (Hubbard 1996). The researcher therefore recommends providing input enhancements by means of written text and images, as well as by means of aural input, with the material designed in such a way that learners have the option to choose whether they want to use both modes.

4.7 Interaction in CALL

The term "interaction" in second language teaching can have various meanings. From the point of view of language acquisition theory, the term "interaction" is used to refer to interaction between the language learner and other learners, or the teacher or other speakers of the target language. In CALL theory, however, "interaction" is also used to refer to the interaction between the language learner

and the computer. This section will give an overview of issues related to interaction in a CALL environment, with particular reference to the pedagogical value of interaction in a technological learning environment.

The development of the Interaction Account or Hypothesis was mentioned in Chapter 2 of this study and in Section 4.3 of the current chapter the influence of this hypothesis on the development on CALL theory in general was referred to. That interaction plays a critically important role in second language teaching and learning is considered a given in second language teaching literature. In the CALL environment, interaction is considered equally important.

When studying interaction in the CALL environment a distinction needs to be made between interpersonal interaction (by means of the computer) and learner-computer interaction. Chapelle (2003) discusses the value for the second language learning process of these two types of interaction from the point of three different theories of language learning and teaching, namely the Interaction Hypothesis, Sociocultural Theory and Depth of Processing Theory.

4.7.1 Interpersonal interaction

As mentioned above, interpersonal interaction in the CALL environment is communication through the medium of the computer between the learner and other learners, between the learner and the teacher, or between the learner and other speakers of the language. Chapelle (2003) states that from the perspective of the Interaction Hypothesis interpersonal interaction benefits the learning process because interaction makes it possible for the learner to negotiate meaning. Using synchronous communication (so-called online chat) the learner can request information about the meaning of lexical items or linguistic features he or she does not understand or is uncertain of. The meaning can be negotiated by means of questions on the part of the learner and explanations or clarifications by the other person in the form of recasts, paraphrasing, word definitions or even overt discussions about linguistic form. The negotiation of meaning therefore is not only in terms of understanding the message, but can also extend to focus on linguistic form.

Chapelle (2003) states that in online written tasks learners have the time and the opportunity to also pay attention to form and to correct their own writing before they send a message.

From the point of view of Sociocultural Theory, interpersonal communication via computer is considered beneficial because it creates the opportunity for learners to co-construct meaning (Chapelle, 2003), both in synchronous and asynchronous communication tasks performed using the computer as communication medium. Learners can co-construct meaning in communication tasks if the tasks are designed in such a way that they have to share information, by requesting and supplying information. The task types proposed by Pica et al. (1993) that were discussed in Chapter 3 are good examples of tasks in which learners can co-construct meaning. Jigsaw, information gap and decision making tasks are particularly valuable for the co-construction of meaning because these task types have a single outcome or task goal, which forces learners to communicate. In a recent study Lee (2008) found positive effects for synchronous communication between expert and novice target language users in terms of focus on form. Lee found that scaffolding provided by expert users in the form corrective feedback on linguistic errors had positive results.

Also from the perspective of Depth of Processing Theory interpersonal interaction via computer is believed to benefit second language learning. According to Chapelle (2003) interaction provides the learner with new input, which has to be processed in order to communicate. The input received via computer is seen as "prompting attention to language" (Chapelle, 2003:56). The interaction is seen to force the learner to process language and to pay attention to both meaning and form. This can be achieved during both synchronous and asynchronous communication, with deeper processing being possible with asynchronous communication because the lack of time pressure gives learners more time to process input.

4.7.2 Learner-computer interaction

According to Chapelle (2003) the benefit of learner-computer interaction for second language learning is that the computer can serve as a vast source of enhanced input

for the learner. As discussed in Section 4.5 above, there are numerous ways in which a computer can be used to provide the learner with valuable enhanced input. Chapelle points out that it is important that the input should be provided in such a way that the link between form and meaning in the targeted language items will be clear to the learner (2003:59). Chapelle emphasizes that the learners will benefit most from this type of interaction with the computer if the enhanced input is provided interactively.

Another crucial factor when using a computer to provide enhanced input, is the extent to which learners actually interact with the software when accessing the input. Chapelle states that research by Plass, Chun, Mayer & Leutner (1998) indicates that more interaction between the learner and the computer when accessing enhanced input has more value for the learner than less interaction. The challenge from a pedagogical perspective is to find ways to ensure that learners do interact with the computer to access the enhanced input. Chapelle (2003) suggests that the accessing of enhanced input should be integrated into the completion of the complete communication task, rather than just providing the learner with random portions of enhanced input. The researcher holds the opinion that this could be achieved by setting questions about language features dealt with in some of the interactions. Chapelle claims that learners who are interested and motivated are more likely to engage in interaction with the computer.

From the above discussion it is clear that the benefits of interaction using technology, be it interpersonal interaction by means of a computer or interaction between learners and the computer, are plentiful. The challenge for the second language courseware designer is to create opportunities for learners to focus on form, and to ensure that learners make optimal use of these opportunities to advance their language learning.

4.8 Production in CALL tasks

In Section 4.6 of this chapter the importance of input in second language acquisition was discussed and particular attention was paid to focus on form using technology. Section 4.7 was devoted to the importance of and possibilities for interaction in CALL. The current section will investigate the importance of production in CALL tasks, with particular attention to focus on form in the different stages of task performance.

It is generally accepted in second language acquisition research that learners need more than input and some form of attention to form - learners also need to produce language in order to acquire a second language. Research has indicated that learners' language development benefits significantly from attempts to speak and write the target language. According to Chapelle (2003) the term 'comprehensible output' was coined by Swain (1985) to describe the process of learning through the production of language. Chapelle also states that Swain more recently emphasized the value of production in sociocognitive terms, stating that learners develop their interlanguage by co-constructing meaning during classroom interaction with other learners. Skehan (2003) states that Swain (1995) adopted Schmidt's original use of the term noticing (in input) to also include noticing in output. Swain theorized that it is important for learners to notice gaps in their own production as this would serve as motivation for learners to produce language, because in doing so they would be forced to negotiate meaning in order to fill the noticed gap.

In a task-based approach to second language teaching, production already starts in the planning or pre-task phase, before the actual task is performed. In a CALL environment production in the planning phase could include requiring of learners to type up the ideas they would use in an opinion exchange task. This could be done after learners had received input, perhaps in the form of an article about the topic that provides the theme for the task itself. Having read the article, learners would have to produce language in order to list ideas that make up their opinion about the task theme. In terms of Swain's theory about the role of output (discussed in Chapelle, 2003), learners would have to notice a gap (e.g. vocabulary needed or a

linguistic feature they are unsure of) when attempting to produce language. The value of production in the planning phase is therefore that it creates opportunities for learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage.

Production during task performance in a CALL environment will obviously also create opportunities for learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage. Chapelle (2003) states that during task-performance using the computer, learners can self-correct or be corrected by others. In other words, during task performance learners can become aware of gaps in their interlanguage and then correct their output, or they can be made aware of gaps in their interlanguage by other task participants or the teacher, or by the computer. Chapelle (2003) also mentions pre-emptive assistance during task-performance, which could be sought from other participants, the teacher or the computer. During production learners can also engage in co-operative error correction, which will also assist learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage.

Production before or during task performance therefore is important in the light of the benefits for interlanguage development that it holds.

4.9 Focus on Form in a Task-based CALL methodology

In Chapter 3 of this study the three phases of a typical task-based lesson were investigated. It was said that task-based lessons typically consist of some pre-task activities followed by the task-performance phase, which is referred to as the during-task phase. Lastly, learners should be given some activities after performing the task – in the so-called post-task phase of the lesson. In this section the three phases will be revisited, with the emphasis on investigating how focus on form can be achieved using the computer.

4.9.1 The pre-task phase

In Section 4.5 of this chapter various methods for using the computer to enhance input were discussed. These methods included input salience, input modification and input elaboration. All of these methods could be employed during the pre-task phase

of a task-based lesson to shift learners' attention to aspects of language form. In Section 4.5 details were given about the possibilities for using the computer to achieve focus on form during this task phase.

Skehan (2003:405) claims that with regard to learners using computers to access information via the internet, involving learners in pre-task activities has "predictable and beneficial effects" on their performance. Research studies have shown that involving learners in this type of pre-task activity results in learners' output being more complex linguistically and in greater fluency during task performance. These findings are of critical importance for second language methodology. With research indicating that pre-task planning ensures that learners use more complex language, which amounts to learners expanding and developing their interlanguage, the implication is that pre-task planning definitely benefits second language acquisition and should therefore be included in a task-based methodology.

Different options are available for including planning as part of the pre-task phase of a task-based lesson. Ellis (2005) distinguishes between rehearsal and strategic planning as two forms of pre-task planning. Rehearsal entails that learners are given the opportunity to have a practice performance of the task before they are required to do the 'real' performance. Ellis states that research indicates that rehearsal does lead to greater linguistic complexity being used in the real task performance, and to more self-corrections by learners (2005:18). Unfortunately research also indicates that the effects that rehearsals have on subsequent task performance are not carried over to the performance of other tasks, even if these tasks are of the same kind as the original.

The other type of pre-task planning is strategic planning, which entails that learners access the content they will use for the real task and use this content to discuss how they will perform the task (Ellis, 2005). The computer is the ideal tool to providing learners with the content they will need to perform a task. The actual strategic planning could also happen on the computer, with learners contributing by using online chat, or working together around one computer with one learner recording the

planned material on the computer. Ellis cites several studies which have found that strategic planning has a positive effect on learners' fluency during subsequent task performance. He states that no clear results were found regarding the effect of planning on accuracy. With regard to complexity, Ellis states that research has indicated that strategic planning has a positive effect on the complexity of learners' language. Ortega (2005) conducted a study about the nature of learners' strategic planning and found that learners focused both on meaning and form when left to plan on their own. With regards to the benefits of pre-task planning for long-term acquisition, Ortega states that "it fosters learners' attention to language as a meaning-making tool" (2005:107). The results of the studies mentioned here offer a clear indication of the importance of incorporating a pre-task phase into task-based lessons.

4.9.2 The during-task phase

Because of the limited processing capacity learners have available in the during-task phase, very little capacity is available to focus their attention on form if task performance is synchronous in nature. Where tasks are performed on or via the computer, overt focus on form is not always practically possible during synchronous (real-time) task performance without interrupting the communicative flow of the task. For this reason, the pre-task and post-task phases are better suited to accommodate focus on form than the during-task phase. With careful planning, however, it is possible to make some focus on form in the during task-phase possible.

It was indicated in Chapter 3 that various factors influence task difficulty. In terms of processing capacity theory, learners can only process a limited amount of information at a given time. During task performance learners have to concentrate on both content and form, in addition to handling the communication stress experienced in real-time performance. It is therefore important at the task design stage that factors that determine task difficulty should be considered. As was indicated in the previous section, planning during the pre-task phase will help to free learners' processing capacity during task performance. Correctly chosen task

characteristics can make a difference in the during-task phase to the amount of processing capacity learners have available to focus on form. Skehan (2003:406) states that task features such as task structure influence learners' accuracy and fluency, and that the level of interactivity in the task influences the complexity and accuracy of learners' language. This has the implication that focus on form in a CALL environment can be encouraged by the careful selection of task features during the design or planning stage. Task features and how these affect task performance was discussed in detail in Section 3.2.5 of Chapter 3 of this study.

Given the processing capacity limitations discussed above, using asynchronous computer-mediated communication such as e-mail tasks, provides a possible solution for engaging learners in focus on form in the during-task phase. Levy & Stockwell (2006:186) state that with this type of communication learners have time to edit their own work, either by reading through their work after composing the message or by using resources such as dictionaries (on computer or otherwise) and the edit function of the e-mail software.

Because of the limited processing capacity learners have available in the during-task phase, very little capacity is available to focus their attention on form. Where tasks are performed on or via the computer, overt focus on form is not always practically possible during task performance without interrupting the communicative flow of the task. For this reason, the pre-task and post-task phases are better suited to accommodate focus on form than the during-task phase. With careful planning it is, however, possible to have some focus on form in the during task-phase.

It was indicated in Chapter 3 that various factors influence task difficulty. In terms of processing capacity theory, learners can only process a limited amount of information at a given time. During task performance learners have to concentrate on both content and form, in addition to handling the communication stress experienced in real-time performance. It is therefore important at the task design stage that factors that determine task difficulty should be considered. As was indicated in the previous section, planning during the pre-task phase will help to free

learners' processing capacity during task performance. Correctly chosen task characteristics can make a difference in the during-task phase to the amount of processing capacity learners have available to focus on form.

4.9.3 The post-task phase

Skehan (2003) considers the post-task phase to be one of the most important when working in a CALL environment. He states that if learners are aware during task performance that they will be involved in some form of activity after completing the task, they will pay more attention to accuracy while performing the task.

The post-task phase is believed to provide learners with opportunities to extend their interlanguage and to consolidate new linguistic forms that were encountered during task performance (Skehan, 2003:406). If learners are, for example, required to report back to the class after performing a task on the computer (e.g. finding information on the Internet), they will have to rework the information they obtained during task performance on the computer. In reworking the information, learners have to manipulate target language forms, which creates opportunities to expand their interlanguage and to consolidate forms already part of their interlanguage. Learners could also be required to use the computer in the post-task phase, e.g. to write a summary of information obtained in the during-task phase.

In terms of processing capacity theory, the post-task stage is ideal for achieving a focus on form. Having already completed the main task stage of the lesson, learners will have more attention available during the post-task stage, because the cognitive complexity of the task will decrease significantly after task performance. Having completed a task, learners will be familiar with task content, which implies a reduced cognitive load during the post-task phase.

Skehan raises the important point that incorporating post-task activities into pedagogy causes using the computer to become not merely an end in itself, but rather a means of obtaining information which will lead to further interaction in the target language (2003:407). Skehan also claims that learners will be more motivated

and feel more involved with the task if they know that the actual task performance will be followed by further activities related to the task.

4.10 Conclusion

Various issues related to the inclusion of computers and multimedia in second language methodology have been reviewed in this chapter. It was shown that over the years various theoretical influences have guided CALL research and contributed to shaping current investigation in the field.

It was shown in Section 4.5 that computers can be used successfully to enhance a task-based approach to second language teaching and learning. Different possibilities for enhancing input and achieving focus on form in a CALL environment were reviewed in Section 4.6. It was also illustrated that multimedia can be very useful for focusing learners' attention on linguistic form, using techniques such as input salience, input modification and input elaboration. In Section 4.9 it was shown that computers can be used successfully for focus-on-form activities in the pre-task, during-task and the post-task phases of a task-based CALL methodology. In order to incorporate multimedia meaningfully and successfully into a task-based methodology with the aim of using CALL to assist with focus on form, CALL design should form part of the whole design process and should be informed by the designers' beliefs about second language teaching and learning theory in general, and more specifically by the role that focus on form plays in the acquisition process. CALL design, with specific reference to the inclusion of focus on form, will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

TASK ANALYSIS AND CALL DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to illustrate how task analysis can be used to inform decisions about course and materials design. It will be shown how the information obtained from various types of analyses can inform decisions about the grading and sequencing of tasks and about the selection of linguistic features for the purposes of input enhancement and focus on form.

In Section 5.2 sixteen dialogues will be analysed to identify for each the communicative purpose and the generic moves used to realise the communicative purpose. Three other types of analysis will also be conducted, i.e. a cognitive complexity analysis, an analysis of speech units as well as an analysis of the salient language structures as realised in the generic moves identified for each task. Section 5.2 starts with an introduction to each of the types of analyses that will be conducted. In Section 5.2.1 the importance of cognitive complexity analysis for the grading and sequencing of tasks will be discussed. Section 5.2.2 will explore various units of speech analysis, while the importance of focus on form in syllabus design is revisited in Section 5.2.3. The sixteen dialogues analysed for this study are presented in Section 5.2.4. For each dialogue the communicative purpose and the generic moves will be indicated within the dialogue. After each dialogue the other three types of analysis mentioned above will be given.

In Section 5.3 CALL design and input enhancement through focus on form will be discussed. A procedure for the design of an LSP CALL curriculum within a design-based research approach will be proposed. Section 5.4 will aim to exemplify how the analyses done in this study can inform the design of a CALL LSP course for isiXhosa second language for teachers within a design-based research approach. Concluding remarks to this chapter will be presented in Section 5.5.

5.2 Task Analysis

This section will provide introductory comments about the various kinds analysis that will be used to analyse the dialogues selected for this study. Discourse analysis was discussed in detail in Section 3.3.4 of Chapter 3 and will therefore not be discussed again in the present section.

5.2.1 Cognitive Complexity

The grading and sequencing of tasks is an important facet of second language curriculum design using 'task' as the primary unit of design and analysis. Various factors that influence task complexity were discussed in Chapter 3 of this study and different frameworks for the grading and sequencing of tasks were reviewed. In Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 of this study the effects of various task features on the fluency, accuracy and complexity of the language produced during task performance were reviewed. The current section will focus on how cognitive complexity influences the classification and sequencing of pedagogic tasks and on the benefits that the manipulation of task complexity holds for second language learning within a broad CALL design process.

Robinson's (2001b) triadic framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks, based on task complexity, task conditions and task difficulty was reviewed in Chapter 3 of this study. It was explained that in Robinson's framework task conditions refer to interactional factors, determined either by participation variables (e.g. open vs. closed tasks, convergent vs. divergent task goal, and one-way vs. two-way communication), or participant variables (e.g. gender familiarity and power or solidarity). The term 'task difficulty' was explained as referring to various learner factors, i.e. affective variables (including motivation, anxiety and confidence) and ability variables (e.g. aptitude, proficiency and intelligence). Factors related to task conditions and task difficulty are considered by Robinson to be factors that influence decisions about methodology and also online decisions the teacher has to take about

how the interplay of different learner-related factors can be optimized to enhance classroom task performance. The interest of the current section, however, is those factors that influence the cognitive complexity of tasks.

Robinson (2007:17) explains that 'cognitive' factors are those task characteristics that can influence the allocation of learners' available "attention, memory, reasoning and other processing resources". In his triadic framework (2001a&b) Robinson distinguishes between two types of factors that influence the cognitive complexity of tasks, namely resource-directing and resource-depleting factors, the latter termed 'resource-dispersing factors' in Robinson (2005) and Robinson (2007). Robinson (2005) identifies the following task characteristic options that are seen as resource directing variables: (1) the task requires of learner to refer to events happening in the present time, in a context shared with other task participants, as opposed to past or future events that will take place elsewhere; (2) the task has only a few distinct elements, as opposed to many similar elements that are difficult to identify and distinguish; and (3) the task involves the simple transference of information, as opposed to reasoning being required about the information.

The other set of cognitive task characteristics that Robinson (2005) posits as being important for task grading and sequencing is the so-called resource-dispersing task dimensions. Resource-dispersing task features include the following variables: (1) learners are given time to plan prior to task performance, or not; (2) learners are given or already have background knowledge required to perform the task, as opposed to receiving or having no prior knowledge when expected to perform the task; and (3) the task requires of learners to do only one thing, as opposed to requiring more than one thing while performing the task.

Robinson (2005) argues that the above-mentioned resource-directing and resource-dispersing variables, with all the possible variations in task characteristics, will have varying effects on the cognitive complexity of tasks. The table below illustrates different dimensions of the cognitive complexity of task features:

-few elements -no reasoning -here-and-now +planning +prior knowledge +single task 3 LOW PERFORMATIVE AND HIGH DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY	-few elements -no reasoning -here-and-now -planning -prior knowledge -single task 4 HIGH PERFORMATIVE AND HIGH DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY
+few elements +no reasoning +here-and-now +planning +prior knowledge +single task 1 LOW PERFORMATIVE AND LOW DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY	+few elements +no reasoning +here-and-now -planning -prior knowledge -single task 2 HIGH PERFORMATIVE AND LOW DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY

Table 5.1

Resource directing (developmental) and resource-dispersing (performative) dimensions of complexity and their implications for task sequencing. (Robinson, 2005:8)

From the above table it can be deducted that if a task consists of few elements or even a single element, if it requires no reasoning, and if it is situated in the present time and the current location of the task participants, this task would be seen as not being cognitively complex. Furthermore, if the task makes provision for planning time, if it utilizes participants' prior knowledge, and if it requires of learners to perform a single type of activity during task performance, the level of cognitive complexity would be kept low. By changing these variables, one at a time or more than one at a time, the cognitive complexity of the task will gradually increase. In this manner Robinson's framework makes it possible to grade and sequence tasks according to their cognitive complexity, expressed in terms of resource directing and resource dispersing task features.

Robinson (2007:22) states that task complexity is "the sole basis of pedagogic task sequencing". Tasks with lower cognitive complexity, i.e. tasks that would be

classified as quadrant 1 tasks according to Robinson's framework above, would be performed first, after which the cognitive complexity can be increased gradually, moving through the different quadrants to quadrant 4. Robinson (2007) points out that resource-dispersing variables are increased first, e.g. if a single task is to be performed, with prior knowledge and planning time provided, the cognitive complexity can be increased by changing one of the resource-dispersing variables, e.g. a single task with prior knowledge provided, but without planning time. This is done with the aim of allowing time to develop and consolidate learners' current interlanguage system. Once cognitive complexity has been increased by changing the resource-dispersing variables, the resource directing variables can be adapted one by one to facilitate interlanguage development. Robinson (2007) states that according to his theory of cognitive complexity, increased cognitive complexity along the lines of resource-directing variables should create opportunities for learners to pay attention to accuracy and complexity of their output. By providing learners with tasks that consist of more or many similar elements that need to be distinguished, or that require reasoning or that require of learners to refer to events that happened in a different time and physical setting, learners will be forced to pay more attention to the accuracy and complexity of the language they use. This, in turn, will lead to more noticing of relevant structures in the task input, which in turn will lead to greater uptake of forms emphasized by means of focus on form activities before, during or after task performance (Robinson, 2007).

In Section 5.2.4 below sixteen tasks will be analysed in terms of Robinson's Framework for task analysis.

5.2.2 Units of analysis

For the purposes of this study the unit of analysis for analysing tasks (Section 2.4 below) will be the AS-Unit as defined by Foster et al. (2000). This unit was chosen because it is considered particularly appropriate for analysing spoken data of the kind used in this study. The data contained in the tasks used in this study are written versions of possible conversations between native speakers of isiXhosa, and are not written transcriptions of actual conversations.

Foster et al. (2000:365) define the AS-unit as "a single speaker's utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either". They further define an *independent clause* as being "minimally a clause including a finite verb". An *independent sub-clausal unit* is seen to consist of "either one or more phrases which can be elaborated to a full clause by means of recovery of ellipted elements from the context of the discourse or situation". A *subordinate clause* is defined as consisting "minimally of a finite or non-finite Verb element plus at least one other clause element (Subject, Object, Complement or Adverbial)".

Foster et al. (2000:370) distinguish between three levels of application of the AS-unit in an attempt to make provision for the exclusion of data from analysis. At the first level all the data except untranscribable data, but including "single inaudible words of identifiable word class" is used for a "full analysis of all the data". The second level Foster et al. (2000) propose is for use with highly interactional data. At this level only "one-word minor utterances" (e.g. **ewe** ("yes"), **hayi** ("no"), **kulungile** ("alright")) and verbatim echo responses are excluded from analysis. The third level is for analysis of data which is largely non-fragmentary. At this level data which can be excluded includes the following: data that was identified in level two, one or two word greetings and closures, as well as certain brief units containing repetitions or confirmation by the interlocutor (Foster et al., 2000:370-371). Level three is considered most appropriate for use in this study because of the non-fragmentary nature of the data used.

In Section 5.2.4 below sixteen tasks will be analysed for their syntactic complexity in terms of the AS-unit as defined by Foster et al. (2000).

5.2.3 Focus on Form

Chapter 2 of this study was devoted to a detailed discussion of issues related to focus on form in second language teaching and learning. It was argued that

meaning-focused instruction needs to be supplemented with some kind of focus on linguistic form, because comprehensible input alone has proved not to be sufficient for successful second language acquisition. Various options were discussed for focusing learners' attention on linguistic form in a predominantly meaning-focused methodology, and the value of input enhancement was pointed out.

Input enhancement is the process through which classroom materials are designed to facilitate the noticing of targeted linguistic features and lexical items. Skehan (2003) considers noticing to be an important acquisitional stage, one in which learners have to be guided to notice new linguistic forms and/or lexical items. Skehan claims that after noticing a new form or lexical item and paying attention to it, learners will eventually be able to integrate it into their interlanguage. Input enhancement should therefore form an important part of the design process of any second language course. In Chapter 4 of this study an overview was given of different options for enhancing input by means of the computer. Three types of input enhancement, i.e. input salience, input modification and input elaboration were discussed.

One way of enhancing input is to adapt existing material so that sufficient focus on the required linguistic forms and lexical items is achieved. McDonough & Shaw (2003) discuss techniques such as adding to, deleting from, modifying, simplifying and reordering of existing material to adapt existing material. In Section 5.2.4 below sixteen language tasks will be analysed in order to identify salient language structures. The purpose of this analysis is to identify language structures that could be used in the adaptation of the language tasks in order to achieve focus on form. The sentence structures identified in the analysis below are structures that are considered crucial for the acquisition of the language realised in the generic moves identified in each of the tasks.

The analysis was done from the point of view of selecting material for adaptation for higher beginner level or lower intermediate level learners. For this reason, basic beginner level generic moves such as greetings and exchanging pleasantries were

not included in this analysis. It is assumed that basic interactional language, as is contained in moves such as greetings and the exchange of pleasantries, would already have been acquired by higher beginner level or lower intermediate level learners. Furthermore, because of the vast number of structures realised in the generic moves that have been identified, only a selective identification of key structures will be given in the analysis. The structures that are identified should be seen as structures that could be included into a broader, full instructional process, which would also include a variety of other constructions.

5.2.4 Analysis of real-world tasks

The tasks below were constructed after a needs analysis done in a random selection of primary schools in the Cape Peninsula (see Appendix 1 and 2). Teachers who are not mother tongue speakers of isiXhosa were asked to indicate communication situations in which they would like to be able to communicate with the isiXhosa-speaking learners in their classes in isiXhosa. The tasks are presented below in a random order.

5.2.4.1 Task 1

Omnye wabafundi egumbini lakho akaqhubi kakuhle kwezi ntsuku kwaye uqaphela nto kwindlela aziphethe ngayo. Ntsalela umxeba omnye wabazali wenze idinga lokuba eze kukubona esikolweni. Umzali ufuna ukuqonda ngakumbi, kodwa mxelele ukuba kungcono eze apha esikolweni kuze nithethe ngakumbi.

A learner in your class has not been performing well lately and you have also noticed a change in her behaviour. Phone one of the parents to make an appointment for them to come and see you at the school. The parent asks for details, but you only tell him or her why he or she needs to come and that it would be better to discuss the matter in person.

P = Parent

T = Teacher

Communicative purposes:

- 1 To make an appointment with a parent
- 2 To reassure the parent that nothing serious is wrong with child

- P: (1) Khanya Jones, molo.
(1) Khanya Jones, hello.
[Greeting]
- T: (2) Molo, Nkosikazi Jones, ndinguJohn Smith, ititshala kaThumi eWestwood High.
(2) Good afternoon, Mrs Jones, this is John Smith, Thumi's teacher at Westwood High.
[Greeting]
- P: (3) Molo, Mnumzana Smith. Unjani ngempilo?
(3) O, good afternoon, Mr Smith. How are you?
[Asking about well being]
- T: (4) Ndiphilile unjani wena?
(4) I'm well, and you?
[Stating well being], [Asking about well being]
- P: (5) Ndiphilile enkosi.
(5) I'm fine, thank you.
[Stating well being]
- T: (6) Nkosikazi Jones, ndifuna ukwenza idinga nawe uzokundibona.
(6) Mrs Jones, I would like to make an appointment with you to come and see me.
[Stating purpose of phone call], [Requesting meeting]
- P: (7) Kulungile, ingaba limalunga nantoni? (8) Kutheni simele ukuthetha?
(7) OK, what is this about? (8) Why do I need to see you?
[Requesting information], [Enquiring about reason for proposed meeting]
- T: (9) Ndingathanda ukuba sithethe ngenkqubela kaThumi kule kota.
I would like to discuss Thumi's progress this term with you.
[Stating reason for proposed meeting]
- P: (10) Sithethile ngoku kwindibano yabazali ekupheleni kwekota edlulileyo. (11) Kukho nto imbi? (12) Ingaba kukho nto ingalunganga ngoThumi? (13) Ulungile?
(10) But we spoke about this at the parents' night at the end of last term. (11) What is wrong? (12) Is there something wrong with Thumi? (13) Is she OK? [Requesting information], [Expressing concern over well being of child]
- T: (14) Ungakhathazeki Nkosikazi Jones. (15) Ungaxhalabi, kodwa kuyafuneka ukuba sithethe ngenkqubela ka-Thumi.

- (14) *You don't have to worry, Mrs Jones. (15) It's nothing to be concerned about, but we do need to talk about Thumi's progress.* [Reassuring parent], [Reiterating need for meeting]
- P: (16) Ndixelele ngoku apha emnxebeni. (17) Yintoni embi?
(16) *But tell me now, over the phone. (17) What is wrong?!*
[Repeating request for information], [Repeating expression of concern]
- T: (18) Ndiyaqonda ukuba kungangcono xa unokuthi uze sithethe, Nkosikazi Jones. (19) Unganakho ukuza nini? (20) Unjani ungomso emva kwemini?
(18) *I think it would be better if you came in to talk to me personally, Mrs Jones. (19) When would you be able to come? (20) Perhaps tomorrow afternoon?* [Requesting time for meeting]
- P: (21) Ewe, ndiza kwenza oko. (22) Ngabani ixesha?
(21) *Yes, I could do that. (22) What time?*
[Agreeing to meeting time], [Requesting exact time]
- T: (23) Nanini na emva ko-2 no-3:30.
(23) *Any time between 2 and 3:30.*
[Stating preferred time for meeting]
- P: (24) Kulungile ndiza kuthetha ne-boss yam ukuba ndinganakho ukungabikho emva kwemini. (25) Ndiza kuba lapho ngo-2:30. (26) Ndikhathazeke kakhulu ngoku.
(24) *OK, I'll have to ask my boss if I could take the afternoon off. (25) I'll be there at 2:30. (26) I'm really worried now.*
[Stating preferred time for meeting], [Expressing concern]
- T: (27) Ungakhathazeki nkosikazi Jones. (28) UThumi uthande ukwehla emgangathweni kwezi ntsuku kwaye kuyafuneka ukuba sihlale phantsi sithethe.
(27) *You don't have to worry, Mrs Jones. (28) It's just that Thumi has not been herself lately and I think we should sit down and talk about things through.*
[Reassuring parent], [Stating reason for proposed meeting]
- P: (29) Ndiyavuya uthe wandifowunela. (30) Ingaba kukho nto embi siyiqoshelise ngokukhawuleza.
(29) *OK, I'm glad that you phoned me. (30) If there's something wrong, we need to sort it out as soon as possible.*
[Expressing gratitude]
- T: (31) Ewe, ndiyavuma. (32) Ndiza kukubona ngomso ngo-2:30. (33) Bhayi-bhayi, Nkosikazi Jones.
(31) *Yes, I agree. (32) OK, so then I'll see you tomorrow at 2:30. (33) Good bye, Mrs Jones.*
[Stating agreement], [Confirming time of meeting]

P: (34) Kulungile, ndiza kuba lapho. (35) Bhayi-bhayi.
 (34) *Right, I'll be there.* (35) *Good bye.*
 [Greeting]

5.2.4.1.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

References to time and space occur in this task. Temporal references are made in sentences 22 (**Ngabani ixesha?**/"At what time?"), 23, 24 (**emva kwemini**/"afternoon"), 25 (**ngo-2:30**/"at 2:30) and 32 (**ngo-2:30**/"at 2:30), while spatial referential expressions occur in sentences 2 (**eWestwood High**/"at ..."), 16 (**apha emnxebeni**/"here over the phone") and 34 (**lapho**/"there"). These temporal and spatial references are however few, are not used to refer to or distinguish between many similar elements, and furthermore are not central to the successful performance of this task. Hence the classification of [+ few elements].

[- no reasoning]:

The task requires some reasoning. The parent wants to know why a meeting is necessary (sentences 7 and 8), seeing that they did have a discussion at a recent parents' night (10). The teacher therefore has to reason with the parent in order to persuade her that a meeting is necessary (e.g. sentences 9 and 28). This task therefore requires not mere transmission of information but reasoning to a moderate degree.

[+ here-and-now]:

The task requires of participants to conduct a conversation about events happening here and now, in a shared context, and is thus labelled [+here-and-now]. Most of the conversation is conducted in the present tense, with only some references to the past (sentence 10) and the future (24, 25, 32 and 34).

[+ planning]:

It is assumed for the purposes of this study that task participants will have some time available to liaise in order to prepare for task performance. The participant taking the role of the teacher will have to plan how to make the appointment with the parent without giving away information about the details to be discussed at the meeting, while the participant in the role of the parent will have to plan how to express her concern.

[+ prior knowledge]:

The task instruction provides the participants with some information which could be seen as prior knowledge that will help the participants during planning and task performance. The instruction states that the learner's performance is not as good as it used to be and that the learner's behaviour has changed. It is also stated that the parent is concerned and wants to know what the problem is and whether the matter can be discussed over the phone. It can also be assumed that, being student teachers, the task participants will have a broad understanding of the context in which a conversation such as this will take place. The amount of prior knowledge provided to participants, together with the amount of prior knowledge they would bring to the task because they are student teachers with background knowledge of the communicative setting, are seen as factors that would not contribute to increased cognitive complexity. Seen on a continuum this task is classified as [+prior knowledge] because this particular task feature will not be a burden on participants' available attentional resources.

[- single task:]

This task requires of the teacher to perform multiple tasks. The teacher is required to make an appointment with the parent without giving away too much information prior to the actual meeting. This entails that the teacher has to think about making the appointment and responding to the parent's questions while concentrating on not giving away information that is intended to be revealed only at the actual meeting. In addition to this, the teacher has to plan ahead, while speaking, how to convey this

information without upsetting the parent, and how to reassure the parent when he or she indicates his or her concern.

Based on the above analysis of task features, this task can be classified as falling into quadrant 1 of Robinson's framework, i.e. providing learners with low performative and low developmental complexity in the language acquisition process. The task features [–no reasoning] and [–single task] do not correspond with the first quadrant of Robinson's framework, and indicate that this task is slightly more complex than typical quadrant one tasks, seeing that this task does require of participants to reason extensively and to perform multiple tasks.

5.2.4.1.2 Analysis of Speech Units

The first 5 sentences of this conversation consist of simple monoclausal questions and answers about the well-being of the participants. In the sentences that follow numerous examples of complex clauses are found. Sentence 6, for example, consists of an infinitive main clause with the verb **-funa uku-** ("want to"), followed by an infinitival complement clause containing the verb **–za** ("to come"), which itself takes an infinitival clause **ukubona** ("to see").

Sentence 9 consists of an Indicative main clause verb **–thanda** ("like") followed by a subjunctive complement clause introduced after the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"). Sentence 15 consists of a negative main clause, **ungaxhalabi** ("don't worry"), followed by a complement clause following the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"), which in turn is followed by a subjunctive subordinate clause, **ukuba sithethe** ("so that we speak").

Sentence 18 consists of a present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyaqonda** ("I think"), followed by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") which introduces a complement clause. This is followed by another conjunction, **xa** ("if"), which introduces a subordinate clause containing the deficient verb **ze** ("must"), which is followed by a subjunctive complement clause **sithethe** ("we speak").

Sentence 24 starts with the future tense indicative clause **ndiza kuthetha...** ("I will talk..."), which is followed by a complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"), followed by a verb with the potential morpheme **-nga-**, **ndinganakho** ("I can be able"), which conveys the meaning of "could", indicating ability. This is followed by a negative infinitive complement clause **ukungabikho** ("not being present"), including an adverbial phrase of time: **emva kwemini** ("afternoon").

Sentence 28 starts with a past tense main clause **uthande** ("she liked"), followed by a complement clause introduced by the conjunction **kwaye**. The verb following **kwaye** ("and further") is **kuyafuneka** ("it is necessary"), which is followed by the subjunctive complement clauses **sihlale phantsi** ("we sit down") and **sithethe** ("we talk"), which denote successive actions.

It is evident from the examples discussed here that this task contains a relatively high degree of syntactic complexity. When comparing the above syntactic analysis with the cognitive complexity analysis done earlier and the generic moves identified for this task, there appears to be some correlation between sentences with greater syntactic complexity and sentences featuring the generic moves [Stating purpose] and [Stating reason]. This can be seen in sentences such as 6, 9 and 28. These are also sentences that were identified as contributing to the cognitive complexity of this task in terms of the [-no reasoning] dimension. These sentences require careful formulation and a great amount of specificity, which makes it necessary for participants to use syntactically complex language.

5.2.4.1.3 Salient language structures

The following are examples of sentence structures that are crucial for the successful acquisition of the language realized in the following important generic moves:

[Reassuring someone]

Negative of the Subjunctive:

Ungakhathazeki ("Don't worry") (14 and 27)

Ungaxhalabi ("Don't be alarmed/worried") (15)

[Stating agreement]

Use of the verb **-vuma** ("to agree") in the Present Tense:

Ndiyavuma ("I agree") (31)

Future Tense:

Ndiza kwenza oko ("I will do that") (21)

[Expressing concern]

Negative of the Perfectum Situative:

Ingalunganga ("it was not alright") (12)

Stative verbs:

Ulungile? ("Is she alright") (13)

Copulative verb:

Yintoni embi? ("It is what that is bad?") (17)

Perfectum Past Tense:

Ndikhathazeke ("I was worried") (26)

[Requesting a meeting, Stating need for a meeting]

Infinitive:

Ndifuna ukwenza idinga ("I want to make an appointment") (6)

Kufuneka + Subjunctive:

Ku(ya)funeka ukuba sithethe ("It is necessary that we talk") (15)

The above selection of salient language structures provides an indication of structures that could be focused on in the pre-task phase. These structures could be used as a point of departure for the choice of structures to be focused on by means of input enhancement.

5.2.4.2 Task 2

Ubiza intlanganiso yeqela labazali ekuqaleni konyaka. Uchazela abazali ngeenzame zonyaka zokucetywa konyuso-mali esikolweni. Abazali babuza imibuzo malunga nokuba imali ezonyusiweyo ziza kuchithwa njani na. Uphendula ngokubhekisele kwizinto ezinjengezi zilandelayo: ucingo olutsha namasango akhuselekileyo ajikeleze isikolo, amagumbi okufundela amabini amatsha, iiprojektha ezintsha, ukunyulwa komququzeleli wezemidlalo yesikolo, ikhompuyutha entsha elondoloza amanqaku abafundi, njl-njl.

You address a parents meeting at the beginning of the year. Inform the parents of the school's planned fund-raising efforts for the year. The parents ask questions about how the funds raised will be spent. You reply by referring to things such as the following: a new fence and security gates around the school, two new classrooms, new overhead projectors, appointment of a sports organizer for the school, a new computer to process the learners marks, etc.

Communicative Purpose:

- 1 To inform parents of the school's fund-raising efforts for the year
- 2 To provide information about why additional funds are needed
- 3 To provide information about how funds will be applied
- 4 To respond to parents' questions and suggestions

T = Teacher

P1,2,3 etc = different parents attending the meeting

T: (1) Molweni manene nani manenekazi. (2) Ndinikwe imizuzwana yokuba ndithethe nani ngolu rhatya, malunga nokunyuka kweentlawulo zezifundo kulo nyaka sikuwo.

(1) Good evening, ladies and gentlemen. (2) I have been given a few minutes on the programme for tonight to talk about the school's fund raising efforts for the year ahead.

[Greeting], [Stating purpose of address]

P1: (3) Ndicela uxolo ngokukuqhawula phakathi, sibhathala imali eninzi nje! (4) Ingaba enye imali le iza kwenza ntoni? (5) Ingaba izinto zonke azifakwanga kwizincwangciso (budget) kunyaka ophelileyo?

(3) I'm sorry to interrupt, but don't we pay enough school fees already?! (4) Why are more funds needed now? (5) Shouldn't everything have been included in the budget at the end of last year?

[Expressing dismay at hearing more funds are needed], [Requesting information about budgeting]

- T: (6) Ngelishwa mhlekazi, intlawulo yezifundo ephathalwayo ayinakho ukuzenza zonke izidingo zesikolo. (7) Sizama kangangoko ukugcina intlawulo iphantsi ukwenzela ukuba abazali bangahlawuli mali ephezulu ekupheleni kwenyanga. (8) Sidinga imali engaphezulu ukuqhuba nezinye ii-project zethu ezingenakho ukuqhutywa ngemali yezifundo.
(6) Unfortunately, sir, the school fees as reflected in the budget cannot cover all the school's expenses. (7) We try to keep the school fees as low as possible so that parents do not have to pay so much every month. (8) We do, however, need extra funds for other projects that cannot be funded out of the school fees.
 [Providing explanation about why funds have to be raised]
- (9) Sinee-project ezingxamisekileyo ekufuneka sibe nemali yazo kulo nyaka. (10) Kufuneka sibe nemali yokuthenga iiprojektha. (11) Ziinjongo zethu ukuba sibe ne-OHP kwigumbi ngalinye ekupheleni konyaka ozayo. (12) Oomatshini baxabisa i-R2000 emnye, kwaye singathanda ukuthenga babe bathathu kulo nyaka. (13) Sicinga ukunyusa imali ngokuthi senze i-dinner dance. (14) Singathanda izimvo kubazali malunga namagubu okanye uDJ wosuku olo. (15) Iqela lamagubu eliphume izandla okanye uDJ uza kutsala abantu abaninzi kwaye nathi siza kuba nakho ukuhlawulisa ngokuthe catha. (16) Ingaba kukho ezinye iimbono?
(9) We have several urgent projects for which we need to raise funds this year. (10) Firstly, we need to raise funds to buy more overhead projectors. (11) It is our aim to have an OHP in every classroom by the end of next year. (12) The projectors cost about R2000 each and we would like to buy another 3 this year. (13) We hope to raise this money buy hosting a dinner dance. (14) We would like to ask for suggestions from parents about a band or a DJ for the evening. (15) A good band or DJ will attract more people and will also enable us to ask more for the tickets. (16) Are there any suggestions?
 [Reasoning – Argument Exemplification: Providing tails about what funds are needed for], [Asking for suggestions]
- P2: (17) Umntakwethu udlalela iqela le-New Grooves. (18) Baliqela elinabantu abasibhozo, kwaye banabahlabei ababini. (19) Badla ngokumenywa emitshatweni nasezi patini.
(17) My brother plays in the New Grooves. (18) They're an eight-piece band with two lead singers. (19) They often play at weddings and parties.
 [Making suggestion]
- T: (20) Kwakuhle oko. (21) Bangasibiza malini?
(20) That sounds great. (21) How much will they charge us?
 [Expressing delight], [Requesting information]
- P2: (22) Andiqinisekanga. (23) Kodwa sinokuthethathethana nabo nanjengoko baza kube besicendisa ukunyusa ingxowa mali yethu yesikolo.
(22) I'm not sure. (23) But I'm sure we can ask for a discount seeing that they will be helping us to raise funds for the school.
 [Stating uncertainty], [Suggesting that discount be requested]

- T: (24) Ndiza kuthatha iinombolo zakho zomnxeba ekuhambeni kwethuba. (25) Ukuba singathengisa amatikithi ayi-200 ngemali engange R100 umntu emnye siza kuzuza i-R20 000. (26) Singathi sithengise izidlo ngemali engange R40 umntu emnye, kushiyeke i-R60 umntu emnye okanye malunga ne-R12 000. (27) Ukuba iqela lamagubu alinakusihlawulisa ngaphezu kwe-R4 000, singanakho ukuthenga iiprojektha ezintathu kulo nyaka. (28) Kwaye singanayo nemali enokushiyeke esinokuthi siyivalelela kwi-akhawunti yesikolo. (29) Oko kungakuhle.
(24) I'll get the contact details from you later, thank you very much. (25) If we sell 200 tickets at R100 per head, we'll get in R20 000. (26) We can get the catering done for about R40 per head, which leaves R60 per head or about R12 000. (27) If we don't pay more than R4 000 for the band, we can easily buy the 3 OHPs this year. (28) Then we'll also have some money left over to deposit into the school's general account. (29) That would be fantastic.
 [Expressing gratitude], [Reasoning – cause-effect: Providing details about expenses and proposed surplus]
- P3: (30) Lo mdaniso uza kubanjwa nini?
(30) When is this dance going to be?
 [Requesting information about date of fund-raising event]
- T: (31) Siza kuzama ukwenza amalungiselelo oko ekupheleni kwikota yokuqala, kuba kukho ezinye ii-project ezinkulu eziza kuthi zenziwe ekuza kupheleni konyaka. (32) Ngenxa yokonyuka kwezinga lobusela, kuza kufuneka ukuba sifake i-remote controlled security gate ene-video-intercom kwisango elingaphambili.
(31) I think we should try to arrange this for the end of the first term, because there are other, bigger projects that we'll have to do later on in the year. (32) With the increasing crime rate in the area, we will simply have to install a remote controlled security gate with a video-intercom at the front gate.
 [Providing information about date], [Stating why other projects are necessary]
- P4: (33) Ingaba oko kusionyanzelo?! (34) Iza kusidla malini? (35) Ingaba ayibo buchule ukufuna umantshingilane oza kuba sesangweni?
(33) Is that really necessary?! (34) How much is that going to cost us? (35) Would it not be cheaper to put a security guard at the gate?
 [Questioning necessity of expense], [Requesting information about cost], [Suggesting alternative]
- T: (36) Ndiyaqonda isininzi oko siza kukubona nje ngenkcitho, kodwa kufuneka sikhangele ukhuseleko lwabantwana bethu kuqala. (37) Ayingabo bonke abazali abaza kuthi bakuqaphele oku ekupheleni konyaka ophelileyo, amadoda amabini athi angena emasangweni esikolo engaqatshelwanga, aya kumagumbi amakhwenkwe okunxibela akufuphi namabala okudlala. (38) Bathi balinda apho de amakhwenkwe aza kukhulula baye baba nakho ukuba

ii-cell phones ezine. (39) Saba nethamsanqa kuba la madoda ayengezo ndlobongela kuba zange onzakalise nomnye kubantwana bethu. (40) Le ngozi ibinokuguqula okuninzi. (41) Ukuba singane-security gate, akukho namnye onokuthi angene emasangweni engaqatshelwanga.

(36) I understand that you may think this might be an unnecessary expense, but our children's safety should be our first priority. (37) Not all parents may be aware of this, but at the end of last year, two men walked onto the school ground unnoticed and then went into the boys changing rooms next to the sport field. (38) They waited until the boys came to change after school and then managed to steal four cell phones. (39) We were extremely lucky that these men weren't violent and that they didn't harm any of our children. (40) This incident could have turned out a lot different. (41) If we have a security gate, no one will be able to enter the school ground unnoticed.

[Reasoning – argument exemplification: why expense is necessary], [Providing information about recent incident]

P4: (42) Kodwa oku kuza kusidla malini?

(42) But how much will this cost?

[Requesting information about cost?]

T: (43) Sisaqikelela okwangoku, kodwa sicinga ukuba oko kuza kusidla i-R10 000. (44) Le yimali eninzi, kodwa siza kuthi siyenze kube kanye. (45) Ukuba singaqesha umantshingilane kuza kufuneka simhlawule inyanga nenyanga. (46) Konke oku kufuna ukuba sibe nemali ethe chatha. (47) Asingekhe sabeka ukhuseleko lwabantwana bethu esichengeni, manene nani manenekazi.

(43) We only have rough estimates at this stage, but we think about R10 000.

(44) This is a lot of money, but it will be a once-off expense. (45) If we put a security guard at the gate, we have to pay the person's salary EVERY month.

(46) So we need a big fund raising effort for this. (47) We cannot compromise on our children's safety, ladies and gentlemen.

[Providing information about cost], [Reasoning – cause-effect: Persuading audience of necessity of expense]

P5: (48) Ndinenkampani yam. (49) Ndifakela konke okunxulumene nezokhuseleko. (50) Ndiza kuthi ndijonge isango kunye nomgama ophakathi kwe-ofisi, ndiqinisekile ukuba oku andingeze ndikwenze ngemali engaphantsi kwe-R10 000. (51) Ndiza kuthetha nomntu endisebenzisana naye kuqala, ndiza kuthi ndithethe naye ukuze singasihlawulisi isikolo imali yabaqeshwa koko eyezixhobo zodwa.

(48) I have my own company. (49) I install security equipment. (50) I will have to take a look at the gate and the distance to the front office, but I'm sure I can supply and install the stuff for less than R10 000. (51) I'll have to clear this with my partner first, but I think I'll be able to convince him that we only charge the school for the equipment and not the labour.

[Transaction: Offering assistance with installation], [Stating intention]

T: (52) Kungakuhle oko!! (53) Enkosi, Mnumzana Maloka.

- (52) *That would be wonderful!* (53) *Thank you, Mr Maloka.*
[Expressing delight], [Expressing gratitude]
- P6: (54) *Sidinga abazali abafana naye!*
(54) We need more parents like that around here!
[Exclamation to show appreciation]
- P7: (55) *Ewe, kunjalo kanye!* (56) *Kufuneka sonke sifake isandla.*
(55) *Yes, exactly!* (56) *We should all offer our services.*
[Expressing agreement], [Suggestion that more parents offer services]
- T: (57) *Enkosi.* (58) *Oku kuko okubangela ukuba esi sikolo sibe yile nto siyiyo.*
(59) *Asingekhe saba nakho ukusebenza ngaphandle kwegalelo labazali.* (60) *Mnumzana Maloka, singathetha sobabini emva kwentlanganiso ukuze ndibe nakho ukuzuza inombolo zakho zomnxeba?*
(57) *Thank you, people.* (58) *This is what makes this such a great school.*
(59) *We simply cannot operate at the level that we do without the loyal support of our parents.* (60) *Mr Maloka, would you please come and talk to me after the meeting so that I can get your details?*
[Expressing gratitude], [Complimenting parents on level of cooperation], [Requesting further conversation with parent]
- P5: (61) *Akukho ngxaki, siza kuthetha.*
(61) *Not a problem, I'll talk to you later.*
[Agreeing to have further conversation]
- T: (62) *Bazali, ngoku sinolunye uxanduva lokunyusa imali.* (63) *Bendiza kucebisa ukuba sibe ne-fun run esiyixhasayo ukunyusa ingxowa-mali yesango.*
(64) *Singakwenza oku, kodwa singanakho nokuthi siyisebenzisele kwidipozithi yokuthenga i-mini-bus yesikolo.*
(62) *Well parents, now we have one less fundraising event for the year.* (63) *I was going to suggest that we do a sponsored fun-run to raise funds for the gate.* (64) *Perhaps we can still do that, but then we can use the money for a deposit for a new mini-bus for the school.*
[Suggesting further fund-raising event], [Providing details of event], [Stating purpose of event]
- P7: (65) *Ingaba uzama ukuthini xa usithi "sixhase"?*
(65) *What do you mean by "sponsored"?*
[Requesting information]
- T: (66) *Ootitshala bacinga ukuba xa umfundi ngamnye anokuthi azuze umntu onokuthi amxhase ngokomgama othile we-kilometers.* (67) *Imbaleki iza kubaleka iikhilomitha ezimbini ukuya kwezi 3-10 km.* (68) *Ukuba umfundi angazuza umntu okanye abantu ababini abonokuthi bamxhase nge-randi ukuya kwezimbini nge-kilometer, singanakho ukwenza amawaka emali.* (69) *Singathi sibe namabhaso kubantu abaphumeleleyo, kunye nabafundi abathe*

bazuza abona baxhasi bakhulu. (70) Ivakala njani? (71) Singaqhubekela ngalo?

(66) The staff think each learner can get people to sponsor him or her for a certain number of kilometers. (67) The Foundation Phase learners will run for 2 km and the rest distances ranging from 3 – 10 km. (68) If each learner can get one or two people to sponsor them for one or two Rand per kilometer, we will be able to raise several thousand Rand. (69) We can offer cash prizes to the winners of the race, and also to the 3 learners who get the biggest sponsorships. (70) How does that sound? (71) Can we go ahead with this?

[Reasoning: Providing information about proposed fund-raiser], [Requesting permission to proceed with arrangements as suggested]

P8: (72) Ndinga ukuba abazali banganakho ukulungenela olu khuphiswano. (73) Amangeno kubazali abe yi-R20. (74) Singanakho ukwenza enye imali eninzi ngolu hlobo.

(72) I think parents should also be allowed to enter the race. (73) Parents can pay a R20 entrance fee. (74) We should be able to make some more money this way.

[Making suggestions]

T: (75) Yingcamango entle leyo. (76) Siyaqonda ukuba wonke umntu uya kuthakazelela oku. (77) Siza kuthi sithethe nabazali bonke ngezi zigqibo ngokuzikhupha kwiphaphandaba. (78) Enkosi, mamene nani manenekazi. (79) Ndiyathemba ukuba lo ngumhlango oye waba neziphumo ezincumisayo. (80) Ndiyabulela ngegalelo kunye nengcebiso zenu. (81) Isikolo ngeze siqhubelele phambili ngaphandle kwexaso yenu. (82) Siyayivuyela indlela abazali abathi baphume ngayo baze kusinceda. (83) Enkosi kakhulu.

(75) That's a very good idea. (76) OK, it seems that every one is satisfied. (77) We will work out the details and then communicate these to all parents via the weekly newsletter. (78) Thank you, ladies and gentlemen. (79) I think this has been a very fruitful meeting. (80) Thank you for all your input and suggestions. (81) This school cannot operate without the support of its parents. (82) We really appreciate the way in which parents always pitch in and help us. (83) Thank you very much.

[Concluding discussion by expressing gratitude for suggestions made and willingness to cooperate]

5.2.4.2.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

This task can be classified as [+ few elements] despite the fact that some spatial and temporal references are found. Temporal references are found in sentences such as

sentence 2 (**lo nyaka sikuwo** / "this year we're in"), 5 (**kunyaka ophelileyo** / "last year") and 31 (**ekupheleni kwikota yokuqala** / "at the end of the first term"). Examples of spatial references are found in sentences such as the following: Sentence 5 (**kwizincwangciso** / "in the budget"), 11 (**kwigumbi ngalinye** / "in every classroom") and (**kwi-akhawunti yesikolo** / "into the school's account"). The reason for the classification of [+ few elements] is that the references to time and space that do occur are few and not important for the successful performance of this task. Although references to time and space are found in the task, participants are not required in this task to distinguish between many similar temporal or spatial elements. For this reason this task is classified as comprising of few elements.

[- no reasoning]:

A fair amount of reasoning is required to perform this task successfully. In sentences 3-5 a parent questions the necessity of raising further funds and in sentences 6-8 and 9-12 the teacher reasons with the parent who raised the question in particular and with the meeting in general, motivating why additional funds have to be raised. In sentences 36-41 the teacher provides reasons why it is necessary to raise funds to improve security at the school.

[- here-and-now]:

The task requires of participants to discuss events planned for different times in the future, e.g. sentence 31 and 72. Participants also have to discuss events that will take place or that are situated in a different spatial context from where they are when performing the task, e.g. the security gate at the front office (sentence 32 and further). This task is therefore classified as being [- here-and-now].

[+ planning]:

It is assumed for the purposes of this study that task participants will have some time available to liaise in order to prepare for task performance. The participant taking the role of the teacher will have to do much planning in order to prepare for talking about the different fund-raising events and for responding to parents questions and suggestions.

[+ prior knowledge]:

The task instruction provides the participants with some prior knowledge. Suggestions are made in the instruction about the types of fundraising events that could be discussed. The amount of prior knowledge that the individual task participants may have about e.g. security gates and OHPs, may vary. However, because the participants are student teachers, it can be assumed that they will have some prior knowledge about raising funds for a school. Given the amount of prior knowledge provided to participants, together with the amount of prior knowledge they would bring to the task because they are student teachers with background knowledge of the communicative setting, this dimension is not seen as one that would contribute to the increased cognitive complexity of the task. Seen on a continuum, this task is classified as [+prior knowledge] because this particular task feature will not be a burden on participants' available attentional resources.

[- single task]:

This task requires of participants to engage in more than one activity at a time. The teacher has to concentrate on addressing the meeting, making sure to provide sufficient information, while also planning ahead how to reason with parents about why it is necessary to raise funds.

Based on the analysis above, this task most resembles the task characteristics displayed in the third quadrant of Robinson's (2005) framework, indicating that it displays low performative and high developmental complexity. However, the first and last variables identified above, i.e. [+ few elements] and [- single task], do not correspond with the variables Robinson specifies for his third quadrant. This has the implication that this task displays slightly higher performative complexity and slightly lower developmental complexity than typical quadrant 3 tasks. However, seen on a continuum, this task exhibits features that more closely resemble those features that characterise quadrant 3.

5.2.4.2.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This task contains many examples of complex sentence structures. Sentence 2 consists of a past tense passive indicative main clause **ndinikwe** ("I have been given"), followed by a subjunctive complement clause introduced by the conjunction **yokuba** ("that"). A further complement clause follows and is introduced by the adverb **malunga** ("regarding"), followed by the infinitive clause **nokunyuka** ("to increase").

Sentence 7 consists of a present tense indicative mood main clause **sizama** ("we try"), followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukugcina** ("to keep"). This is followed by a further infinitive complement clause, **ukwenzela ukuba** ("to make that"), which in turn is followed by the negative subjunctive complement clause **bangahlawuli** ("they don't pay"). In sentence 8 the main present tense indicative clause **sidinga** ("we need") is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukuquba** ("to drive/undertake"), which is followed by a negative copular complement clause containing an infinitive complement clause: **ezingenakho ukuqhutywa** ("which will not be able to be undertaken").

Sentence 9 consists of the main clause **sinee-project ezingxamisekileyo** ("we have projects that are urgent"), followed by a subordinate clause **ekufuneka** ("which is necessary") which takes a subjunctive copular verb clause **sibe nemali** ("we have money"). Two main clauses are found in sentence 12: **Oomatshini baxabisa i-R2000 enye** ("machines cost R2000 each"), and **singathanda** ("we would like"), which contains an infinitive complement clause **ukuthenga** ("to buy"). In sentence 13 the main indicative mood clause **sicinga** ("we think") is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukunyusa** ("to raise"), which is followed by a subjunctive clause indicating purpose: **ngokuthi senze i-dinner dance** ("so that we have a dinner dance").

Sentence 25 consists of the subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"): **ukuba singathengisa amatikithi** ("if we sell tickets"). This subordinate

clause precedes the main future tense indicative mood clause **siza kuzuza i-R20 000** ("we will raise R20 000"). A similar sentence structure is found in sentence 27.

Sentence 31 consists of a main future tense indicative mood clause **siza kuzama** ("we will try"), followed by a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **kuba** ("because"). This subordinate clause contains a relative mood subordinate clause: **ii-project ezinkulu eziza kuthi zenziwe ekuza kupheleni konyaka** ("big projects that will be done towards the end of the year"). Sentence 36 consists of the main indicative mood present tense clause **Ndiyaqonda** ("I understand") followed by the future tense complement clause **siza kukubona** ("will see it"), followed by a subjunctive subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"): **kufuneka sikhangele** ("it is necessary that we look at").

Sentence 43 starts with the present tense main clause containing the deficient verb particle **sa** ("still"): **sisaqikelela** ("we are still estimating/guessing"), followed by a complement clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"). This complement clause contains a present tense indicative mood verb **sicinga** ("we think"), followed by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"), which introduces a further complement clause in the future tense: **oko kuza kusidla i-R10 000** ("this will cost us R10 000"). In sentence 44 the main clause consists of a copular clause **yimali eninzi** ("it is a lot of money"), which is followed by a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"). This subordinate clause consists of a future tense deficient verb **siza kuthi** (we will do), followed by a subjunctive verb **siyenze** ("we do it"). Sentence 45 starts with the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"), which introduces a subordinate clause containing the potential particle **nga** ("can/could"): **singaqesha** ("we can hire"). After this follows the main clause of sentence 45: **kuza kufuneka** ("it will be necessary"), which is followed by the subjunctive complement clause **simhlawule** ("we pay him").

Sentence 66 starts with a present tense indicative main clause **Ootitshala bacinga** ("The teachers think"), followed by a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunctions **ukuba xa** ("that if") and containing the relative clause **anokuthi**

("he/she can") and the subjunctive verb **azuze** ("he/she finds"). This is followed by a further relative clause **onokuthi amxhase** ("they can support/sponsor him/her"). Sentence 67 consists of a future tense indicative mood main clause **iza kubaleka** ("they will run") and an infinitive complement clause **ukuya kwezi** ("to go to"). Sentence 68 starts with a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"): **angazuza** ("he/she can find"), which is an indicative clause containing the potential morpheme **-nga-** ("can"). The main clause is followed by a complement clause **abanokuthi bamxhase** ("who will support/sponsor him/her"), which consists of the deficient verb **-thi** and the subjunctive mood verb **xhase** ("sponsor"). This is followed by the main clause of sentence 68: **singanakho ukwenza** ("we can be able to make"), which consists of the verb **singanakho** ("we can") containing the potential morpheme **-nga-** ("can/could") and the infinitive main verb **ukwenza** ("to make"). Sentence 69 consists of the main clause **Singathi sibe namabhaso** ("we can have prizes"), followed by a complement clause **abathe bazuza abona baxhasi bakhulu** ("they can get the biggest sponsors"), which consists of the copular verb **abathe** and the indicative verb **bazuza** ("they get").

It is evident from the above syntactic analysis that this dialogue contains many examples of sentences with a highly complex structure. When comparing this syntactic analysis with the generic moves identified for this task, some correlation is found between passages containing complex syntactic structures and those sections of the conversation where participants are involved in reasoning. Examples of sentences with a complex syntactic structure where reasoning is used to convey cause and effect are found in sentences such as 25, 43-46 and 66-69. Another example of a section where reasoning is used (this time with the function of argument exemplification), is found in sentences 9-12. When comparing the sections of this conversation that display complex syntactic structures with the cognitive complexity analysis done above, a correlation is found between sections displaying complex syntax and sections that contribute to the [-no reasoning] classification of this conversation.

5.2.4.2.3 Salient language structures

The following are examples of sentence structures that are essential for the successful acquisition of the language realized in the following important generic moves, and which could be included in focus on form activities for this task. These structures will give an indication of the correlation between the cognitive and syntactic complexity of this task.

[Reasoning – argument exemplification]

Kufuneka + Subjunctive:

Kufuneka sibe nemali ("It is necessary that we have money") (9, 10)

Kufuneka sikhangele ukhuseleko ("It is necessary that we look at safety")(36)

Use of the potential **-nga-** ("can"):

...singathengisa amatikithi ("...we can sell tickets") (25)

...singathi sithengise ("...we can buy meals") (26)

...singanayo nemali ("...we can have money") (28)

[Making suggestions]

Use of the verb **-cinga** ("think"):

-cinga + Infinitive:

Sicinga ukunyusa imali ngokuthi senze i-dinner dance. ("We are thinking of raising the money by hosting a dinner dance.") (13)

-cinga + **ukuba**:

... sicinga ukuba oko kuza kusidla iR10 000. (43)

("... we think that will cost us R10 000.")

Ndicinga ukuba abazali banganakho ... (72)

("I think that parents should be allowed ...")

Use of **-nganakho** ("can/should be able to") + Infinitive to indicate suggestion of ability:

... singanakho ukuthenga iiprojektha ... ("we can buy projectors ...") (27)

... **abazali banganakho ukulungenela** ... ("... parents should be able to / be allowed to enter ...") (72)

Singanakho ukwenza ... ("We can make ...") (68),(73)

[Offering assistance]

Use of the future tense to indicate willingness to assist:

Ndiza kuthi ndijonge isango ... ("I will look at the gate ...") (50)

Ndiza kuthetha nomntu ... ("I will talk to a person ...") (51)

Siza kuthi sithethe nabazali bonke ... ("We will talk to all the parents ...") (77)

[Stating certainty/uncertainty]

Use of **-qiniseka**:

Ndiqinisekile ukuba ... ("I am sure that ...") (50)

Andiqinisekanga. ("I am not sure") (23)

[Requesting information]

Use of **ingaba** ("It can be / is it not so / perhaps"):

Ingaba enye imali le iza kwenza ntoni? ("Perhaps more money will do what?") (4)

Ingaba izinto zonke azifakwanga ... ("Is it not so that everything has been included ...") (5)

Ingaba kukho ezinye iimbono? ("Perhaps there are other suggestions?") (16)

Ingaba oko kusionyanzelo? ("Is that perhaps really necessary?") (33)

Ingaba uzama ukuthini za usithi "sixhase"? ("What do you mean by "sponsored"?") (65)

[Reasoning: cause and effect, condition]

Use of **ukuba** ("that / if"):

Sizama kangangoko ukugcina intlawulo iphantsi ukwenzela ukuba abazali bangahlawuli mali ephezulu... ("We try to keep the school fees as low as possible so that parents do not have to pay so much...") (7)

Ukuba singathengisa amatikithi ayi-200 ngemali engange-R100 umntu emnye siza kuzuza i-R20 000. ("If we sell 200 tickets at R100 per head, we'll get in R20 000.") (25)

Ukuba iqela lamagubu alinakusihlawulisa ngaphezu kwe-R4 000, singanakho ukuthenga iiprojektha ezintathu kulo nyaka. ("If we don't pay more than R4 000 for the band, we can buy the 3 OHPs this year.") (27)

Ukuba singane-security gate, akukho namnye onokuthi angene emasangweni engaqatshelwanga. ("If we have a security gate, no one will be able to enter the school ground unnoticed.") (41)

Ukuba singaqesha umantshingilane kuza kufuneka simhlawule inyanga nenyanga. ("If we put a security guard at the gate, we have to pay the person's salary EVERY month.") (45)

The many examples of highly complex sentence structures in the generic moves identified for this task clearly indicate a correlation between the cognitive complexity and the syntactic complexity of this task. In order to prepare learners for this task, forms such as those identified here would have to be included in focus on form activities prepared for the pre-task phase.

5.2.4.3 Task 3

Ubiza intlanganiso yeqela labazali ekuqaleni konyaka. Injongo yakho kukunika abazali ingcebiso ngezakhono ezisisiseko zobuzali. Ubhekisela kwizinto ezinjengezi zilandelayo: ukubaluleka kokunxibelelana kakuhle kunye nabantwana babo; ukubonisa umdla kumsebenzi wesikolo; ukudala umsebenzi wesiqhelo ekhaya; iingcebiso malunga nesondlo, umzekelo, ukuthintela izigcinakaliso neswekile eninzi; ukubaluleka kokukhuthaza okuqinisekileyo; ukuqinisekisa ukuba abantwana bafumana ukulala okulingeneyo, njl-njl. Ukwandisa nethuba lemibuzo emva kwentetho yakho kwaye uphendula nemibuzo abayibuzayo abazali.

You address a group of parents at the beginning of the year. Your aim is to give the parents some advice about basic parenting skills. You refer to things such as the

following: the importance of communicating well with their children; taking an interest in school work; creating routine at home; hints about nutrition, e.g. avoiding preservatives and too much sugar; the importance of positive reinforcement; making sure children get enough sleep, etc. You also give opportunity for questions at the end of your presentation and answer the questions the parents ask.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To provide information for parents about parenting skills and respond to their questions and suggestions
- 2 To get to know parents
- 3 To motivate parents to be involved with learners' schoolwork and respond to their questions and suggestions

T = teacher

P1,2,3 etc. = different parents

T: (1) Molweni nonke. (2) Enkosi ngobukho benu. (3) Ndivuyiswa bubuninzi benu apha namhlanje. (4) Kubalulekile ukuthi ndiza kuthi ndinazi ngabanye ngabanye kwaye nani nazane. (5) Isikolo samabanga aphantsi iNorthlake sikholelwa ekubeni ukubambisana kwabazali, kunye nabahlali abangabazali abanolwazi, kunegalelo elikhulu kwinkqubela yesikolo kunye nenkqubela yabafundi.

(1) Good evening everybody. (2) Thank you for coming. (3) I'm very glad to see so many of you here tonight. (4) It is very important that I get to know all of you and that you also get to know one another. (5) Northlake Primary firmly believes that a strong parent network, a community of parents who are well informed, contributes greatly to the success of the school and the success of our learners.

[Greeting], [Expressing gratitude for attending], [Motivating parents to be involved]

(6) Ndingathanda ukusebenzisa eli thuba ngobu busuku ndithethe ngobucule bokuba ngumzali. (7) Abanye benu banolwazi lwento endiza kuthetha ngayo, kodwa ndiyathemba ukuba kubalulekile ukuba sikhumbuzane ezinye zezinto esizenza mihla le, sizenza singenalwazi lokuba sizenzela ntoni.

(6) I would like to use this opportunity tonight to talk to you about some parenting skills. (7) Many of you will already know many of the things that I'm going to talk about, but I believe that it is good to reflect on some of the things that we as parents do every day, without ever having thought about how and why we are doing those things.

[Informing audience of purpose of meeting]

(8) Ndingathanda izimvo negalelo lenu kule ngxoxo. (9) Ndingathanda ukuba nikubone oku nje ngemfundiso. (10) Ndingumzali nam, kwaye bendihlala

ndisithi ubuzali abufundelwa. (11) Koko sixhomekeke kwizinto ezasisenziwa ngabazali bethu okanye ezo zenziwa ngabanye abazali, ekuthatheni izigqibo zokukhulisa abantwana bethu. (12) Nobomi bethu obuxaxekileyo, siye singabi nalo ithuba lokucinga ngendlela yokukhulisa abantwana bethu.

(8) I would like you to contribute to the discussion and to share your views and experience with everyone else. (9) I want you to please see this as a learning experience. (10) I'm a parent myself and I often think that parenting is the one thing that we have no training for. (11) We often rely on what our parents used to do or what we see other parents do, to make decisions about how we are going to raise our children. (12) With the busy lives we all lead, we often don't have time to really think about how we raise our children, let alone read about the issues that are important for parents today.

[Inviting parents to participate in discussion], [Commenting on lack of knowledge about parenting]

(13) Masiqale ngonxibelelwano. (14) Kubalulekile ukuba sithethe nabantwana bethu mihla le. (15) Ndizama ukuthi sithethe nabo. (16) Ngoba siyaqonda ukuba abazali baphangela bobabini, loo nto ibangele ukuba libe lincinci ithuba ngokuhlwa. (17) Kufuneka sithenge ukutya, silungise isidlo sangokuhlwa, sancedise abantwana kwimisebenzi yabo yesikolo, silungeselele usuku olulandelayo nokunye. (18) Siyakwazi sonke endithetha ngako.

(13) Let's start with communication. (14) It is vitally important that we make time every day to talk to our children. (15) And I mean really talk to them. (16) Because both parents in the family are typically working, there is so little time in the evenings in which we have to do a whole lot of things. (17) We have to do some shopping, cook supper, help the kids with their homework, get things ready for the next day, etc. (18) You all know what I'm talking about.

[Stating importance of communicating with children], [Stating reasons why parents do not communicate with their children]

(19) Umbuzo ngowokuba nokuba siyathetha nabantwana bethu. (20) Ingaba siba nalo ithuba lokuba siyeke konke okunye sithethe nabo, okunye okubalulekileyo sibamamele nabo? (21) Elona thuba loku kuxa kusityiwa isidlo sangokuhlwa. (22) Kufuneka sihlale etafileni kungekho mabona kude uphazamisayo. (23) Ukuba sitya sibukele umabona kude loo nto iza kubangela ukuba siphulukane nokubaluleka kokunxibelelana nabantwana bethu. (24) Zama ukuguqula isidlo sakho sangokuhlwa, hlalani etafileni ukwenzela ukuba ube nayo imizuzu enokuba yi-20 ukuya kweyi-30 apho usapho luza kube luhleni lonke etafileni. (25) Qhelana nokubuza abantwana ukuba usuku lwabo belunjani. (26) Abantwana abadli ngokuvula bathethe, kufuneka sibe nobunono xa sibabuza. (27) Babuze ukuba yintoni eye eyenze usuku lwabo lwaba mnandi okanye lwaba lubi. (28) Nathi bazali kumele ukuba sibamamele abantwana bethu xa bethetha nathi. (29) Ngokuthi sibamamele kwaye sibuze nemibuzo ngoko bathe bakuthetha, siza kuba nakho ukubafunda ukuba bangabantwana abanjani. (30) Ukuba singaba nakho ukwazi okuqhubeka ebomini kunye nasezingqondweni zabantwana bethu, siza kuba nakho ukuba khusela sibacebise kumaxesha anzima, singa nakho ukuwakhuselela la maxesha

anzima ukuba sinakho ukuqaphela okuthile okungahambi ngendlela kuselithuba. (31) Ndibona isandla esiphakamileyo emva. (32) Masimamele. (33) Ewe, Nkosikazi Petersen?

(19) The question is whether we really communicate with our children. (20) Do we make time to leave everything else and really talk to them, and more importantly, to really listen to them? (21) The ideal time to do this would be while having supper. (22) But then we must sit down at a table without the intrusion of the television. (23) If we eat in front of the TV every evening, we are losing valuable communication time with our children and spouses. (24) Try to change your evening routine so that there will be 20 or 30 minutes when the whole family can sit down around a table to share the evening meal. (25) Get into the habit of asking your kids what their day was like. (26) Often kids don't really volunteer a lot of information, so we have to be more specific when asking them. (27) Ask them what they enjoyed and what they did not like in their day. (28) We as parents then also have to get into the habit of really listening to what our kids say when they talk to us. (29) By really listening to them and by asking further questions based on what they are telling us, we will be able to understand their emotional state so much better. (30) If we really know what's going on in our children's lives and their minds, we will be able to guide them through difficult times, and we might even be able to avoid some of the difficult times if we pick up warning signs at an early stage. (31) I see a hand up at the back. (32) Let's listen. (33) Yes, Mrs Petersen?

[Making suggestions about how and when parents can communicate with their children], [Reasoning: Cause and Effect], [Indicating opportunity for parent to speak]

P1: (34) *Ewe, ndifuna ukuthi ndiyangqinelana noku ukuthethayo. (35) Saqala ukucima umabonakude sisitya isidlo sangokuhlwa ekhitshini kulo nyaka uphelileyo. (36) Ngamafutshane abantwana baqala ukukhala ngeenkqubo abaziphosayo, ngoku sithi sishicilele ezo nkqubo ukuze babe nakho ukuzibukela ngelinye ixesha. (37) Emveni kweveki saye saqaphela ukuba abantwana abasakhathazeki ngeenkqubo abaziphosayo. (38) Baya kukuthakazelela ukutyela etafileni kwaye baye basincokolele nasemveni kokuba kugqityiwe ngesidlo. (39) Saye saqaphela ukuba ngoku bavela basixelele ngezinto abangazithandanga ngolo suku, singababuzanga. (40) Nabo baye basibuze ukuba usuku lwethu belunjani. (41) Ndiyacinga ukuba ixesha lesidlo sangokuhlwa lixesha elimnandi kakhulu kowam umzi.*

(34) Yes, I just want to say that I absolutely agree with what you are saying. (35) We started switching off the TV at suppertime and having our meal at the kitchen table some time last year. (36) Initially the kids complained about missing programmes, but now we record things they really want to see so that they can watch it later. (37) After a couple of weeks we started noticing that the kids no longer worry so much about missing programmes. (38) They enjoy eating at the table and they often sit and talk to us even after everyone has finished eating. (39) We also found that after some time they started to talk spontaneously about what their day was like, without us having

to ask them. (40) And they ask my husband and me how our day was. (41) I think supertime has become a favourite time of the day in our house.
[Sharing information about using meal-times as ideal opportunity to communicate with children], [Stating opinion]

- T: (42) Enkosi, Nkosikazi Petersen. (43) Njengokuba ubuthetha ndiqaphela ukuba abantu bebenqwala bevumelana nawe. (44) Bazali, ndingathanda ukuba nonke niqale ukulisebenzisa eli xesha lesidlo sangokuhlwa ukunxibelelana nabantwana benu, kwaye kukho neziqhamo ezintle ngokwabelana ngesidlo sangokuhlwa ninonke.
(42) Thank you, Mrs Petersen. (43) While you were talking, I could see many people nodding in agreement. (44) People, I really want to urge all of you to start paying more attention to communicating with your children, and I think there is no better opportunity than sharing your evening meal.
[Expressing gratitude for parent's contribution to discussion], [Commenting on parents indicating agreement with what was said]

(45) Enye into endifuna ukuba sithethe ngayo namhlanje kukubaluleka kokuba nomdla kumsebenzi womntwana wesikolo. (46) Qondani ukuba umsebenzi womntwana wesikolo ngakumbi owamabanga aphantsi, unegalelo elikhulu kubomi bomntwana. (47) Umsebenzi wesikolo kunye nezinye izinto umntwana athi azenze zichitha ixesha elininzi losuku lomntwana. (48) Ngeyona nto ibalulekileyo leyo ebomini bontwana. (49) Kubalulekile ngoko ke ukuba sibonise umdla omkhulu kumsebenzi wabo. (50) Ukubonisa umdla ebomini babo oko kuveza ukubaluleka kwabo kuthi. (51) Ukongeza, ukuba bayabona ukuba sinomdla kwinto abayenzayo kwaye siyabakhuthaza, baza kuthi benze umsebenzi wabo ngakumbi.
(45) The next thing I want us to talk about tonight is how important it is that we take an interest in our children's schoolwork. (46) You have to understand that a child's schoolwork, especially in the lower grades, forms such a big part of that child's life. (47) School and all the extra curricular activities take up most of your child's day. (48) It is the biggest thing in their lives. (49) And because of this, it is so important that we show interest in their work. (50) Showing interest in such an important part of their lives will reinforce to our children that they are important to us. (51) Furthermore, if they see that we are interested in what they are doing and if we encourage them to do their work really well, they will be motivated to put in more effort with their work and to give their best every day.
[Indicating start of next topic of discussion], [Motivating to parents why it is important to be interested in children's schoolwork]

(52) Okunye okubalulekileyo: Iintsuku zabantwana bethu kule mihla zinde. (53) Kufuneka sibaqonde ukuba balala ngokwaneleyo. (54) Abantwana abakhulayo badinga ukulala nokuphumla. (55) Qiniseka ukuba umntwana wakho ulale iiyure ezilishumi phakathi evekini. (56) Ukuba abaphumli ngokwaneleyo baye badinwe, (57) Xa bediniwe abaye basebenze ngcono kwizifundo zabo. (58) Kungcono xa umntwana wakho enexesha elithile athi alale ngalo phakathi evekini. (59) Ukuba uyaqiniseka ukuba bayalala

ngexesha elilungisiweyo, baza kungena kumsebenzi wesiqhelo wasebusuku ngokukhawuleza, oza kudala iingxabano ezingeyomfuneko malunga nexesha lokulala.

(52) That brings me to my next point: Our children's days are very full and often very long. (53) We have to make sure that they get enough sleep. (54) Young, growing bodies need lots of rest and sleep. (55) Please ensure that your child gets at least ten hour's sleep a night during the week. (56) If they are not well rested, they become tired and irritable. (57) If they are tired, they can't do their best. (58) It works best if your child has a fixed bedtime during the week. (59) If you make sure they are in bed by the arranged time, they will soon get into an evening routine, which will eliminate unnecessary squabbles about bed time.

[Indicating start of next topic of discussion], [Motivating to parents why sufficient sleep is important], [Reasoning: Cause and Effect]

(60) Isingcwangciso malunga nokwenza umsebenzi wesikolo womntwana kuselithuba senza impilo yakho neyomntwana ibe lula. (61) Ukuba umntwana unexesha elithile lokwenza umsebenzi wakhe wesikolo, loo nto soze ibangele ingxabano ngexesha lokwenza umsebenzi wakhe. (62) Ngokuba nexesha elithile lokwenza umsebenzi wakhe wesikolo, loo nto inokubangela ukuba umntwana abe nexesha elaneleyo lokulungiselela ungomso. (63) Ndiyathemba ukuba ningangqinelana nam xa ndisithi abantwana abasoze bazenzele amaxesha okwenza umsebenzi wesikolo. (64) Baye bafune ukuba abazali babancedise koku.

(60) A fixed routine regarding homework time will also make your life and your child's a lot easier. (61) If your child knows that he or she must do homework at a certain time, then the child will be less likely to argue about when homework has to be done. (62) Having a fixed time for doing homework will also ensure that there is enough time to get everything done for the next day. (63) I'm sure you would all agree that most children will not get themselves into a routine for homework. (64) We as parents have to help them to establish a routine.

[Stating the importance of establishing a fixed routine for children], [Reasoning: Cause and effect]

(65) Okokugqibela, ndifuna ukuthetha ngokondleka. (66) Ndiyathemba ukuba nakhe neva kusithiwa "Ungalendlela otya ngayo". (67) Kunjalo nasebantwaneni. (68) Into endifuna ukuyiveza ngale njikalanga, yinto yokuba thina bazali sinoxanduva lokuba sikwazi okutyiwa ngabantwana bethu. (69) Ngaphandle kokuxakeka esikuko okubangela ukuba singabinakho ukupheka izindlo ezisempilweni, kodwa kuyafuneka siqinisekise ukuba abantwana bethu batya ukutya okusempilweni. (70) Kufuneka sikuqonde ukuba bayisebenzisa kangakanani iswekile. (71) Ukusebenzisa iswekile egqithisileyo, ngakumbi kusasa okanye ngexesha lesikolo kubanga udlamko olugqithisileyo okanye utyefezo okubanga ukuba umntwana angamameli ngokupheleleyo. (72) Kungcono ukuba ubathengele i-snacks kuneelekese.

(65) Lastly, I want to talk about nutrition. (66) I'm sure you've heard the saying "You are what you eat". (67) This is obviously also true for our

children. (68) *The point that I want to make this evening is that we as parents have to pay careful attention to what our children eat.* (69) *Despite our busy lives that leave us with so little time to prepare healthy meals, we should try our best to ensure that our kids eat healthily.* (70) *We should try to monitor their daily sugar intake.* (71) *A high sugar intake, especially in the morning and during school time, provides an energy rush that makes children overly active or even hyperactive, which causes problems with concentration.* (72) *Try to pack healthy snacks rather than just sweets.*

[Indicating switch to last point of discussion], [Stating new topic of discussion], [Stating the importance of proper nutrition], [Providing hints for maintaining blood sugar levels]

(73) Kulungile, kuphelele ebendifuna ukukuthetha namhlanje. (74) Ingaba kukho imibuzo?

(73) Right, that is all I have to say for tonight. (74) Are there any questions or comments?

[Indicating end of prepared discussion topics], [Inviting questions from the audience]

P2: (75) Ndifuna ukongeza malunga nokondleka. (76) Ndikhe ndafunda kwimagazini ukuba kubalulekile sincede abantwana bethu ukuthoba ukusebenzisa iswekile egqithisileyo. (77) Iilekese kunye nokutya okuneswekile kunyusa i-energy ethi iphinde yehle kwamsinya. (78) Kungcono ukuba sinike abantwana bethu ukutya okufana neziqhamo, imifuno kunye nokutya okunengqolowa. (79) Abantwana bahlala befuna ukutya iilekese kodwa kufuneka sibathengele izinto ezisempilweni kuqala.

(75) I want to add to what you've just said about nutrition. (76) I read in a magazine that it is important to help our children to maintain constant blood sugar levels. (77) Sweets and processed foods provide a sudden energy boost after which energy levels drop again quickly. (78) So we should try to give our kids more of what people call low GI foods, such as fresh fruit and vegetables and whole grain wheat products. (79) Kids will always want sweets, but we should try to let them eat something healthy first.

[Stating agreement with what has been said about nutrition], [Providing information about how to maintain constant blood sugar levels]

P3: (80) Ewe, ndiyangqinelana nento oyithethayo. (81) Ndifuna ukongeza, kufuneka sibe ngumzekelo omhle kubantwana bethu. (82) Nathi bazali soze sitye kutya okungekho mpilweni, kodwa silindele abantwana ukuba batye ukutya okusempilweni. (83) Kufuneka sitye oko sifuna ukuba nabo mabakutye. (84) Ukuba sitya ukutya okusempilweni kwaye asityi zinto ezineswekile kakhulu, kuza kuba lula nakubantwana bethu ukuba balandele.

(80) Yes, I agree with what you are saying. (81) I want to add that we must also set a good example for our kids. (82) We as parents can't have bad eating habits ourselves and then expect our kids to eat healthy food. (83) We have to eat the same things that we want them to eat. (84) If we eat healthy food and limit our sugar intake and the amount junk food we eat, it will be easier for our kids to do the same.

[Stating agreement], [Motivating why it is important to set a good example for children], [Reasoning: Cause and effect]

- T: (85) Enkosi ngegalelo lenu. (86) Ingaba kukho eminye imibuzo? (87) Ayikho? (88) Kulungile. (89) Enkosini kakhulu. (90) Namkelekile ukuba ningashiyeka ukuba ninemibuzo. (91) Ningaya eholweni apho kukho izidlo enizibekelweyo. (92) Enkosi kwakhona ngokuza kwenu. (93) Nihambe kakuhle.
(85) Thank you for that input. (86) Are there any questions? (87) Nothing? (88) OK. (89) Thank you very much everybody. (90) You are welcome to stay behind if you have any questions. (91) You can move to the hall now where there will be some refreshments for you. (92) Thank you once again for your attendance this evening. (93) Good bye.
 [Expressing gratitude for information provided], [Inviting questions from audience], [Expressing gratitude to parents for attending], [Greeting]

5.2.4.3.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

The Task 3 dialogue is in fact largely monologic in that the teacher gives lengthy explanations without many questions asked or statements made by the parents to which he/she has to respond. Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

Examples of time references are: sentence 6 (**ngobu busuku**/ "tonight"); sentence 17 (**usuku olandelalayo** / "the next day"); sentence 35 (**kulo nyaka uphelileyo**/ "last year"); sentence 52 (**kule mihla**/ "these days") and sentence 71 (**kusasa okanye ngexesha lesikolo**/ "in the morning and during school time").

Spatial references are for example found in sentences such as the following: sentence 6 (**eli thuba**/ "this opportunity"); sentences 22, 24 and 38 (**etafileni**/ "at/around a table"); and sentence 91 (**eholweni**/ "to the hall").

Although references to time and space are found in this task, these are relatively few and non-essential in the context of the task, and therefore this task is classified as having [+ few elements]. Furthermore, where references to time and space do occur, there is no evidence of many such elements being present to which task

participants will have to refer and between which task participants will have to distinguish during task performance.

[-no reasoning]:

Although much of the task consists of information transmission, it is characterized as [-no reasoning] because reasoning is required to perform the task successfully. In sentence 7 the teacher motivates to the parents why he or she thinks it is necessary to have the intended discussion. In sentence 12 the teacher discusses reasons with the parents about the result of the busy lives that the parents who are present lead. Similarly, in sentence 16 the teacher states that if both parents working it causes a situation where there is limited time available to attend to children's needs. In sentence 56 the teacher talks to the parents about the result of children not getting enough sleep. These examples clearly indicate that that reasoning is required to perform this task.

[- here-and-now]:

This task is characterized as [-here-and-now] because task participants are required in several instances to talk about events that occur in other locations and in a different time. Most of the conversation takes place in the present tense but about events that happened in the past (parents' existing situation at home) and events that will happen in future (parents' intended, changed behaviour after the discussion). Most of the discussion is about events that happen elsewhere, e.g. at the different parents' homes, at shops and elsewhere in the school. Examples of references to other physical locations can be found in sentences such as the following: sentence 17 (reference to shopping for food, eating supper and helping children with homework), sentence 47 (reference to school and extra curricular activities) and sentence 90 (reference to the school hall).

[+ planning]:

It is assumed for the purposes of this study that task participants will be allowed planning time before attempting to perform this task. The participant taking the role of the teacher in this conversation will have to plan his or her responses in the

conversation carefully, because the teacher has to provide information about many different suggestions made to parents.

[- prior knowledge]:

No prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction. The task requires of participants to use whatever prior knowledge they may have about topics such as parenting skills in general, and more specifically nutrition, communication skills and time management. Especially the participant taking the role of the teacher will need background information about the topics that are to be discussed. Being a student teacher, the participant taking the role of the teacher will bring some prior knowledge to the task. This prior knowledge may however not be sufficient in order to perform this task successfully, because many of the topics/tips for parenting that are discussed here require specific rather than general knowledge. Considered on a continuum, the large amount of specific prior knowledge needed by the teacher to perform this task is such that it will contribute to the cognitive complexity of this task, rather than reduce complexity. Hence a classification of [- prior knowledge] is allocated to this task.

[- single task]:

This task requires of participants to perform more than one task at a time. The participant in the role of the teacher has to plan ahead while speaking which information he or she is going to provide to parents, while having to attend to matters that are important for successful public speaking, such as making eye contact with the audience and taking note of feedback in the form of non-verbal cues from the audience. The teacher also has to plan how he or she is going to convince parents' of the importance of the evening's discussion. Furthermore, the teacher has to plan which topics to discuss and what information or examples he or she will provide parents with regarding these topics.

With the exception of two dimensions this task can be classified as a quadrant 4 task in Robinson's framework for task analysis in terms of cognitive complexity. Unlike typical quadrant 4 tasks, this task does consist of few elements and it is assumed for

the purposes of this study that participants will be given planning time prior to task performance. The fact that this task consists of few elements and that participants will be allowed planning time has the implication that this task will have slightly less developmental and performative potential than typical quadrant 4 tasks.

5.2.4.3.2 Analysis of Speech Units

Because of the nature of this specific task (a teacher addressing a group of parents about parenting skills) it contains large chunks of monologic speech. Numerous examples of syntactically complex utterances are found in these monologic sections of the task, only some of which will be analysed for their syntactic complexity here.

In sentences 6 and 7 the teacher informs the audience of the purpose of the evening's meeting. Sentence 6 consists of a present tense indicative mood main clause **Ndingathanda** ("I would like), which takes an infinitive complement clause **ukusebenzisa** ("to use"). This is followed by a further subjunctive complement clause stating objective **ndithethe** ("I talk"). Sentence 7 starts with the main clause **banolwazi** ("they have knowledge"), followed by a future tense relative mood complement clause **endiza kuthetha ngayo** ("that I will talk about"). This followed by seven further complement clauses: Firstly, **kodwa ndiyathemba** ("but I hope"), a present tense indicative mood clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"). Then follows a clause featuring the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the stative verb **kubalulekile** ("it is important"). The third complement clause is a subjunctive clause indicating a successive action, **ukuba sikhumbuzane** ("that we remind each other"), which is followed by relative mood clause **esizenze** ("that we do them"). Then follows three further complement clauses: **sizenza** ("we do them"), **singenalwazi** ("we don't have knowledge"), and lastly **lokuba sizenzela ntoni** ("that we do what").

In sentences 8-12 the teacher invites parents to take part in the discussion and comments on people's general lack of knowledge about parenting. Sentence 8 is a monoclausal sentence featuring the main present tense indicative mood clause

ndingathanda ("I would like"). Sentence 9 consists of the same main clause as sentence 8, after which follows a subjunctive complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"): **ukuba nikubone** ("that you see it"). Sentence 10 consists of two main clauses: the copular clause **ndingumzali** ("I am a parent") and the compound past tense indicative clause featuring the deficient verb **-hlala** ("always") followed by the situative mood verb **-thi** ("to say"): **bendihlala ndisithi** ("I always say"). This is followed by a negative passive subordinate clause, **ubuzali abufundelwa** ("parenthood is not studied"). Sentence 11 starts with the conjunction **koko** ("but"), followed by a subjunctive subordinate clause **sixomekeke** ("we rely"). This is followed by a further complement clause, the past tense passive relative mood clause **ezasisenziwa** ("which was done") and the present tense passive relative mood clause **zenziwa** ("which is done"). Then only follows the main clause of sentence 11: the infinitive clause **ukuthatha izigqibo** ("to take decisions"), which is followed by a last complement clause, **zokukhulisa** ("of raising") which features the possessive concord **za-** used with infinitive verb **ukukhulisa** ("to raise"). Sentence 12 consists of a subordinate clause featuring a relative mood verb **obuxaxekileyo** ("which are busy"), and a negative main clause **siye singabi nalo ithuba** ("we are not with the opportunity"). This is followed by two subordinate clauses, followed by **lokucinga**, an infinitive clause meaning "to think", and a further descriptive possessive infinitive clause **yokukhulisa** ("to raise").

In sentences 34-41 a parent shares ideas with the meeting about the importance of shared mealtimes. Sentence 34 starts with the complement clause **ndifuna ukuthi** ("I want to say"), followed by the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyangqinelana** ("I agree") and the infinitive complement **ukuthetheyo** ("that you are saying it"). In sentence 35 the main remote past tense clause **saqala** ("we started") takes two complement clauses: firstly the infinitive clause **ukucima** ("to switch off") and then also the situative complement clause denoting a simultaneous action, **sisitya** ("while we eat"). Sentence 36 contains a past tense indicative mood main clause **baqala** ("they started") which takes an infinitive complement clause, **ukukhala** ("to complain"). This is followed by three further complement clauses,

sithi sitshicilele ("we record"), and **ukuze babe nakho** ("so that they can") and **ukuzibukela** ("to watch them"). Sentence 37 contains a complement clause featuring the consecutive mood deficient verb **saye** ("we furthermore") followed by the past tense indicative mood main clause **saqaphela** ("we realised"). This is followed by the complement clause **ukuba abantwana abasakhathazeki** ("that the children no longer complained"). Sentence 38 starts with the future tense indicative mood main clause **Baya kukuthakazelela** ("they will enjoy"), followed by the infinitive complement clause **ukutyela etafileni** ("to eat at table"). This is followed by a further complement clause introduced by the conjunction **kwaye** ("and further"): **baye basincokolele** ("and furthermore they converse with us"), which consists of the consecutive mood deficient verb **ye** ("and furthermore") and the situative mood verb **basincokolele** ("they converse with us"). Sentence 38 ends with a passive situative complement clause **kugqityiwe ngesidlo** ("to have finished") introduced by the conjunction **emveni kokuba** ("after"). Sentence 39 starts with a complement clause featuring a consecutive mood deficient verb **saye** ("we furthermore") followed by the past tense indicative mood main clause **saqaphela** ("we noticed"). This is followed by the main clause of sentence 39 **bavela basixelela**, which consists of the deficient verb **bavela** ("they spontaneously/by nature") and the situative mood main clause **basixelela** ("they tell"). Sentence 39 contains two further complement clauses: **abangazithandanga**, a past tense negative relative mood clause meaning ("that they didn't like") and **singababuzanga**, a past tense negative subjunctive mood sentence ("we did not ask them"). Sentence 40 starts with main clause **Baye basibuze** which consists of the consecutive mood deficient verb **ye** ("and furthermore") and the situative mood verb **basibuze** ("they ask us"). This is followed by a complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("whether"), **ukuba usuku lwethu belunjani** ("how our day was"). This turn in the task is concluded with sentence 41, which consists of a present tense indicative main clause **ndiyacinga** ("I think"), followed by a copular complement clause **lixesha elimnandi** ("it the nicest time"), which is introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that").

Another example of a turn in this conversation that contains complex syntactic structures is found in sentences 60 – 64. In this section the teacher is stating the importance of establishing a fixed routine for children. Sentence 60 begins with a complement clause featuring an infinitive verb, **malunga nokwenza umsebenzi wesikolo** ("regarding doing homework"). This is followed by a copular complement clause **kuselithuba** ("it is the opportunity/thing") preceding the main clause **yenza** ("that makes"), which is followed by a complement clause **ibe lula** ("it is easy"). Sentence 61 starts with a complement clause **ukuba umntwana unexesha** ("if a child has time"), this is followed by the deficient verb **ngeze** "would"), followed by the consecutive verb **yabanga** ("it causes/makes"). This is followed by a complement clause **ngexesha lokwenza** ("time to do"), which consists of an infinitive verb used with the possessive. Sentence 62 begins with two complement clauses. Firstly **ngokuba** ("to be with / to have"), and then the possessive infinitive clause **lokwenza** ("to do"). Thereafter follows the main clause of the sentence, consisting of an infinitive verb used with the particle **-na-** which here conveys the meaning "can": **inokubangela** ("it can cause / result in"). This is followed by two further complement clauses: **ukuba umntwana abenexesha** ("that a child has time"), which is a situative clause featuring the verb **ba** ("to be) and the particle **-na-** ("with"), after which follows the descriptive infinitive clause **lokulungiselela** ("to prepare"). Sentence 63 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **Ndiyathemba** ("I trust / am sure"), followed by a subordinate clause **ukuba ningangqinelana nam** consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") followed by the verb **ningangqinelana** ("you can/will agree with me") which consists of the potential particle **-nga-** which conveys the meaning "can" and the reciprocal verbal suffix **-ana**. Sentence 63 further consists of a situative mood complement clause **ndisithi** ("I say") introduced by the conjunction **xa** ("if"). This is followed by a further complement clause **abaye bazenzele**, which features the negative deficient verb **abaye** ("furthermore they won't") followed by the subjunctive clause **bazenzele** ("they prepare"). Sentence 63 is concluded by an infinitive complement clause: **wokwenza** ("to do"). The final sentence in this turn of the task, sentence 64, starts with a main clause consisting of the consecutive deficient verb clause **Baye** ("they furthermore") and the subjunctive mood verb **bafune** ("they want").

This is followed by the complement clause **ukuba abazali babancedise**, consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the subjunctive clause **babancedise** ("they help them").

In the last speech turn to be analyzed in this section, sentences 80-84, a parent talks to the audience about the importance of setting a good example to their children regarding eating habits. Sentence 80 consists of a present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyangqinelana** ("I agree") followed by a relative mood complement clause **oyithethayo** ("that you speak/say"). Sentence 81 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndifuna** ("I want") followed by the infinitive complement clause **okwangeza** ("to add"). This is followed by a complement clause **kufuneka sibe ngumzekelo** ("it is necessary that we be a good example"), consisting of the subjunctive verb **sibe** ("we be") and the copular verb **ngumzekelo** ("it is an example"). Sentence 82 starts with the negative main clause **ngeze sitye** ("we must not eat") followed by a negative complement clause **okungekho** ("which does not exist"). This is followed by a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"): **kodwa silindele** ("but we expect"), followed by a further subjunctive complement clause **ukuba batye** ("that they eat"). Sentence 82 is concluded by the relative mood locative complement clause **okusempilweni** ("that is not in health", i.e. "that is not healthy"). Sentence 83 starts with the subjunctive main clause **Kufuneka sitye** ("it is necessary that we eat"), followed by the subordinate situative clause **sifuna ukuba** ("we want that") and a further complement clause featuring the hortative mood deficient verb **ma-** ("let"): **mabakutye** ("let them eat it"). Sentence 84 starts with a series of complement clauses appearing prior to the future tense indicative mood main clause **kuza kuba lula** ("it will be easy"). The first of these complement clauses is **ukuba sitya** ("if we eat"), followed by the negative complement clause **kwaye asityi** ("and furthermore we don't eat"). After the main clause mentioned earlier follows the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba balandele** ("that they follow/do the same").

From the above analysis it is clear that the majority of the sentences in this task display highly complex syntactic structures. Comparing the sentences analyzed above with the generic moves identified earlier does not reveal a correlation between specific types of generic moves and syntactic complexity. A possible explanation for this might be that this task contains large chunks of monologic speech in which the participants had the opportunity to use longer sentences and speech turns, and therefore more complex language.

5.2.4.3.3 Salient Language Structures

The following are examples of sentence structures that are essential for the successful acquisition of the language realized in the following important generic moves:

[Indicating start of next/new topic of discussion], [Indicating elaboration]

Hortative + Subjunctive:

Masiqale ngonxibelelwano. ("Let us start with communication") (13)

Use of **enye into** ("another thing"):

Enye into endifuna ukuba sithetha ngayo ... (The next/another thing I want us to talk about ...) (45)

Use of **kubalulekile** ("it is important"):

Okunye okubalulekileyo ("The next important thing") (52)

Use of **-gqibela** ("to finish"):

Okukugqibela, ndifuna ukuthetha ngokondleka. ("Lastly I want to talk about nutrition.") (65)

[Inviting participation / opinion / questions]

Use of **izimvo** ("opinions"):

Ndingathanda izimvo negalelo lenu ("I would like your opinions and your contributions") (8)

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba kukho mibuzo? ("Are there perhaps any questions?")

[Stating agreement]

Use of **-ngqinelana na-** ("agree with"):

Ndifuna ukuthi ndiyangqinelana noku ukuthetheyo. ("I want to say I agree with what you are saying.") (34)

Ndiyathemba ukuba ningangqinelana nam xa ndisithi... I'm sure you would agree with me when I say ...") (63)

Ndiyangqinelana nento oyithethayo. ("I agree with what you are saying.") (80)

Use of **-vumelana** ("to agree"):

... abantu bebenqwala bevumelana nawe ("People were nodding in agreement with you") (43)

[Reasoning: Condition, Cause and effect]

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba sitya sibukele umabona kude loo nto iza kubangela ukuba siphulukane nokubaluleka kokunxibelelana nabantwana bethu. ("If we eat in front of the TV every evening, we are losing valuable communication time with our children and spouses.") (23)

Ukuba abaphumli ngokwaneleyo baye badinwe. ("If they are not well rested, they become tired.") (56)

Ukuba uyaqiniseka ukuba bayalala ngexesha elilungisiweyo, baza kungena kumsebenzi wesiqhelo wasebusuku ngokukhawuleza, oza kudala iingxabano ezingeyomfuneko malunga nexesha lokulala. ("If you make sure they are in bed by the arranged time, they will soon get into an evening routine, which will eliminate unnecessary squabbles about bed time.") (59)

Use of **xa** ("if"):

Xa bediniwe abaye basebenze ngcono kwizifundo zabo. ("If they are tired, they can't do their best.") (57)

[Stating importance]

Use of **kubalulekile** ("it is important") + **ukuba** ("that") + Subjunctive:

Kubalulekile ukuba sithethe nabantwana bethu ... ("It is vitally important that we talk to our children...") (14)

Ngeyona nto ibalulekileyo leyo ebomini ... ("It is the most important thing in their lives ...") (48)

Okunye okubalulekileyo ... ("Another important thing") (52)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") + Subjunctive:

Kufuneka silungise isidlo sangokuhlwa ... ("It is necessary that we prepare supper ...") (17)

..., kufuneka siqinisekise ukuba ... ("it is necessary that we ensure that")(69)

[Making suggestions]

Use of **mele** + **ukuba** + Subjunctive:

Nathi bazali kumele ukuba sibamamele abantwana ... ("We as parents we must listen to the children...") (29)

[Indicating ability]

Use of **nakho** + Infinitive:

siza kuba nakho ukubafunda ("we will be able to learn") (30)

singanakho ukuwakhusela ("we can protect them") (31)

[Requesting information]

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps")

Ingaba kukho eminye imibuzo? ("Are there any questions?") (79), (86)

[Stating opinion]

Use of **-cinga** ("think"):

Ndiyacinga ukuba ixesha lesidlo sangokuhlwa lixesha elimnandi kakhulu kowam umzi. ("I think supertime has become a favourite time of the day in our house.") (41)

[Indicating certainty]

Use of **–themba ukuba** ("to be sure that"):

Ndiyathemba ukuba ningangqinelana nam... ("I'm sure you would all agree with me...") (63)

Ndiyathemba ukuba nakhe neva kusithiwa "Ungalendlela otya ngayo". ("I'm sure you've heard the saying "You are what you eat".) (66)

Use of **–qiniseka ukuba** ("to be sure"):

Qiniseka ukuba umntwana wakho ulale iiyure ezilishumi phakathi evekini. ("Please ensure that your child gets at least ten hour's sleep a night during the week.") (55)

Ukuba uyaqiniseka ukuba bayalala ngexesha elilungisiweyo ... ("If you make sure they are in bed by the arranged time, ...") (59)

...kodwa kuyafuneka sqinisekise ukuba abantwana bethu batya ukutya okusempilweni. ("...we should try our best to ensure that our kids eat healthily.") (69)

The above salient language structures are crucial for the acquisition of the language contained in the main communication segments identified for this task, and as such should be included in focus on form activities for this task.

5.2.4.4 Task 4

Umfundi omtsha ujoyina ikhosi phakathi enyakeni. Mazise kubafundi be-class. Ukumazi ngcono, yithi kuye azazise ngakumbi kubafundi.

An new learner joins your class in the middle of the year. Introduce the new learner to the rest of the class. To get to know the learner, you ask him or her tell the class more about him or herself.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To get to know new learner and to respond to her questions and statements
- 2 To provide opportunity for learner to introduce herself to class and to respond to other learners' questions and statements
- 3 To make learner feel welcome

T = Teacher

NL = New Learner

C = Class

OL1+2 = Old Learners

T: (1) Molo, ungubani igama lakho?

(1) Good morning, what's your name?

[Greeting], [Asking learner's name]

NL: (2) Molo, NdinguLinda Mabuze.

(2) Good morning, I'm Linda Mabuze.

[Greeting], [Stating name and surname]

T: (3) Hi, Linda. (4) NdinguMnumzana Black. (5) Wamkelekile egumbini lam. (6) Ndiyathemba uza konwaba apha. (7) Ungahlala phantsi, ngakuZuki. (8) Phambi kokuba uhlale phantsi ndithanda ukukwazisa kwi-class yam. (9) Kukho nto onokuyithetha ukuze nabo bakwazi?

(3) Hi, Linda. (4) I'm Mr Black. (5) Welcome to my class. (6) I hope that you will be very happy here. (7) You can sit over there, next to Zuki. (8) But before you sit down, I want to introduce you to the rest of my class. (9) Will you say something about yourself so that they can also get to know you?

[Introducing self], [Welcoming learner], [Requesting learner to introduce self to class]

NL: (10) Kulungile, mfundisi.

(10) Ok, sir.

[Stating agreement]

T: (11) Ungabi neentloni. (12) Balunge kakhulu. (13) Ungabeka ubhaka wakho ngasetafileni yam, ndikwazise.

(11) Don't be shy. (12) They really are a nice bunch. (13) Ok, put your bag down here next to my table then I will introduce you.

[Reassuring learner], [Instructing learner to put bag down]

(14) Class, ndiza kunazisa kumfundi omtsha. (15) Lo ke nguLinda Mabuze. (16) Uqala namhlanje. (17) Ndimcelile uLinda ukuba asixelele ngakumbi ngaye.

(14) Class, I want to introduce you to a new learner. (15) Class, this is Linda Mabuze. (16) She is joining us from today. (17) I've asked Linda to tell us more about herself.

[Introducing learner to class]

NL: (18) Molweni nonke.

(18) Hi everybody.

[Greeting]

C: (19) Molo, Linda!

(19) Hi, Linda!

[Greeting]

T: (20) Sukuba neentloni, Linda. (21) Ungasixelela ntoni ngawe?

(20) Now Linda, don't be shy. (21) What can you tell us about yourself?

[Reassuring learner], [Requesting further information]

NL: (22) Ndineminyaka elishumi elinanye ndisuka eBhayi. (23) Sifike apha ngoLwesihlanu weveki ephelileyo. Sihlala e-Claremont. (24) Ndinabantakwethu ababini. (25) Omnye uku-Grade 8 omnye ku-Grade 4. (26) Oku-Grade 8 igama lakhe nguJohn, uqala e-Westerford High namhlanje. (27) Omnye nguMandla, yena ukwalapha e-Rosebank Primary. (28) Ndinga ukuba ukwigumbi likaNkosazana Jackson.

(22) I'm 11 years old and I come from Port Elizabeth. (23) We moved here last Friday. (24) We're staying in Claremont. (25) I have two brothers. (26) The one is in Grade 8 and the other in Grade 4. (27) The one in Grade 8, John, is starting at Westerford High today. (28) My other brother, Mandla, is here with me in Rosebank Primary. (29) I think he's going to be in Miss Jackson's class.

[Providing biographical information]

T: (30) Enkosi Linda. (31) Ingaba ukho ofuna ukubuza uLinda umbuzo? (32) Samantha, ufuna ukuthini?

(30) Ok, thanks, Linda. (31) Is there anyone who would like to ask Linda something? (32) Samantha, what do you want to know?

[Expressing gratitude], [Encouraging class to ask questions], [Providing opportunity for learner to ask question]

OL1: (33) *Mfundisi, ndifuna ukuqonda ukuba uLinda ingaba uyakwazi ukudlala ibhola yomnyazi.*

(33) Sir, I want to know if Linda plays netball.

[Requesting information]

T: (34) Linda?

[Indicating to Linda to speak]

- NL: (35) Ewe, ndiyakwazi. (36) Umama uthe kufuneka ndiyidlale apha.
(35) Yes, I do. (36) My mother said I should do it here.
 [Providing information]
- OL: (37) Kwakuhle. (38) Sidinga abadlali. (39) Unokuza nam ngomso sizo kuziqeqesha emva kwesikolo ngomso. (40) Ndiza kukusa kuNkosazana Myburgh.
(37) Great! (38) We need more players. (39) You can come with me to practice tomorrow after school. (40) I'll take you to Miss Myburgh.
 [Expressing delight], [Providing information], [Indicating willingness to assist]
- NL: (41) Enkosi, ndingakuvuyela oko.
(41) Thank you, I'd like that.
 [Expressing gratitude]
- T: (42) Enkosi ngokuzikhathaza kwakho, Samantha. (43) Kukho omnye umbuzo?
 (44) Pauline?
(42) Thank you for offering, Samantha. (43) Any other questions for Linda? (44) Pauline?
 [Expressing gratitude], [Providing further opportunity for questions]
- OL2: (45) Linda ingaba ungumntu othanda ntoni?
(45) Linda, what are your hobbies?
 [Requesting information]
- NL: (46) Ndithanda i-ice-skating... kwaye ndiyathanda ukufunda. (47) Ndiyayidlala ne-clarinet.
(46) I like ice-skating ... and I like reading. (47) I also play the clarinet.
 [Stating hobbies]
- T: (48) I-Clarinet! (49) Kwakuhle oko. (50) Ndiza kuthetha nawe ekuhambeni kwethuba ukukuncedisa ukufumana ititshala yomculo ekufuphi nendawo ohlala kuyo.
(48) The clarinet! (49) That's wonderful. (50) I'll talk to you later about finding a music teacher close to where you live.
 [Expressing delight], [Indicating willingness to assist in future]
- NL: (51) Enkosi, mfundisi. (52) Umama ebethe ze ndibuze kuwe.
(51) Thank you, sir. (52) My mother told me to ask you.
 [Expressing gratitude]
- T: (53) Phulaphulani ngoku, class. (54) Ndifuna ukuba nancedise uLinda nakwintoni na eza kumenza azive emkelekile.
(53) Right, class listen to me now. (54) I want you to help Linda out wherever you can and to make her feel at home with us.
 [Instructing class to assist new learner]

- C: (55) Ewe, mfundisi!
(55) *Yes, sir!*
[Stating willingness to assist new learner]
- T: (56) Ungahlala apha ngaku-Zuki. (57) Ndiza kukuphathela iincwadi ngexesha lesidlo ukuze uqale ngomsebenzi wakho emva kwexesha lesidlo. (58) Sifunda izibalo okwangoku. (59) Unokufundana noZuki okwangoku.
(56) *Ok, Linda let's get you settled over here next to Zuki. (57) I'll fetch the textbooks you need during break so that you can get started with the work after break. (58) We are busy with Maths at the moment. (59) You can share Zuki's book for now.*
[Instructing new learner], [Stating intention]
- NL: (60) Enkosi, mfundisi.
(60) *Thank you, sir.*
[Expressing gratitude]
- T: (61) Ngoku masibuyele kwizifundo, class. (62) Sifunda ngenambha 3 kwiphepha 51. (63) Ncedani niyenze kwangoku niyigqibe phambi kokuba intsimbi yesidlo ibethe, ukuze sibe nakho ukumakisha. (64) Sinemizuzu eyi20 phambi kokuba intsimbi ibethe, gqibani ngokukhawuleza. (65) Ogqibileyo ukwenza u-3 unokwenza unamba 6 okwiphepha elilandelayo. (66) Ngumsebenzi lowo wangomso.
(61) *Now class, let's get back to work. (62) We were busy with Exercise number 3 on page 51. (63) Please finish that so that we can mark it before the bell rings for break. (64) We only have another 20 minutes before the bell rings, so please try to finish that exercise quickly. (65) Those who have finished with number 3 can go on to number 6 on the next page. (66) That will be for homework for tomorrow.*
[Instructing class]

5.2.4.4.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

This task is classified as [+ few elements] despite the fact that references to time and space do occur. Examples of spatial references are found in the following sentences: sentence 5 (**egumbini lam** / "to my class"), sentence 13

(**ngasetafileni yam** / "next to my table"), sentence 50 (**ekufuphi nendawo ohlala kuyo** / "close to where you live") and sentence 65 (**okwiphepha elilandelayo** / "on the next page"). Temporal references are, for example, found in sentences such as the following: sentence 39 (**emva kwesikolo** / "after school"), sentence 57 (**ngexesha lesidlo** / "during break") and sentence 64 (**phambi kokuba instimbi ibethe** / "before the bell rings"). Both the temporal and spatial references are few and, seen in the context of the task as a whole, not crucial for the task to be performed successfully. This task is therefore seen as having [+ few elements].

[- no reasoning]:

This task does not require mere transmission of information but involves some reasoning. In sentences 63-66 the teacher reasons with the learners about why they need to hurry up with their work.

[- here-and-now]:

To perform this task successfully the participants need to refer to times other than the present and to contexts other than the classroom in which the task is set. References to the past are found in sentences 17, 23 and 52, while references to the future are found in sentences 6, 14, 50 and 57. References to places other than the classroom are found in sentences 22, 24, 27, 29 and 50.

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that planning time will be available for task participants prior to the actual task performance. The participant taking the role of the teacher will need time to plan how to introduce the learner and how to make the learner feel welcome in her new class. The participant taking the role of the new learner will need time to plan which biographical information she is going to use when introducing herself and which language structures to use when doing so.

[+ prior knowledge]:

Task participants can invent biographical and other information during the pre-task

planning. They would need to invent a name and surname together with other family information for the participant taking the role of the new learner. Seeing that this information is general in nature and because the participants are adult language learners and student teachers, this will not be cognitively challenging. Seen on a continuum the amount and nature of the prior knowledge needed to perform this task is such that it would not increase the cognitive load for the participants. For this reason a classification of [+ prior knowledge] is made.

[- single task:]

This task requires of participants to perform more than one action at a time. The participant taking the role of the teacher is required to plan while speaking how to make the learner feel welcome and how to introduce the learner to the class. The participant in the role of the new learner will have to plan ahead while speaking how she will supply biographical information about herself and her family, e.g. when to mention siblings and parents' occupations.

With the above dimensions of cognitive complexity taken into consideration this task can be classified as most resembling the characteristics of a quadrant 3 task in Robinson's framework (2005). With the exception of [+/- few elements] and [+/- single task] all the characteristics of this task correspond with those posited by Robinson for quadrant 3 tasks. This has the implication that this task will have slightly less developmental potential, but slightly higher performative complexity than typical quadrant 3 tasks as described by Robinson.

5.2.4.4.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of shorter and generally less syntactically complex sentences compared to the previous task analyzed above.

Sentences 1 to 5 are simple monoclausal sentences containing greetings and introductions. Sentence 6 consists of a present tense indicative main clause **Ndiyathemba** ("I hope") followed by a future tense complement clause **uza konwaba** ("you will be happy"). Sentence 7 consists of a single main clause

featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-** ("can/may"): **ungahlala phantsi** ("you may sit down"). Sentence 8 starts with a subjunctive complement clause featuring the conjunction **phambi kokuba: phambi kokuba uhlale** ("before you sit"). This is followed by the main clause **ndithanda** ("I want/would like"), which in turn is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukukwazisa** ("to introduce you"). Sentence 9 starts with the main clause **Kukho nto** ("there exists/is a thing/something"), followed by the relative mood infinitive complement clause **onokuyithetha** ("that you would like to say"). Sentence 9 ends with the subjunctive complement clause stating purpose and is introduced by the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that"): **ukuze bakwazi** ("so that they know you").

In sentences 22-29 the participant taking the role of the new learner introduces herself to the class and provides biographic some information. Most of the sentences in this conversational turn are monoclausal sentences. Only the syntactically complex sentences will be analyzed here. Sentence 22 contains 2 main clauses: the first, **ndineminyaka** ("I have years"), features the verbal partical **-na-** ("have"), while the second main clause is the present tense indicative mood clause **ndisuka** ("I come from"). Sentence 29 features the present tense indicative mood clause **Ndicinga** ("I think"), followed by a locative complement clause **ukuba ukwigumbi** ("he is in the class").

Sentence 31 starts with the main indicative clause **Ingaba ukho** ("perhaps there is someone") followed by a relative mood complement clause **ofuna** ("who/that wants"). This is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukubuza** ("to ask"). Sentence 33 consists of the main indicative mood clause **ndifuna** ("I want") followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukuqonda** ("to know/understand"). This is followed by two further complement clauses, first **ingaba uyakwazi** ("perhaps she knows"), a present tense indicative mood clause, and then an infinitive clause **ukudlala** ("to play").

In sentence 36 the main clause is the past tense indicative mood clause **uthe** ("she said"). This is followed by a subordinate clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary that"),

which takes a subjunctive mood complement clause **ndiyidlale** ("I play it"). Sentence 39 consists of the main infinitive clause featuring the verbal particle **-na-: Unokuza** ("you can come"). This is followed by a future tense complement clause **sizo kuziqeqesha** ("we will go practice"). Sentence 40 is a monoclausal sentence containing only the main future tense indicative clause **ndiza kukusa** ("I will take you").

Sentences 41-49 consist of short monoclausal sentences. Sentence 50 starts with a future tense indicative mood main clause **Ndiza kuthetha** ("I will speak"), followed by two infinitive complement clauses **ukukuncedisa ukufumana** ("to help you to find"). Sentence 50 ends with a relative mood complement clause **ohlala** ("that you stay"). Sentence 52 starts with the past tense indicative mood main clause **ebethe** ("she said"), followed by the deficient verb **ze** ("must") and the subjunctive mood complement clause **ndibuze** ("I ask").

Sentence 54 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndifuna** ("I want") followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba: ukuba nincedise** ("that you help"). This is followed by three further complement clauses. Firstly, **eza kumenza** ("that will make him"), a future tense relative mood clause, which is followed by **azive** ("she herself feels"), a subjunctive mood complement clause featuring the reflexive particle **-za-**. The last complement clause in sentence 54 is **esamkelekile** ("she feels welcome"), which is a situative mood complement clause featuring the stative verb **-amkelekile** ("to be welcome").

In sentence 57 the main clause **ndiza kukuphathela** ("I will fetch for you") appears at the beginning of the sentence. This is a future tense indicative mood clause. This is followed by the situative mood complement clause **ukuze uqala** ("so that you begin"). Sentence 58 is a monoclausal sentences featuring the infinitive verb **unokufundisana** ("you can study with"), featuring the the particle **-na-** ("can") and the reciprocal verbal suffix **-ana**.

This dialogue ends with sentences 61 – 66 in which the teacher gives instructions to the class to get on with their work . Sentences 61 and 62 are short monoclausal sentences. Sentence 63 starts with the main clause **ncedani niyenze** ("you please do"), consisting of the verb **-nceda** which is here used to mean "please", and **niyenze** ("you do"), which is a subjunctive verb. This is followed by a subjunctive complement clause indicating a successive action, **niyigqibe** ("you finish"), and a further subjunctive complement clause **ibethe** ("it rings"), which is introduced by the conjunction **phambi kokuba** ("before"). This is followed by a further complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that"): **ukuze sibe nakho** ("so that we can"). Sentence 63 concludes with a final, infinitive complement clause **ukumakisha** ("to mark"). Sentence 64 consists of a main clause **sinemizuzu** ("we have minutes"), featuring the verbal particle **-na-** ("have"). This main clause is followed by 3 complement clauses. Firstly, **phambi kokuba intsimbi ibethe** ("before the bell rings"), a subjunctive complement clause. Then follows a further subjunctive complement clause denoting a successive action: **gqibani**, ("you finish"). Thirdly, sentence 64 ends with the adverbial infinitive mood phrase **ngokukhawuleza** ("by finishing quickly").

When comparing the above syntactic analysis with the generic moves identified for this task no correlation is found between sections that are syntactically complex and specific generic moves. Sentences with a complex structure are used to perform a wide range of moves. For example, in sentences 8 and 9 the learner is requested to introduce herself to the class, while in sentence 31 the teacher is encouraging the class to ask the new learners questions. In sentences 57 and 58 the teacher is giving the new learner instructions. This variety of generic moves all consist of complex syntactic structures. Hence the syntactic complexity does not correlate with certain specific generic moves.

5.2.4.4.3 Salient Language Structures

The following are examples of constructions that are crucial for the acquisition of the generic moves identified for this task:

[Reassuring learner]

Use of **iintloni**:

Ungabi neentloni. ("Don't be shy.") (11)

Sukuba neentloni. ("Don't be shy.") (20)

[Giving instructions]

Use of the potential **-nga-**:

Ungabeka ubhaka ... ("You can put your bag...") (13)

Ungahlala apha ... ("You can sit here ...") (56)

Use of **-funa ukuba**:

Ndifuna ukuba nancedise uLinda ... ("I want that you help ...") (54)

Use of the Imperative mood:

Phulaphulani ngoku ... ("Now listen all of you ...") (53)

Use of **Ncedani** + Subjunctive:

Ncedani niyenze ... ("Please do ...(plural)") (63)

[Requesting information]

Use of **-thetha** + Relative mood:

Kukho nto onokuyithetha ... ("What is there that you can say...") (9)

Use of **-nga + -xelela**:

Ungasixelela ntoni ... ? ("What can you tell us ...?")

Use of **-funa ukuqonda**:

Ndifuna ukuqonda ukuba ... ("I want to know if ...")

[Providing opportunity for others to speak]

Use of **-funa ukubuza**:

Ingaba ukho ofuna ukubuza ... ("Is there anyone who wants to ask ...")
(31)

Use of **-funa ukuthini**:

Ufuna ukuthini? ("What do you want to ask?") (32)

Use of **kukho umbuzo**:

Kukho omnye umbuzo? ("Is there another question?") (43)

[Stating intention]

Use of the Future Tense:

Ndiza kukusa kuNkosazana Myburgh. ("I will take you to Miss M...")(40)

Ndiza kuthetha nawe ... ("I will talk to you ...") (50)

Ndiza kukuphatela ... ("I will fetch for you ...") (57)

Viewed in totality the key linguistic structures identified for this task are relatively non-complex, which is in contrast to the cognitive complexity of this task. The structures identified could serve as a basis for the development of focus on form activities for this task.

5.2.4.5 Task 5

Umfundi ontetho isisiXhosa ofunda egumbini lakho akasazi isiNgesi ngokupheleleyo ukuze alandele yonke imithetho yakho. Emva kokuba umnike imithetho ngesiNgesi, buza umfundi ngamnye ukuba ukuvile oko ukuthethileyo. Buza ukuba kukho magama athile abafuna ukuba uwacacise ngakumbi. Umfundi ucela uncedo.

A Xhosa mother tongue speaking learner in your class does not know English well enough to understand all your instructions. After giving instructions to the class in English, ask the learner individually whether he or she understands the instructions. Ask if there are specific words that you can translate or explain the meaning of. The learner asks for some assistance.

Communicative Purpose:

- 1 Offering assistance to learner individually and respond to his/her questions
- 2 Encouraging learner to ask for assistance
- 3 Reassuring and motivating learner by complimenting his work

T = Teacher

L = Learner

T: (1) Vuyo, kwenzeka ntoni apha?
(1) Vuyo, how's it going over here?
[Requesting information about progress]

L: (2) Akukho ngxaki, mfundisi.
(2) I'm okay, sir.

- T: (3) Ingaba ukuvile konke endikuthethileyo?
(3) *Did you understand most of what I just said?*
[Enquiring about understanding work]
- L: (4) Ndicinga njalo, mfundisi.
(4) *I think so, sir.*
[Answering with uncertainty]
- T: (5) Kulungile, masibuyele koko ndithe makwenziwe, ungabuza umbuzo ukuba unawo. (6) Masiqwalasele. (7) Ndifuna ukuba ujonge le mifanekiso wandule ukuyinambarisha ngendlela eyiyo, ukuze ibe nakho ukufeza ibali. (8) Ingaba awunangxaki noku?
(5) *Okay, let's go through the instructions again, and then you can ask me if you have any questions. (6) Right, lets take a look. (7) I want you to look at these pictures and then to number them in the correct order, so that they will tell a story. (8) Are you okay so far with that?*
[Offering assistance], [Giving learner instructions], [Enquiring whether learner understands]
- L: (9) Ewe, ndiza kuthi ndiqwalasele ukuba ngeyiphi eza kuqala ukuze ndibe nakho ukuzibeka ngendlela elungileyo.
(9) *Yes, I must just see which one comes first and then put them in the right order.*
[Stating understanding of problem]
- T: (10) Kwakuhle! (11) Ungabhala iinombolo zemifanekiso kwibhokisi engentla kumfanekiso ngamnye.
(10) That's right! (11) You can just write down the numbers of the pictures in the block below each picture.
[Expressing delight], [Giving instruction]
- L: (12) Emva koko?
(12) *And then?*
[Requesting further explanation]
- T: (13) Ndifuna ubhale ibali elichazwa yile miboniso. (14) Ungabhala izivakalisi ezibini okanye ezintathu ngomfanekiso ngamnye.
(13) *Then I want you to write the story that is told in these pictures. (14) You can write two or three sentences for each picture.*
[Giving instructions]
- L: (15) Ndingabhala izivakalisi ezantsi komfanekiso?
(15) *Can I just write the sentences here under each picture?*
[Requesting confirmation of understanding]
- T: (16) *Hayi, ungasebenzisa indawo esemantla ephepha.*
(16) No, you can use the space at the bottom of the page.

[Giving instruction]

- L: (17) Kufuneka ukuba ndizinambarishe izivakalisi?
 (17) *Must I number the sentences?*
 [Requesting information]
- T: (18) Hayi, kufuneka ubhale umhlathi. (19) Uyakwazi omawukwenze?
 (18) *No, you must write a paragraph. (19) Okay, do you know what to do?*
 [Giving instruction], [Asking whether learner understands]
- L: (20) Ewe, enkosi, titshala.
 (20) *Yes, thank you, titshala.*
 [Answering affirmatively], [Expressing gratitude]
- T: (21) Kulungile. (22) Vuyo, ungoyiki ukundibuza xa unengxaki kwakho. (23) Asiyongxaki yakho ekubeni ungakwazi ukuthetha isiNgesi okwangoku. (24) Andikhathazeki ukukucacisela kwakho. (25) IsiNgesi sakho siphucukile noko kulo nyaka. (26) Ndiyathemba ukuba kulo nyaka uzayo soze ube nengxaki nomsebenzi wakho. (27) Kufuneka uhlale ubuza. (28) Ngeze ukuqonde, kodwa ngenye imini uza kubona ukuba uya kukulandela oko kuthiwa makwenziwe. (29) Hlala usenza umsebenzi wakho. (30) Unoncumo, usaqhuba kakuhle.
 (21) *That's good! (22) Vuyo, you must never hesitate to ask me if you don't understand. (23) It's not your fault that you don't speak English well yet. (24) I really don't mind quickly explaining to you afterwards. (25) Your English has improved a lot since the beginning of the year. (26) I'm sure next year you won't have any problems understanding the work. (27) You must just keep on asking. (28) You won't even notice it, but one day you will realise that you are understanding everything and that you know exactly what to do. (29) So just keep working. (30) And keep smiling, you are doing really well.*
 [Motivating learner], [Encouraging learner to ask questions]
- L: (31) Enkosi, titshala. (32) Undincede kakhulu. (33) Ndizive ndonwabile ngomsebenzi endiwenzayo.
 (31) *Thank you, titshala. (32) You have helped me a lot. (33) I'm feeling much better about my work.*
 [Expressing gratitude]
- T: (34) Ndiyavuya ukuva oko. (35) Qala ngoku, sinemizuzu engamashumi amabini phambi kokuba ibe yenye i-period.
 (34) *I'm glad to hear that. (35) Now get started, we've only got 20 minutes before the bell goes for the next period.*
 [Giving instruction]

5.2.4.5.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

Although some spatial and temporal references are found in this task, these are not sufficient to justify a classification of – few elements. These references are few and occur separately, not in high frequency within a short dialogue segment, and at no time is it necessary for task participants to distinguish between elements. Examples of spatial references are: sentence 1 (**apha** / "here"), 7 (**le mifanekiso** / "these pictures"), and 15 (**ezantsi komfanekiso** / "below the pictures"). Temporal references are found in sentences 12 (**emva koko?** / "and then?"), 25 (**kulo nyaka** / "this year"), 26 (**kulo nyaka uzayo** / "next year"), 28 (**ngenye imini** / "one day") and 35 (**sinemizuzu engamashumi amabini phambi kokuba** / "we have twenty minutes before").

[-no reasoning]:

This task requires reasoning because the teacher is required to do more than merely provide information in the form of instructions. The teacher also has to provide reasons why certain instructions are necessary. Reasoning is exemplified in this task by the use of the word **ukuze** / "so that" in sentences 7 and 9. Further examples of reasoning occur in sentences 22-30, in which the teacher reasons with the learner when telling him why he should feel good about his progress up until that time.

[+ here-and-now]:

This task is classified [+ here-and-now] because it requires of the participants to conduct a conversation in the present tense, about things which are in the same physical location as the participants.

[+ planning]:

It is assumed for the purposes of this study that participants will be able to plan before being expected to perform the task.

[+ prior knowledge]:

The task instruction is general and does not require the use of specific subject-related content knowledge. Because the task participants are student teachers it can be assumed that they will already have all the background knowledge needed to perform this task successfully. Considered on a continuum, this task is given a [+prior knowledge] classification because the amount of prior knowledge needed is little, and as such this task feature will not contribute greatly to the cognitive complexity of this task.

[-single task]:

This task requires of the participants to perform multiple tasks. While speaking the participants have to plan how to conduct the discussion about the help the learner needs. The teacher has to plan how to assist the learner and how to motivate the learner at the end of the task.

Based on the above discussion of task characteristics this task is classified as most resembling Robinson's quadrant 1 tasks. [-No reasoning] and [-single task] are the only two characteristics that do not match those posited by Robinson for quadrant 1 tasks. Because this task requires some reasoning it will have slightly higher developmental potential than typical quadrant 1 tasks. Because task participants are required to perform multiple tasks, this task will have higher performative complexity than is associated with quadrant 1 tasks.

5.2.4.5.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This task contains a number of short question and answer exchanges which is typical of a dialogue in which a teacher offers assistance to a learner individually. These short exchanges typically consist of monoclausal sentences. There are, however, also examples in this conversation of sentences that are syntactically complex. The structure of some of these complex sentences will be analyzed in this section.

In sentence 3 the past tense indicative mood clause **ukuvile** ("you understood it") is followed by a past tense relative mood complement clause **endikuthethileyo** ("that I have said"). In sentence 5 consists of two main clauses: **masibuyele** ("let us return to") and **ungabuza** ("you can ask"). The first main clause is followed by a past tense complement clause **ndithe** ("I said") and by a passive hortative mood clause **makwenziwe** ("let it be done"). The second main clause, **ungabuza** ("you can ask"), is followed by a complement clause **ukuba unawo** ("if you have it"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("if") and the complement clause **unawo** ("you have it"), containing the verbal particle **-na-** ("to have"). Sentence 6 consists is a monoclausal sentence containing the hortative mood main clause **Masiqwalasele** ("Let us look closely"). Sentence 7 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndifuna** ("I want"), followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **ujonge** ("you look at"). This is followed by an infinitive mood complement clause introduced by the deficient verb **wandula** ("you start"): **wandula ukuyinambarisha** ("you start to number them"). This is followed by a complement clause following the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that"): **ukuze ibe nakho** ("and then be with it"), featuring the subjunctive deficient verb **be** ("and then") expressing a purposive clause, followed by the infinitive complement clause **ukufeza** ("to complete").

Sentence 9 begins with the future tense indicative mood main clause **ndiza kuthi ndiqwalasele** ("I will look carefully"). This is followed by a future tense relative mood complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"): **ukuba ngeyiphi eza kuqala** ("that which one will be first"). This is followed by a further complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that"): **ukuze ndibe nakho** ("so that then I be with it"), featuring the subjunctive deficient verb **be** ("and then"). Sentence 9 concludes with an infinitive mood clause **ukuzibeka** ("to put them").

In sentence 13 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndifuna** ("I want") is followed by the subjunctive complement clause **ubhale** ("you write"). This is followed by a further complement clause **ibali elichazwa** ("a story which is

described"), featuring the passive relative mood verb **elichazwa** ("which is described"). Sentence 14 consists of a single present tense indicative mood main clause verb featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-** : **Ungabhala** ("you can write").

Sentences 15-17 consist of short, monoclausal sentences. In sentence 18 the main clause **kufuneka** ("you must") is followed by a subjunctive mood clause **wenze** ("you do"). In sentence 19 the main present tense indicative mood verb **uyakwazi** ("you know") is followed by a relative mood complement clause featuring the hortative **ma: omawukwenze** ("which you should do it").

In sentences 21-30, a section of the conversation in which the teacher motivates the learner and encourages him to ask questions, many examples of multi-clausal sentences with complex syntax are found. Sentence 21 consists only of the main clause, the stative verb **Kulungile** ("It is good"). Sentence 22 starts with the negative indicative mood clause **ungoyiki** ("you must not be afraid/reluctant"), featuring the potential particle **-nga-**. This is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukundibuze** ("to ask me"), followed by a further complement clause **xa unengxaki** ("if you have a problem"). In sentence 23 the main clause consists of a negative copular verb **Asiyongxaki** ("it is not [your] fault"), followed by a subjunctive complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ekubeni** ("because"): **ungakwazi** ("you don't know"). This is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukuthetha** ("to speak"). Sentence 24 consists of the negative indicative mood clause **andikhathazeki** ("I don't mind") followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukukucacisela** ("to explain to you"). Sentence 25 is a monoclausal sentence consisting of the perfect tense indicative mood verb **siphucukile** ("it has improved"). In sentence 26 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyathemba** ("I am sure") is followed by a complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"): **uzayo ngeze waba nangxaki** ("you will not have a problem"). Sentence 27 starts with the main clause **Kufuneka** ("it is necessary"), followed by the subjunctive deficient verb **uhlale** ("you always") which takes a situative complement clause **ubuza** ("you ask"). Sentence 28 starts with the

negative clause **Ngeze ukuqonda** ("not to know"), followed by a future tense complement clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"): **uza kubona** ("you will see"). This is followed by further future tense complement clause following after the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"): **uya kukulandela** ("you will follow it"). After this follows two passive complement clauses **kuthiwa makwenziwe** ("what is said and let it be done/what must be"), the latter of which featuring the hortative particle **ma-** ("let"). Sentence 29 consists of the deficient verb **hlala** ("always") and the main situative clause **usenza** ("you do"). This turn in the conversation concludes with sentence 30, in which two main clauses are found. Firstly, **unoncumo** ("you are with a smile") featuring the verbal particle **-na-**, meaning "to have/be with", and secondly **usaquba** ("you are still doing well"), which contains the deficient verbal particle **-sa-** ("still").

5.2.4.5.3 Salient Language Structures

The following is a selection of key linguistic structures that would be necessary for the acquisition of the main generic moves identified for this task:

[Enquiring about learner's understanding of work]

Use of **kwenzeka ntoni**:

Kwenzeka ntoni apha? ("How is it going here?) (1)

Use of **-va** ("to understand / to hear"):

Ingaba ukuvile konke endikuthethileyo? ("Did you understand everything I just said?) (3)

Use of **ingxaki** ("problem"):

Ingaba awunangxaki noku? ("Don't you have a problem with that?) (8)

Use of **-azi** ("to know") + Relative mood + Hortative Mood:

Uyakwazi omawukwenze? ("You know that which you must do?) (19)

[Encouraging learner to approach teacher for help, putting learner at ease]

Use of **-oyika** ("to be afraid") in the negative + Infinitive:

Ungoyiki ukundibuza. ("Don't be afraid to ask me") (22)

Use of **-khathazeka** ("to be concerned/to worry") in the negative + Infinitive:

Andikhathazeki ukukucacisela. ("I don't mind explaining to you") (24)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary that") + Subjunctive:

Kufuneka uhlale ubuza. ("It is necessary that you always ask.") (27)

[Motivating learner]

Use of **-hle** ("pretty / good"):

Kwakhule. ("Good! / That is good.") (10)

Usaqhuba kakuhle. ("You are doing well") (30)

Use of **-lunga** ("good/fine"):

Kulungile. ("That/it is good/fine.") (21)

[Giving instructions]

Use of the potential **-nga** ("can"):

Ungabhala iinombolo zemifanekiso ... ("You can write the numbers of the pictures ...") (11)

Ungabhala izivakalisi ezimbini ... ("You can write two sentences ...") (14)

Ungasebenzisa indawo esemantla ... ("You can use the space below ...")(16)

Use of **-funa (ukuba)** ("want" ("that"))+ Subjunctive:

Ndifuna ukuba ujonge ... ("I want that you look ...") (7)

Ndifuna ubhale ibali ... ("I want you write a story ...") (13)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary that") + Subjunctive:

Kufuneka ubhale umhlathi. ("It is necessary that you write a paragraph.")(18)

Use of the imperative mood:

Qala ngoku ... ("Begin now ...") (35)

The above-mentioned salient language structures contain examples of shorter, monoclausal sentences, as well as more complex sentences. These structures form the basis for the compilation of focus on form activities and input enhancement that would be required to provide opportunities for practice and repetition.

5.2.4.6 Task 6

Emveni kokufumana ubunzima nokungabikho kwembeko ekuqaleni kweveki, i-class iye yaba nembeko usuko lonke. Xelela i-class ukuba uye wayiqaphela indlela abaye baziphatha kakuhle ngayo, kwaye uyazidla ngabo uza kubaphatha ngendlela entle (umzekelo uza kubalisa amabali, kwaye akuzu kubanika umsebenzi omninzi wasekhaya) ukuba bahlala beziphatha ngale ndlela entle. Abafundi babonisa ukuchulumanca ngokuthi babuze ukuba leliphi ibali oza kubafundlela lona.

After experiencing some problems with discipline earlier in the week, your class has behaved very well for the whole day. Tell the class that you have noticed their good behaviour, that you are proud of them and that you will consider a special treat (e.g. an extra long story reading session, and less or no homework for the next day) if they keep up the good behaviour. The learners express their delight and ask for more details of the treat you mentioned, e.g. which story you plan reading, etc.

Communicative Purpose:

To encourage class to keep up good behaviour

T = Teacher

L1, L2, L3 = Different learners

T: (1) Class, ingaba niyakhumbula ukuba kwenzekeni ngoMvulo?
(1) *Class, do you remember what happened on Monday?*
[Requesting information]

Class: (2) Hayi, mfundisi.
(2) *No, sir.*

T: (3) Anisakhumbuli? (4) Cingani. (5) Nenza ntoni ngekhofu lokuqala ngoMvulo?
(3) *Don't you remember? (4) Think back. (5) What did you do during first break on Monday?*
[Instructing class to think back to earlier events]

L1: (6) Ndiyakhumbula! (7) Saye sahlala egumbini.
(6) *I remember! (7) We had to stay in during break.*
[Exclaiming], [Stating past event]

T: (8) Nantso ke. (9) Nenze ingxolo enkulu asabi nakho ukwenza umsebenzi. (10) Ndaye ndabona ukuba ndinigcine. (11) Ndiye ndaqaphela izolo nanamhlanje ukuba niziphethe ngendlela entle. (12) Ingxolo iye yanqongophala njengokuba nisenza umsebenzi wenu wesikolo. (13) Koko ndinqwenela ukukubona. (14) Ndiyavuya ukunibona nimamela.

(8) *That's it.* (9) *You were making such a lot of noise that we couldn't get any work done.* (10) *So I had to keep you in.* (11) *I noticed yesterday and also today that you have been behaving a lot better.* (12) *There is a lot less talking going on while you work, so you actually get your work done.* (13) *That is what I like to see.* (14) *I'm very pleased that you are co-operating so well.*

[Giving information about learners' past behaviour], [Stating that current good behaviour is being noticed], [Expressing satisfaction with current behaviour]

Class: (15) Ewe, titshala.

(15) *Yes, titshala.*

T: (16) *Ukuba niza kuhlala nigcine olu cwangco iveki yonke, ndiza kuzidla ngani.* (17) *Nicinga ukuba ningakwenza oko?* (16) *If you keep up this good behaviour for the rest of the week, I'll be really very proud of you.* (17) *Do you think you could do that?*

[Motivating learners to keep up good behaviour], [Reasoning: cause and effect]

Class: (18) Ewe, mfundisi!

(18) *Yes, sir!*

L2: (19) *Ewe singakwenza oko.*

(19) *Of course we can do that.*

[Stating ability]

T: (20) *Ndingenza isivumelwano nani?*

(20) *Can I make a deal with you?*

[Proposing agreement with learners]

Class: (21) Ewe, mfundisi!

(21) *Yes, sir!*

[Expressing willingness to enter into agreement with teacher]

T: (22) *Ukuba ningahlala nizolile de kube nguLwesihlanu, ndiza kuninika into.*

(22) *Okay, if you keep up this good behaviour until Friday, I'll give you a treat.*

[Stating proposed agreement], [Reasoning: cause and effect]

Class: (23) Yintoni, mfundisi?

(23) *What, sir?*

[Requesting more information]

L3: (24) *Iilekese?*

(24) *Sweets?*

[Making suggestion]

- T: (25) Hayi, nihleni nizitya kakhulu iilekese. (26) Kukho nto ndiyicingayo. (27) Kunganjani ukuba sibe neyure yonke yamabali ngoLwesihlanu. (28) Ingaba sisiqalo esihle eso sempela vekhi.
(25) No, nonsense, you eat way too many sweets as it is. (26) I have something else in mind. (27) How about a whole hour of story time on Friday, after second break. (28) That should be a good start to the weekend!
 [Stating details of agreement]
- Class: (29) Ewe, iyure yonke!
(29) Yes! A whole hour!
 [Expressing delight]
- L1: (30) Singeza neencwadi zethu esizithandayo ukuze usifundele zona, mfundisi?
(30) Can we bring our favourite books so that you can read them to us, sir?
 [Making suggestion]
- T: (31) Liqinga elihle elo. (32) Ningeza neencwadi zenu. (33) Ndiza kuthi ndifunde ezinye zazo, niza kuthi nani nifunde omnye emva komnye. (34) Nikhumbule into ibe nye class. (35) Kufuneka nilulame ngale ndlela kude kube nguLwesihlanu phambi kwesidlo. (36) Ukuba ndikhe ndanixelela kube KANYE niyeke ukuthetha nisebenze umsebenzi wenu, nazi ukuba izigqibo ziphelile. (37) Siyavana?
(31) Yes, that sounds like a good idea. (32) You can all bring books. (33) I'll read some, and you can also take turns to read for us. (34) But class, there is one condition. (35) You have to keep up this good behaviour until Friday before second break. (36) If I have to tell you ONCE to stop talking and to get on with your work, the deal is off. (37) Is that clear?
 [Agreeing to suggestion made by learner], [Providing details about reward], [Stating further terms of agreement]
- Class: (38) Ewe, Mfundisi.
(38) Yes, sir!
 [Stating acceptance of terms of agreement]
- T: (39) Kwakuhle oko. (40) Ndiyathemba ningakwenza oku. (41) Masiqaliseni. (42) Sele iyintsimbi yeshumi. (43) Kufuneka siqale ngezibalo kuqala. (44) Khuphani iincwadi zenu.
(39) Okay, great. (40) I'm sure you can do it. (41) Now lets get back to work. (42) It's ten o'clock already. (43) We have to start with Maths now. (44) Come, quickly take out your books.
 [Motivating learners], [Giving instructions]

5.2.4.6.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

A few references to time and space are found in this task. Because of the low number and frequency of references and the fact that these references are relatively non-essential for the successful completion of the task, this task is classified as consisting of few elements. Examples of temporal references are found in sentences such as the following: sentence 1 and 3 (**ngoMvulo** / "on Monday"), sentence 11 (**izolo nanamhlanje** / "yesterday and today"), sentence 22 (**de kube nguLwesihlanu** / "until Friday") and sentence 42 (**sele iyintsimbi yeshumi** / "it's ten o'clock already"). A spatial reference is found in sentence 7: (**egumbini** / "in class").

[-no reasoning]:

This task is classified as [-no reasoning] because evidence is found of how the teacher reasons with learners about their behaviour and the reward that he intends giving for good conduct. Examples of reasoning are found in sentences 9-10, 16-17, 22 and 34-37. In sentences 9 and 10 the teacher reasons with the learners about why they were punished. In sentences 16 and 17 the teacher reasons with the learners about good behaviour on their part. In sentence 22 the teacher reasons with the learners about how their good behaviour will be rewarded. In sentences 34-37 the teacher reasons with the learners about what the consequences will be if they do not keep up the good behaviour.

[-here-and-now]:

Most of this task is performed in the present tense, with some references to past and future events – hence the classification of [-here-and-now]. Examples of references to past and future events are found in sentences such as the following: 1, 5, 7, 9-11.

[+planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that participants will be given planning time prior to task performance. The participant in the role of the teacher will have to plan which behaviour of the learners must be punished and how he or she will do

this. The teacher will also have to plan which reward would be suitable for the learners.

[+prior knowledge]:

Participants do not need specific knowledge in order to perform this task successfully. The task content is general in nature and it can reasonably be assumed that student teachers will have the prior knowledge needed to perform this task, e.g. how to address a group of learners about their behaviour. Because of the general nature of the task topic and given the fact that the participants are student teachers who are familiar with the communication setting, this task is classified as [+prior knowledge]. Seen on a continuum the limited amount and general nature of the prior knowledge needed is such that it will not contribute to the cognitive complexity of this task.

[-single task]:

This task requires of participants to perform multiple tasks. The participant in the role of the teacher will have to plan while speaking how to motivate learners to maintain their good behaviour, and also how to raise learners' curiosity by initially not giving away too much information about the learners' reward.

Based on the above discussion this task can be classified as being in quadrant 3 of Robinsons' framework, with the exception of the characteristics [+ few elements] and [-single task]. According to Robinson's framework of cognitive complexity this task will provide learners with high developmental and low performative potential. Because of the characteristic [+few elements] the developmental potential of this task will be lower than that of typical quadrant 3 tasks, while the performative potential of this task will be slightly higher than that of typical quadrant 3 tasks because participants will be required to perform multiple tasks.

5.2.4.6.2 Analysis of Speech Units

Many of the sentences in this task are short, monoclausal sentences. This could be ascribed to the fact that the task is set in a Foundation Phase classroom and that the teacher would therefore choose language that is syntactically relatively non-complex. Some of the more complex sentences will be discussed below.

The first sentence of this task consists of a complement clause **ingaba** ("perhaps"), followed by the present tense indicative mood main clause **niyakhumbula** ("do you remember"). This is followed by a further complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"): **ukuba kwenzekeni** ("that what happened").

Sentences 2-6 are short, monoclausal sentences. Sentence 7 begins with the remote past tense main clause **saye sahlala** ("we stayed"). Sentences 9-14 are made up of more complex sentences. Sentence 9 starts with the perfectum main clause **nenze** ("you made") followed by the negative complement clause **asabi nakho** ("we were not with it / could not"), which is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukwenza** ("to do"). Sentence 10 consists of the remote past tense main clause **ndaye ndabona** ("I saw"), followed by the subjunctive complement clause **ndinigcine** ("I kept you"). In sentence 11 the main clause is **ndiye ndaqaphela** ("I did I noticed"), followed by the complement clause **ukuba niziphethe** ("that you behaved"). Sentence 12 starts with the deficient verb main clause **iye yanqongophala** ("it was scarce"), followed by a complement clause introduced by the conjunction **njengokuba** ("so that"): **nisenza** ("you could do"). In sentence 13 the main clause **ndinqwenela** ("I like") is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukukubona** ("to see it"). In sentence 14 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyavuya** ("I am glad") is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukunibona** ("to see you"), which in turn is followed by a further complement clause **nimamela** ("you listen").

Sentence 16 begins with a complement clause **Ukuba niza kuhlala nigcine** ("If you will always keep"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"), followed by the

future tense deficient verb **niza kuhlala** ("you will always") and the subjunctive verb **nigcine** ("you keep"). The main clause of sentence 16 is **ndiza kuzidla** ("I will myself be proud"), a future tense clause featuring the reflexive particle **-za-**. Sentence 17 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **nicinga** ("you think"), followed by the complement clause **ukuba ningakwenza** ("that you can do"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** and featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-** ("can").

Sentence 22 consists of a complement clause followed by the main clause. The complement clause **ukuba ningahlala nizolile** ("if you can always be calm/good"), consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"), the deficient verb **ningahlala** ("you can sit") and the stative verb **nizolile** ("you are calm/quiet/good"). The main clause is a future tense indicative mood clause **ndiza kuninika** ("I will give you").

Sentences 31 and 32 are short, monoclausal sentences. Sentence 33 consists of two main clauses. Firstly, **ndiza kuthi ndifunde** ("I will read"), consisting of the future tense deficient verb **-thi** used with the subjunctive verb **-funde**. The second main clause is **niza kuthi nani nifunde** ("you will read"), which has the same structure as the first main clause of this sentence. The main clause in sentence 34 is **nikhumbule** ("you remember"), an imperative mood clause which is followed by the complement clause **ibe nye** ("it is one"). Sentence 35 starts with the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary that") followed by the subjunctive complement clause **nilulame** ("you are obedient"). Sentence 36 starts with the complement clause **ukuba ndikhe** ("if I once"), followed by the consecutive complement clause **ndanixelela** ("I told you"). This is followed by a subjunctive complement clause **niyeke** ("you stop"), an infinitive complement clause **ukuthetha** ("to talk") and a further subjunctive clause **nisebenze** ("you work"). This is followed by the main clause of this sentence, **nazi** ("you know"), which is followed by a complement clause **ukuba izigqibo ziphelile** ("that the agreement is finished"). This turn in the conversation concludes with the monoclausal sentence **Siyavana** ("Do we understand each other"), featuring the reciprocal verbal suffix **-ana**.

In the final turn of this conversation the teacher motivates his or her learners. Sentence 39 is a monoclausal sentence: **Kwakhle oko** ("That is good"). Sentence 40 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyathemba** ("I am sure/I trust") followed by the complement clause **ningakwenza** ("you can do it"). Sentence 41 consists of the hortative mood main clause **masiqaleni** ("let us begin"). Sentence 42 consists of the deficient verb **sele** ("already") followed by the copular main clause **iyintsimbi yeshumi** ("it is the hour of ten"). In sentence 43 the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") is followed by the subjunctive main clause **siqale** ("we start"). Sentence 44 consists of the imperative mood main clause **khuphani** ("take out you").

When comparing the sections of this dialogue with the generic moves identified for these sections, there does not appear to be any correlation between syntactically complex sentences and specific generic moves. The syntactically complex sentences in this dialogue are found in a wide variety of generic moves.

5.2.4.6.3 Salient Language Structures

The following are examples of language structures that are vital for the acquisition of the generic moves identified as important for the successful performance of this task:

[Making suggestions]

Use of potential **–nga**:

Singeza neencwadi zethu ... ("Can we bring our books ...") (30)

Ningeza neencwadi zenu. ("You can bring your books.") (32)

[Giving instructions]

Use of the imperative mood:

Khuphani iincwadi zenu. ("Take out your books.") (44)

Use of the hortative mood:

Masiqaleni. ("Let us get started.") (41)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") + subjunctive mood:

Kufuneka nilulame ... ("It is necessary that you are obedient ...") (35)

Kufuneka siqale ngezibalo kuqala. ("It is necessary that we start with Mathematics now.") (43)

[Reasoning: cause and effect]

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba niza kuhlala nigcine olu cwango iveki yonke, ndiza kuzidla ngani. ("If you keep up this good behaviour for the whole week, I'll be very proud of you.") (16)

Ukuba ningahlala nizolile de kube nguLwesihlanu, ndiza kuninika into. ("If you keep up this good behaviour until Friday, I'll give you a treat.") (22)

Ukuba ndiza kusoloko ndiniyala ngokungxola nokufunda iincwadi zenu, nazi ukuba izigqibo ziphelile. ("If I have to tell you to stop talking and to do your work, you know the deal is off.") (36)

[Stating intention]

Use of the future tense:

...ndiza kuninika into ("...I will give you something") (22)

Ndiza kuthi ndifunde ezinye zazo, ... ("I will read some of them, ..") (33)

Salient language features such as those listed above should be included in focus on form activities designed for this task with the aim of providing learners with opportunities to practice and reinforce important structures.

5.2.4.7 Task 7

Wenze idinga nabazali ukuba baze ukuze nixoxe ngendlela umntwana wabo aqhuba kakubi ngayo kumsebenzi wakhe. Uthetha nabazali ubacacisela ukuba kutheni ungonwabanga ngendlela asebenza ngayo umntwana.

Abazali baya kubuza malunga nendlela umntwana aziphethe ngayo. Bafuna ukwazi ukuba lo mfundi ebesenzani, lixsha elingakanani uyiqaphele le nto, kwaye ngawaphi amanyathelo owathabathileyo ukwaluleka lo mfundi.

Buza malunga neemeko zekhaya, malunga nobume bomntwnana kunye nendlela enza ngayo izinto. Yenza amacebiso ngendlela onokuphuhliseka ngayo umsebenzi womntwana (umz: ancendiswe ngakumbi kumsebenzi wasekhaya, anikwe ixesha elaneleyo lokufunda, afumane inkuthazo kubazali ukwenzela ukuba aphumelele).

Bulela abazali ngokuza kwabo kunye nenkxaso abafuna ukuyinika umntwana wabo. Abazali nabo kwelabo icala bayakubulela ngokuzisa le ngxaki kubo kunye nokuba nomsebenzi omhle nokuzinikezela.

You've made an appointment for parents to come and discuss their child's poor performance. You talk to the parents, explaining why you are not happy with the child's performance.

The parents ask you about the child's behavior. They want to know what the learner has been doing, for how long you have been noticing it, and what steps you have taken to discipline the learner.

Enquire about conditions at home, about the child's physical and emotional well-being. Make suggestions on how the child's work could be improved (e.g. more help with homework, a fixed time and place for study, incentive from parents for good progress).

Thank the parents for coming and for their willingness to assist their child. The parents in turn thank you for bringing the problem to their attention and for your good work and positive attitude.

Communicative Purpose:

- 1 To talk to parents about learner's behaviour
- 2 To enquire about conditions at home and respond to parents' answers and questions
- 3 To make suggestions about how learner's performance could be improved and to respond to parents' questions

T = Teacher

M = Mother

F = Father

T: (1) Molweni, Mnumzana kunye noNkosazana Sentile.

(1) *Good morning, Mr and Mrs Sentile.*

[Greeting]

M & F:(2) Molo, Mnumzana Julius.

(2) *Good morning, Mr Julius.*

[Greeting]

- T: (3) Ndiyabulela ngokuza kwenu. (4) Masihlalani phantsi sizokukwazi ukuthetha ngoNomvula.
(3) Thank you for coming. (4) Let's sit down, then we can talk about Nomvula.
 [Expressing gratitude], [Inviting parents to sit down]
- M: (5) Ndiyabulela. (6) Ingaba yintoni undonakele kumntwana wam? (7) Besinenxhala emva kokuba usitsalele umnxeba izolo.
 (5) Thank you. (6) What is wrong with my child? (7) We were very worried after you phoned us yesterday.
 [Expressing gratitude], [Requesting information about child], [Expressing concern]
- T: (8) Andazi nokuba kukho undonakele na kuye. (9) Njengokuba benditshilo kuni emnxebeni, ndiye ndaqaphela ukuba izinga lakhe liyehla ukusukela kwikota ephelileyo kwaye ndibonile nokuba umsebenzi wakhe usoloko ungagqityisiswanga.
(8) I don't know if anything is wrong with her. (9) As I said to you over the phone, I've noticed that her marks have gone down from last term and I've seen that her homework isn't always finished completely.
 [Stating previously mentioned information about learner's progress]
- F: (10) Into ethetha ukuba akaziphethenga kakubi qha uyageza.
(10) So she isn't misbehaving and just being naughty?
 [Requesting information]
- T: (11) Hayi, konke-konke. (12) Kukukhathala nje ngezinga lakhe lomsebenzi wesikolo.
(11) No, not at all. (12) I'm just concerned about her academic performance.
 [Expressing concern]
- M: (13) Ubuthe akawenzi umsebenzi wakhe wesikolo? (14) Ingaba lixesha elingakanani le nto iqhubeka?
 (13) *You say she hasn't been doing her homework? (14) For how long has this been going on?*
 [Requesting information]
- T: (15) Andiqinisekanga, kodwa ndiye ndaqaphela ukuba ngamanye amaxesha wenza isiqingatha somsebenzi. (16) Ngamanye amaxesha isiqingatha somsebenzi siye sigqitywe, kwaye ngelinye ilixa uye enze umsebenzi wezinye izifundo.
(15) I'm not sure, but I've noticed that she sometimes does about half the work. (16) Sometimes half an exercise is completed, and other times she only does the work for some of the learning areas.
 [Expressing doubt], [Providing information]

- F: (17) Ke ngoku wenza ntoni ngalo nto?
(17) *So what did you do about it?*
[Requesting information]
- T: (18) Ngokuqinisekileyo ndiye ndithethe naye ndimkhuthaze ukuba enze umsebenzi wakhe. (19) Khange ndibone nkqubela, yiyo loo nto ndiqonde ukuba ndithethane nani. (20) Ingaba izinto zihamba kakuhle ekhayeni?
(18) *Obviously I talked to her and encouraged her to do her work. (19) Because I haven't been seeing any improvement I decided to contact you. (20) Are things going all right at home?*
[Providing information about actions taken], [Requesting information]
- M: (21) Ewe, ndicinga njalo.
(21) *Yes, I think so.*
[Answering affirmatively]
- F: (22) Ewe, akukho nto yonakeleyo ekhaya.
(22) *Yes, there's nothing wrong at home!*
[Emphasizing previously stated affirmative answer]
- T: (23) Ingaba luye lwakhona na utshintsho malunga nemisebenzi yasekhaya?
(23) *Have there been any changes in your routine at home?*
[Requesting information]
- M: (24) Ewe, ndiqale ukusebenza ekuqaleni kuka-July.
(24) *Yes, I started working at the beginning of July.*
[Providing information]
- T: (25) Ke ngoku ingaba uNomvula uhlala phi emva kwemini?
(25) *So where does Nomvula stay in the afternoon?*
[Requesting information]
- M: (26) Uye abuye eze ekhaya ajongwe ngumama. (27) Ndifika ekhaya ngentsimbi yesithandathu.
(26) *She comes home and then my mother looks after her. (27) I only get home at about 6.*
[Providing information]
- T: (28) Kungenzeka na ukuba yena unexesha elincinci lokwenza umsebenzi wakhe kunangaphambile?
(28) *Is it possible that she has less supervision with her homework now than she did in the past?*
[Requesting information]
- M: (29) Umakhulu wakhe kufanelekile ukuba amncedise...
(29) *Her grandmother is supposed to help her ...*

[Providing information]

- F: (30) Ewe, kodwa yeyona ngxaki leyo. (31) Umama wakho mdala kwaye andiqinisekanga ukuba asingakanani isiLungu asaziyo.
(30) Yes, but perhaps that is the problem. (31) Your mother is very old and I'm not sure how much English she understands.

[Elaborating on information given]

- T: (32) Mnumzana kunye noNkosazana Sentile, ndicinga ukuba uNomvula uhlakaniphe kakhulu ukuba azenzele umsebenzi wakhe wesikolo. (33) Omnye umntu ofana nomakhulu ngowokuqinisekisa ukuba uyawenza umsebenzi wakhe. *(32) Mr and Mrs Sentile, I think Nomvula is bright enough to do most of her homework on her own. (33) Someone, your mother I suppose, must just see to it that she does her work.*

[Making suggestions]

- F: (34) Singakwazi nathi ukuthi simjonge qha ingxaki inye kukuba sibuya ngorhatya ekhaya.
(34) We can also check on her, but the problem is that we get home so late.

[Stating problem]

- M: (35) *Ewe, siza kuthetha nomama wam ukuba ancedisane noNomvula ekwenzeni umsebenzi wakhe, kwaye nathi siza kuwujonga qho xa sibuya emsebenzini.*
(35) Yes, we will talk to my mother and ask her to supervise Nomvula's homework more closely, and then we will also check it every evening when we get home.

[Agreeing to follow advice]

- T: (36) Ndicinga ukuba yingcamango entle leyo. (37) Ndicinga ukuba kufuneka nithethe noNomvula ngale meko. (38) Mxelele izinto ebesixoxa ngazo apha namhlanje kwaye zenisose nimkhuthaze.
(36) I think that is a very good idea. (37) I also think you should talk to Nomvula about the situation. (38) Tell her what we discussed here today and encourage her to pull up her socks.

[Making suggestions]

- M: (39) Ndiyabulela, Mnumzana Julius.
(39) Thank you, Mr Julius.

[Expressing gratitude]

- T: (40) Ndiyacinga ukuba iya kumakha into yokuba abe nendawo eyodwa yokwenza imisebenzi yakhe. (41) Isoloko imnceda loo nto umntwana xa efundela endaweni enye yonke imihla. Ingaba unalo igumbi lakhe lokulala? (42) Ingaba kukho isithuba esaneleyo apho egumbini lakhe lokulala?
(40) I also think it will help if you prepare a nice place for her to do her homework. (41) It always helps if the child can sit in the same place every

- day. (42) Does she have her own bedroom? (43) Is there enough space in her bedroom?*
[Making further suggestions], [Requesting information]
- F: (44) Babelana nodade wabo igumbi lokulala, kodwa sikhona isithuba esaneleyo sokufaka itafile okanye idesika.
(44) She shares the room with her sister, but there is enough space for a table or a desk.
[Providing information]
- M: (45) Ewe, singakwazi ukufaka itafile phaya egumbini lethu ukwenzela ukuba uNomvula ayisebenzise.
(45) Yes, we can put the small table in our bedroom in the girls' room for Nomvula to use.
[Stating possible actions to improve situation]
- T: (46) Ivakala njengencamango entle loo nto. (47) Bendicinga ukuba kufuneka ndimkhuthaze ukuba asebenze nzima nimnike inkxaso ukuba izinga lakhe linyuke.
(46) That sounds like a good idea. (47) I also think you should motivate her to work harder and perhaps give her some incentive if her work and her marks improve.
[Expressing positive view about suggestions], [Making further suggestions]
- M: (48) Ewe, ndiyacinga ukuba uza kubonisa ukuzimisela.
(48) Yes, I'm sure she will give her co-operation.
[Stating agreement with suggestion]
- F: (49) Siyabulela ngokusibizela apha, Mnumzana Julius. (50) Kwaye nokungalindi kuphele ikota. (51) Siyacinga ukuba siya kuzisombulula lula iingxaki zethu.
(49) Thank you for calling us in, Mr Julius. (50) And for not waiting until the end of the term. (51) We think we can easily set the problem right.
[Expressing gratitude], [Expressing confidence about solving problem]
- T: (52) Ndiyavuya ukuba nizile kwaye sithethe ngokuvisisana.
(52) I'm glad that you came and that we could talk so constructively.
- M: (53) Ndiqinisekile ukuba umsebenzi kaNomvula uza kuqala ukuphuhla.
(53) I'm sure Nomvula's work will soon start improving.
- T: (54) Ndiza kukubhalela isikhumbuzo ekupheleni kweveki ndiphinde esinye ngempela nyanga ezayo.
(54) I will write you a note at the end of the week and again at the end of next month.
[Stating proposed actions]
- F: (55) Ndiyabulela, kulungile ukwazi ukuba uyikhathalele intombi yethu.

(55) *Thank you, it's good to know that you care about our daughter.*
[Expressing gratitude]

T: (56) UNomvula uyabonakalisa ukuzimisela, ndifuna nyhani aqhube ngcono kwaye enze kakuhle kwiimviwo zokuphela konyaka. (57) Kulungile, ndiyabulela ngokuza kwenu, Mnumzana kunye noNkosikazi Sentile.
(56) *Nomvula has lots of potential, I really want her to do better, and to do well in the exams at the end of the year.* (57) *Okay, thank you for coming, Mr and Mrs Sentile.*
[Informing parents of learner's potential], [Expressing gratitude]

M: (58) Siyabulela ngexesha lakho. (59) Sala kakuhle.
(58) *Thank you for your time.* (59) *Good bye.*
[Expressing gratitude], [Greeting]

F: (60) Siyabulela, kwaye sala kakuhle, Mnumzana Julius.
(60) *Thank you, and good bye, Mr Julius.*
[Expressing gratitude], [Greeting]

T: (61) Nihambe kakuhle.
(61) *Go well.*
[Greeting]

5.2.4.7.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

This task displays the following characteristics if analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for cognitive complexity:

[-few elements]:

This task is classified as [-few elements] despite the fact that references to time and space do occur. The references to time are found in isolation and participants are not required to distinguish between events happening at different times. Temporal references are found in sentences such as the following: 7 (**izolo** / "yesterday"), 9 (**ukusukela kwikota ephelileyo** / "from last term"), 24 (**ekuqaleni kukaJulayi** / "at the beginning of July"), 25 (**emva kwemini** / "in the afternoon") and (**ngentsimbi yesithandathu** / "six o'clock"). Spatial references occur in sentences such as the following: 20 (**ekhayeni** / "at home"), 35 (**emsebenzini** / "from work"), 36 (**yingcamango entle leyo** / "that is a good idea"), and 43 (**egumbini lakhe lokulala** / "in her bedroom").

[-no reasoning]:

This task requires of the teacher and the parents to reason with one another. Evidence of reasoning is found in sentence 19 (**yiyo lo nto ndiqonde ukuba ndithethane nani** /"this is why I decided to to contact you").

[-here-and-now]:

To perform this task successfully the participants have to refer to events that take place in other other physical and temporal contexts. Examples of sentences with references to the past are found in sentences 7, 9, 18 and 24. Reference to the future are found in sentences such as the following: 35, 48 and 53. References to other physical contexts are found when the parents and the teacher talk about the learner's room at home, e.g. sentences 42-45.

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that participants will be given time to plan prior to actual task performance. The participant taking the role of the teacher will have to plan how to convey to the parents that there is reason for concern regarding their daughter's performance. The teacher will also have to plan how to enquire about conditions the home of the learner and which suggestions could be made for helping the learner to improve her work. The participants taking the roles of the parents will have to plan how they would answer questions about conditions at home, as well as the questions they would ask of the teacher about improving their child's performance.

[+prior knowledge]:

Some prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction to assist participants with the performance of this task. The task instruction mentions enquiring about the learner's physical and emotional well being and gives some examples of things the participant in the role of the teacher could suggest to the parents about how to assist their child with his or her studies. Given this information made available, and given the fact that the task participants are student teachers who would be familiar

with the overall communicative setting of this task, the amount of prior knowledge made available to participants and the amount they would bring to the task being student teachers is considered such that it would not contribute to the cognitive complexity of this task. Therefore, seen on a continuum of prior knowledge made available to participants and prior knowledge need by participants, this task is classified as [+prior knowledge].

[-single task]:

This task requires of participants to perform more than one task at the same time. While speaking to the parents, the teacher has to plan ahead how to obtain information about conditions at home, about the study environment of the learner, and about what other advice can be given to the parents. The teacher also has to plan while speaking how to handle concerns expressed by parents (e.g. sentences 6 and 7) and a direct challenge by the father (sentence 17).

Based on the above discussion of task characteristics this task is considered to most resemble quadrant 3 tasks in Robinson's framework. With the exception of [-single task], all characteristics of this task correspond with characteristics as posited by Robinson for quadrant 3 tasks. This task therefore provides learners with low performative and high developmental complexity potential.

5.2.4.7.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of many one-sentence exchanges between the teacher and the parents, as well as some longer turns consisting of two or more sentences. Some of the syntactically complex sentences will be analyzed in this section.

In sentence 3 the main clause is the present tense indicative mood clause **ndiyabulela** ("I thank"), followed by an infinitive complement clause **ngokuza** ("for coming"). Sentence 4 starts with the hortative mood main clause **masihlalani** ("let us sit"), followed by the complement clause **sizokukwazi ukuthetha** ("we will be able to talk"), consisting of the verb **sizokukwazi** ("we will be able") and the infinitive verb **ukuthetha** ("to talk").

Sentence 8 starts with the negative indicative mood main clause **andazi** ("I don't know") followed by the complement clause **nokuba kukho** ("if there is"). Sentence 9 begins with the complement clause **njengokuba benditshilo** ("as I have said"), consisting of the conjunction **njengokuba** ("as if") and the past tense verb **benditshilo** ("I said"). This is followed by the main clause **ndiye ndaqaphela** ("I noticed") and the complement clause **ukuba izinga lakhe liyehla** ("that her performance has gone down"). A second main clause is introduced in sentence 9 by the conjunction **kwaye** ("and also"): **ndibonile** ("I saw"). This in turn is followed by the complement clause **nokuba umsebenzi wakhe usoloko ungagqityisiswanga** ("and that her work is always not finished"), consisting of the conjunction **nokuba** ("and that"), the deficient verb **usoloko** ("always"), and the negative situative mood verb **ungagqityisiswanga** ("it has not been finished").

Sentence 13 starts with the recent past tense clause **ubuthe** ("you said") followed by a negative complement clause **akawenzi** ("she does not do"). In sentence 14 the conjunction **ingaba** ("it can be / perhaps") introduces a copular complement clause **lixesha** ("it is time"). This sentence concludes with the complement clause **iqhubeka** ("it goes on").

Sentence 18 starts with the complement clause **Kucacile** ("it is clear that/obviously") followed by the main clause **ndiye ndithethe** ("I did I talked to her"). This is followed by a second main clause **ndimkhuthaze** ("I encouraged her"). Sentence 19 starts with the negative deficient verb **khange** ("never") which introduces the subjunctive main clause **ndibone** ("I saw"). This is followed by a complement clause introduced with the conjunction **yiyo lo nto** ("this is why"): **ndiqonde** ("I decided"). This is followed by a further complement clause **ukuba ndithethane nani** ("that I speak to you"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the subjunctive clause **ndithethane** ("I speak"). Sentence 20 starts with the complement clause **ingaba** ("it can be / perhaps") followed by the present tense indicative main clause **zihamba** ("they go/are").

Sentence 27 begins with the main clause **kungenzeka** ("can it be / is it possible"), followed by the complement clause **ukuba abe nexesha** ("that she has time").

Sentence 32 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndicinga** ("I think") followed by the complement clause **ukuba uNomvula uhlakaniphe** ("that Nomvula is smart/intelligent"). This is followed by a further complement clause **ukuba azenzele** ("that she does"). Sentence 33 starts with the relative complement clause **ofana** ("that resembles/like"), which is followed by the main clause **ngowokuqinisekisa** ("to ensure"). This is followed by the indicative mood complement complement clause **ukuba uyawenza** ("that she does").

Sentence 36 begins with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndicinga** ("I think"), followed by the complement clause **ukuba yingcamango** ("that it is an idea"), which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the copular verb **yingcamango** ("it is an idea"). Sentence 37 starts with the same main clause as sentence 36, after which follows the complement clause **ukuba kufuneka** ("that it is necessary"). This consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the verb **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"). This is followed by the subjunctive complement clause **nithethe** ("you speak"). Sentence 38 consists of two main clauses. First the imperative mood clause **mxelele** ("tell her"), followed by a past tense relative mood clause **ebesizixoxa** ("that we discussed") followed by a deficient verb clause **zenisose** ("you must also"), and the second main clause of this sentence **nimkhuthaze** ("you encourage her"), which is a subjunctive clause.

Sentence 40 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyacinga** ("I think"), followed by a complement clause **ukuba iya kumakha**, consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the future tense clause **iya kumakha** ("it will build/help her"). This is followed by a further complement clause, the relative clause **abe nendawo**, consisting of the relative deficient verb **abe** ("she be") and the clause **nendawo** ("with a place"), featuring the verbal particle **na-** ("to be with/to have"). In sentence 41 the main indicative clause **imnceda** ("it helps her") is preceded by the deficient verb **isoloko** ("it always"). After the main clause of this

sentence follows the complement clause **xa efundela** ("if she studies"), featuring the conjunction **xa** ("if") and the situative clause **efundela** ("she studies"). Sentence 42 is a monoclausal sentence consisting of the main clause **ingaba unalo** ("perhaps she has it"). Sentence 43 starts with the main clause **ingaba kukho** ("perhaps there is"), which is followed by a complement clause **esaneleyo** ("which is sufficient").

Sentence 49 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **siyabulela** ("we thank you") followed by the infinitival complement clause **ngokusibizela** ("for to call us"). Sentence 50 is actually a continuation of sentence 49 and starts with the conjunction **kwaye** ("and furthermore"). This is followed by the negative infinitival clause **nokungalindi** ("and not to wait"). Sentence 51 starts with the main clause **siyacinga** ("we think"), followed by the complement clause **ukuba siya kuzisombulula** ("that we will solve them"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the future tense clause **siya kuzisombulula** ("we will solve them").

Sentence 56 consists of three main clauses . First is the present tense indicative main clause **uyabonakalisa** ("she appears") is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukuzimisela** ("to be determined"). The second main clause is **ndifuna** ("I want") a present tense indicative mood clause which is followed by a subjunctive complement clause **aqhube** ("she does"). The third main clause in sentence 56 is **kwaye enze**, which consists of the conjunction **kwaye** ("and furthermore") and the subjunctive mood clause **enze** ("she does"). Sentence 57 consists of the main clause **ndiyabulela** ("I thank you"), followed by the infinitive complement clause **ngokuza** ("to come").

From the above analysis it is evident that this task displays a relative high degree of syntactic complexity. No correlation can be found between syntactically complex sentences and specific generic moves. It appears that sentences with a complex structure are found in sections of the dialogue that display various generic moves.

5.2.4.7.3 Salient Language Structures

The following are examples of sentence structures that are essential for the successful acquisition of the language realized in the following important generic moves, and which could be included in focus on form activities for this task.

[Expressing concern]

Use of **inxhala**:

Besinenxhala emva kokuba usitsalele umnxeba izolo.

("We were worried after you phone us yesterday.") (7)

Use of **-khathala**:

Kukukhathala nje ngezinga lakhe ("It is worrying her performance") (12)

[Requesting information]

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba yintoni undonakele kumntwana wam. ("Perhaps it is what that is affecting my child.") (6)

Ingaba lixesha elingakanani le nto iqhubeka? ("Perhaps for how long has this been going on?") (14)

Ingaba izinto zihamba kakuhle ekhayeni? ("Perhaps things are going well at home?") (20)

Ingaba luye lwakhona na utshintsho...? ("Perhaps there is a change ...?") (23)

Ke ngoku ingaba uNomvula uhlala phi emva kwemini? ("Perhaps Nomvula lives where in the afternoon?") (25)

Ingaba unalo igumbi lakhe lokulala? ("Perhaps she has her own bedroom?") (42)

Ingaba kukho isithuba esaneleyo ...? ("Perhaps there is enough space ...?") (43)

[Stating problem]

Use of **ingxaki** ("problem"):

... ingxaki inye kukuba sibuya ngorhatya ekhaya. ("... but the one problem is we get home in the evening.")

[Stating intention]

Use of the future tense:

Siza kuthetha nomakhulu ukuba ancedisane noNomvula... ("We will talk to the grandmother that she helps Nomvula...") (35)

... siza kuwujonga qho xa sibuya emsebenzini. ("... we will check it when we return from work.") (35)

Ndiza kukubhalela isikhumbuzo ... ("I will write you a note ...") (54)

[Stating opinion]

Use of **–vakala** ("to sound like/ as if"):

Ivakala njengencamango entle loo nto.("That sounds like a good idea.")(46)

Use of **–cinga ukuba** ("think that"):

... ndicinga ukuba uNomvula ... ("... I think that Nomvula ...") (31)

Ndicinga ukuba yingcamango entle leyo. ("I think that is a very good idea.") (36)

Ndicinga ukuba kufuneka nithethe noNomvula ...("I think it is necessary that you talk to Nomvula ...") (37)

Ndiyacinga ukuba iya kumakha ... ("I also think it will help ...") (40)

Ndiyacinga ukuba uza kubonisa ukuzimisela. ("I think that she will give her cooperation.") (48)

Siyacinga ukuba siya kuzisombulula lula iingxaki zethu. ("We think that we can easily solve our problems.")

[Expressing certainty]

Use of **–cacile** ("to be clear"):

Kucacile ukuba ndiye ndithethe naye ... ("Clearly/obviously I spoke to her ... ") (18)

Use of **–qinisekile** ("be certain"):

Ndiqinisekile ukuba umsebenzi kaNomvula uza kuqala ukuphuhla.

("I am sure that Nomvula's work will start improving.") (53)

[Expressing uncertainty]

Use of **-qinisekanga** ("to not be certain"):

Andiqinisekanga, kodwa ndiye ndaqaphela ... ("I'm not sure, but I have noticed ...") (16)

... andiqinisekanga ukuba usazi kangakanani na isiLungu. ("... I'm not sure how much English she knows.") (30)

Use of **andazi** ("I don't know"):

Andazi nokuba kukho undonakele na kuye. ("I don't know if anything is wrong with her.") (8)

[Making suggestions]

Use of **-ngakwazi** ("can") + Infinitive:

Singakwazi ukufaka itafile ... ("We can put the table ...") (45)

Use of the hortative mood:

Masihlalani phantsi ... ("Let us sit down") (4)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"):

Ndicinga ukuba kufuneka nithethe noNomvula ... ("I think it is necessary/you must talk to Nomvula ...") (37)

Bendicinga ukuba kufuneka ndimkhuthaze ... ("I've also been thinking it is necessary that I motivate her ...") (47)

The selection of salient language structures given above displays a variety of sentence constructions, most of which are multi-clausal and highly complex. These constructions would have to be included in focus on form activities and could also be targeted for input enhancement in order to facilitate the acquisition of these constructions.

5.2.4.8 Task 8

Umfundi ofikayo ungenelela eklasini yakho kwisiqingatha sekota. Ukufumana indlela yokumazi lo mfundi, umbuza imibuzo malunga nosapho lwakhe, sesiphi esona sikolo ebesihamba ngaphambili, ziintoni azithandayo kunye nezinye.

A new learner joins your class in the middle of term. In an attempt to get to know the learner, you ask questions about his or her family, which school he or she attended previously, what his or her hobbies are, etc.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To welcome learner
- 2 To get to know the learner by obtaining biographical information
- 3 To respond to the learner's questions and/or statements

T = Teacher

N = Nomaza

T: (1) Molo, Nomaza. (2) NdinguNkosazana Jones. (3) Ndiyavuya ukuba uza kuba ngomnye umfundi wam. (4) Phambi kokuba uhambe uyokudlala nabanye abafundi ndifuna ukuba sazane kancinci. (5) Ngubani ifani yakho, Nomaza?

(1) Hello, Nomaza. (2) I'm Miss Jones. (3) I'm very glad that you are going to be in my class. (4) Before you go out to play with the other learners I just want us to get to know each other a bit. (5) What is your surname, Nomaza?
[Introducing self], [Welcoming learner], [Requesting information]

N: (6) Bebi, Nkosazana.

(6) Bebi, Miss.

[Providing biographical information]

T: (8) Nomaza Bebi. (9) Mandiyibhale ebhodini ukwenzela ukuba abanye abafundi bayibone xa bebuya emva kwekhefu. (10) Ubuhlala phi kude kube ngoku?

(7) Nomaza Bebi. (8) Let me just write that on the board so that all the learners can see it when they come back after break time. (9) Where have you lived until now?

[Repeating biographical information], [Requesting information]

N: (10) Besihlala eBhayi, Nkosazana. (11) Kodwa kufuneke sifudukele apha eKapa kuba utata ufumene umsebenzi omtsha apha.

(10) We lived in Port Elizabeth, Miss. (11) But we had to move here because my father got a new job here Cape Town.

[Providing information], [Stating reason for moving]

T: (12) Ngumsebenzi onjani owenziwa ngutata wakho?

- (12) *What kind of work does your father do?*
[Requesting information]
- N: (13) Ngumlawuli wasebhankini, Nkosazana.
(13) *He is a bank manager, Miss.*
[Providing information]
- T: (14) Yeyiphi le bhanki asebenza kuyo, Nomaza?
(14) *Which bank does he work for, Nomaza?*
[Requesting information]
- N: (15) Usebenzela uStandard Bank, e-Cavendish Square branch, Nkosazana.
(15) *He works for Standard Bank, the Cavendish Square branch, Miss.*
[Providing information]
- T: (16) Ingaba umama wakho uyasebenza naye, Nomaza?
(16) *Does your mother also work, Nomaza?*
[Requesting information]
- N: (17) Ewe, Nkosazana, uyintatheli, kodwa akakawufumani umsebenzi apha.
(18) Usakhangela.
(17) *Yes, Miss, she's a journalist, but she hasn't found a job here yet. (18) She is still looking.*
[Providing information]
- T: (19) Ingaba unabo abantakwenu nodade wenu?
(19) *Do you have any brothers and sisters?*
[Requesting information]
- N: (20) Ewe, ndinobhuti omdala, uJabu.
(20) *Yes, just an older brother, Jabu.*
[Providing information]
- T: (21) Ingaba ukwesi sikolo? (22) Wenza eliphi iqondo?
(21) *Is he also in this school? (22) In which grade?*
[Requesting information]
- N: (23) Hayi, Nkosazana. (24) Ukwinqondo lesibhozo e-Westerford.
(23) *No, Miss. (24) He's in grade 8 in Westerford.*
[Providing information]
- T: (25) Uhlala phi, Nomaza?
(25) *Where do you live, Nomaza?*
[Requesting information]

- N: (26) Abazali bam bathenge indlu eRosebank, kodwa sisahlala kwiflethi eqeshisayo eClaremont side sikwazi ukuya endlwini yethu. (27) Siza kukwazi ukuya kungena kula ndlu ekupheleni kuka-Septemba.
(26) My parents have bought a house in Rosebank, but we are renting a flat in Claremont until we can move into our house. (27) We can only move into our house at the end of September.
 [Providing information about place of residence]
- T: (28) Asilo xesha lide elo ekulindeneni. (29) Kushiyeke iinyanga ezimbini. (30) Ukhe wayibona le ndlu? (31) Ingaba wonwabile?
(28) That's not too long to wait. (29) Only two more months. (30) Have you seen the house? (31) Are you excited?
 [Commenting on waiting time], [Requesting information]
- N: (33) Ewe, Nkosazana! Yindlu endala enegadi enkulu. (34) Kukho iminqatsa eya egumbini lokulala. (35) Ndiza kukwazi ukubona intaba ndiphaya kwigumbi lam! (32) Yes, Miss! (33) It's and old house with a big garden. (34) There are stairs going up to the bedrooms. (35) I'll be able to see the mountain from my room!
 [Providing information], [Stating excitement]
- T: (36) Owu! (37) Uyintombi enethamsanqa! (38) Ngoku ndixelele ngesikolo ubufudula ufunda kuso, Nomaza? (39) Sesiphi isikolo ubungena kuso phaya eBhayi?
(36) Wow! (37) You are a very lucky girl! (38) Now tell me about your previous school, Nomaza? (39) Which school did you go to in Port Elizabeth?
 [Expressing delight], [Requesting information]
- N: (40) E-St. Anne's. (41) Ibisikolo esidala kakhulu. (42) Besingaphucukanga njengesini.
(40) To St. Anne's. (41) It was a very old school. (42) Not as modern as this one.
 [Providing information]
- T: (43) Ingaba ubuthanda phaya? (44) Ingaba ebebizwa bani utitshala wakho?
 (43) Did you like it there? (44) What was your teacher called?
 [Requesting information]
- N: (48) Ewe, Nkosazana. (49) Bendisithanda esa sikolo kakhulu. (50) Utitshala wam, uNkosazana Scott ibingutitshala olunge kakhulu.
(45) Yes, Miss. (46) I liked that school very much. (47) My teacher, Miss Scott, was a very nice teacher.
 [Providing information]
- T: (48) Ngoku ke Nomaza. (49) Ndiyathemba ukuba uza konwaba apha. (50) Ndiyavuya ukuba inqununu ikufake egumbini lam lokufundisela. (51) Ndizimisele ukukwazi kwaye ndiza kuthetha nomama okanye utata wakho xa beze kukuthatha ngoLwesihlanu. (52) Nazi zonke iincwadi zakho. (53) Itafile

yakho iphaya. (54) Uza kuhlala ecaleni kuka-Julia. (55) Ubekade ehlala yedwa oko kuqale le kota, ndiyathemba ukuba uza kuyivuyela into yokuba nomhlobo omtsha.

(48) Well, Nomaza. (49) I hope you are going to be happy here. (50) I'm very glad that the Headmaster decided to put you in my class. (51) I'm looking forward to getting to know you, and I'll talk to your mother or your father when they come and pick you up on Friday. (52) Here are all your books. (53) Your desk is over there. (54) You are going to sit next to Julia. (55) She has been sitting alone in that desk since the beginning of the term, so I'm sure she is going to be very happy to have a new friend.

[Welcoming learner], [Expressing delight at having learner in class], [Providing information]

N: (56) Ndiyabulela, Nkosazana.

(56) Thank you, Miss.

[Expressing gratitude]

T: (57) Wamkelekile egumbini lam lokuhlohlela. (58) Uze uncede undibuze xa kukho into ofuna ukuyiqonda okanye indawo ofuna ukuya kuyo.

(57) Welcome to my class. (58) Please ask me if you don't know what to do or where to go.

[Welcoming learner], [Offering assistance]

N: (59) Ndiyabulela, Nkosazana.

(59) Thank you, Miss.

[Expressing gratitude]

5.2.4.8.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for cognitive complexity this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

This task is classified as having few elements despite the fact that some spatial and temporal references are found. These references are found in isolation rather than in high frequency within any communicative segment, and task participants are thus not required to distinguish between different spatial or temporal elements appearing in high frequency. Examples of temporal references are found in sentences such as the following: 8 (**emva kwekhefu** / "after break"), 29 (**iinyanga ezimbini** / "two months") and 55 (**kuqale le kota** / "since the beginning of this term"). Spatial references are found in sentences such as the following: 8 (**ebhodini** / "on the

board"), 26 (**eRosebank** / "in Rosebank"; *eClaremont* / "in Claremont"; and **endlwini yethu** / "into our house"), 35 (**egumbini lokulala** / "to the bedroom") and 46 (**esa sikolo** / "that school").

[+ no reasoning]:

This task requires of the participant in the role of the teacher to welcome a new learner and to get to know the learner by asking questions about the learner's personal background. The participant in the role of the learner is required to respond to the teacher's questions and to ask questions he or she might have. Because participants are only required to request and provide information, and because they are not required to discuss the causality of events, this task is classified as [+ no reasoning].

[- here-and-now]:

This task requires of participants to discuss events that take place in physical contexts other than the shared context in which the task is performed. Reference is made to various suburbs and cities (e.g. Claremont, Rosebank, Port Elizabeth), to other schools (e.g. St. Anne's and Westerford), and to the learner's new home. The task also requires of learners to discuss events that happened in the past and the future. References to the past are found in sentences such as the following: 10 (**Besihlala eBhayi** / "We lived in Port Elizabeth"), 11 (**Kodwa kufuneke sifudukele** / "but we had to move") and 41 (**ibisisikolo esidala kakhulu** / "it was a very old school"). References to future events are found in sentences such as the following: 3 (**uza kuba ngomnye umfundi wam** / "you will be one of my learners"), 27 (**siza kukwazi ukuya kungena** / "we will only be able to move"), and 54 (**uza kuhlala ecaleni kukaJulia** / "you will sit next to Julia").

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that participants will be given planning time prior to actual task performance. The participant taking the role of the teacher will have to plan how to welcome the learner and which questions to ask the learner in order to obtain information about his or her personal circumstances. The

participant in the role of the learner will have to plan which biographical information to supply to the teacher, e.g. number of siblings, previous place of residence, parents' occupations, etc.

[+ prior knowledge]:

This task is classified as [+ prior knowledge] despite the fact that no prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction to assist learners with this task. Very little prior knowledge is needed to perform this task, and what is needed is of a general nature. In addition to this the task participants are student teachers who will bring prior knowledge about welcoming a learner to the task. Because of these considerations this dimension is not seen as one that would contribute to the increased cognitive complexity of the task, hence a classification of [+ prior knowledge] is awarded.

[- single task]:

This task is characterized as [- single task] because participants will have to plan ahead while performing the task. The participant performing the role of the teacher will have to plan ahead during task performance which information he or she still needs to obtain from the learner, while also planning how to make the learner feel welcome and at ease in her new surroundings. The participant in the role of the learner will have to plan ahead while speaking which information to provide about her personal background.

Based on the above classification of task characteristics this task can be placed in quadrant 1 of Robinson's (2005) framework for the cognitive analysis of tasks. With the exception of the characteristics [- here-and-now] and [- single task] all characteristics match those posited by Robinson for quadrant 1 tasks. This task will therefore display low performative and low developmental complexity, but slightly higher developmental demands than typical quadrant 1 tasks because task participants will be required to refer to events happening in a different physical setting and in a different time from the present. This task will also display slightly higher performative complexity than typical quadrant 1 tasks because participants will be required to perform multiple tasks.

5.2.4.8.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue is characterized by many short exchanges between the participants in which biographical information is requested and supplied. Many of the sentences in this dialogue are short, monoclausal sentences. A selection of the syntactically complex sentences will be analyzed in below.

Sentence 3 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyavuya** ("I am happy/pleased") followed by the complement clause **ukuba uza kuba** ("that you will be"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the future tense clause **uza kuba** ("you will be"). Sentence 4 starts with a subjunctive complement clause **uhambe** ("you go") introduced by the conjunction **phambi kokuba** ("before"). This is followed by a further complement clause **uyokudlala** ("you go to play"), consisting of a contraction of the verb **-ya** ("to go") and the infinitive verb **ukudlala** ("to play"). After this follows the main clause of sentence 4, **ndifuna** ("I want"), a present tense indicative mood main clause, which in turn is followed by the subjunctive complement **ukuba sazane** ("that we know each other").

Sentence 8 begins with the hortative mood main clause **mandiyibhale** ("let me write it") followed by the subjunctive complement clause **ukwenzela** ("to make that") which indicates purpose. This is followed by a subjunctive complement clause **ukuba bayibone** ("that they see it") and by a further complement clause **xa bebuya** ("when they return") consisting of the conjunction **xa** ("when/if") and the situative mood verb **bebuya**.

Sentence 10 consists of the recent past tense indicative main clause **besihlala** ("we lived"). Sentence 11 is a continuation of sentence 10 and starts with the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"). This is followed by the past tense complement clause **kufuneke sifudukele** ("it was necessary that we moved"), and a further complement clause **kuba ufumene** ("because he found").

Sentence 12 consists of a copular main clause **ngumsebenzi** ("it is work") followed by two complement clauses: first the relative clause **onjani** ("which is how"), and then

the passive relative mood clause **owenziwa** ("which is done"). In sentence 17 the copular main clause **uyintatheli** ("she is a journalist") is followed by the negative complement clause **akakawufumani** ("she has not yet found"), featuring the deficient verb particle **-ka-** ("yet").

Sentence 26 begins with the perfect past tense indicative mood main clause **bathenge** ("they bought"). This is followed by the complement clause **sisahlala** ("we still stay") featuring the deficient verb particle **-sa-** ("still"). This is followed by the relative mood complement clause **eqeshisayo** ("which is rented") and **side sikwazi ukuya** ("until we can go"), featuring the deficient verb **-de** ("until"), the clause **sikwazi** ("we can") and the infinitive complement clause **ukuya** ("to go"). Sentence 27 starts with the future tense complement clause **siza kukwazi** ("we will be able to") followed by the infinitive main clause **ukuya kungena** ("to go into").

In sentence 37 the copular main clause **uyintombi** ("you are a girl") is followed by the relative mood complement clause **enethamsanqa** ("which has fortune"). Sentence 38 starts with the subjunctive mood main clause **ndixelele** ("tell me") followed by the recent past tense complement clause **ubufudula** ("you used to"), followed by the situative complement clause **ufunda** ("you study"). Sentence 39 is a monoclausal sentence featuring the recent past tense indicative mood main clause **ubungena** ("you went to"). Further examples of monoclausal sentences in the recent past tense are found in sentences 41, 42-44 and 46-47.

Sentence 49 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyathemba** ("I hope") followed by the future tense complement clause **ukuba uza konwaba** ("that you will be happy"). Sentence 50 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyavuya** ("I am glad") followed by the subjunctive complement clause **ukuba ikufake** ("that he put you"). In sentence 51 consists of two main clauses. The first the main clause **ndizimisele** ("I am looking forward") takes an infinitive complement clause **ukukwazi** ("to know you"). The second main clause is introduced by the conjunction **kwaye** ("and furthermore") and is a future tense indicative mood clause: **ndiza kuthetha** ("I will speak"). This is followed by

two further complement clauses. Firstly, **xa beze** ("when they come") consisting of the conjunction **xa** ("when") and the situative clause **beze** ("they come"), and secondly the infinitive clause **ukukuthatha** ("to take you"). Sentences 52-54 are short monoclausal sentences. Sentence 55 consists of two main clauses and several complement clauses. The first main clause in sentence 55 is **ubekade ehlala** ("she did for long she sat"), featuring the deficient verb **be** and the situative verb **ehlala**. This is followed by the complement clause **oko kuqale** ("since it started"). The second main clause of sentence 55 is a present tense indicative mood clause **ndiyathemba** ("I hope"), followed by the future tense complement clause **ukuba uza kuyivuyela** ("that she will be glad"), and **into yokuba** ("the thing to be"), featuring a possible link combined with the infinitive **ukuba** ("to be").

Sentence 58 consists of the deficient verb clause **uze uncede** ("you must please") followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **undibuze** ("you ask me"). This is followed by a complement clause **xa kukho** ("if there is"), a relative mood clause **ofuna** ("that you want") followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukuyiqonda** ("to know it"). Sentence 58 concludes with two complement clauses similar in structure to those mentioned in the previous sentence: **ofuna ukuya** ("that you want to go to").

When comparing the above syntactic complexity analysis with the communication segments identified earlier for this task, no apparent correlation is found. Sentences with a complex structure are found in a variety of generic moves.

5.2.4.8.3 Salient Language Structures

The constructions listed below are crucial for the acquisition of the generic moves identified for this task:

[Requesting information]

Use of **-xelela** ("to tell") + Subjunctive:

Ngoku ndixelele ngesikolo ubufudula ufunda kuso ... ("Now tell me about the previous school you went to... ") (38)

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba umama wakho uyasebenza naye, Nomaza? ("Perhaps your mother also works, Nomaza?") (16)

Ingaba unabo abantakwenu nodade wenu? ("Perhaps you have brothers and sisters?") (19)

Ingaba ukwesi sikolo? ("Perhaps he is in this school?") (21)

Ingaba ubuthanda phaya? ("Perhaps you liked it there?") (43)

Ingaba ebebizwa bani utitshala wakho? ("Perhaps she was called what your teacher?") (44)

[Indicating ability]

Use of **-azi** ("to know/can") + Infinitive:

... sikwazi ukuya endlwini yethu. ("... we can go/move into our house.") (27)

Use of **-azi** ("to know/can") in Future Tense + Infinitive:

Ndiza kukwazi ukubona intaba... ("I will be able to see the mountain ...") (35)

[Expressing certainty]

Use of **-themba** ("to hope/be sure")

... ndiyathemba ukuba uza kuyivuyela into yokuba nomhlobo omtsha. ("... I am sure that she will be glad to have a new friend.") (55)

[Stating intention]

Use of the future tense:

Ndiza kuthetha nomama okanye utata wakho ... ("I will talk to your mother or father ...") (51)

The salient language features listed above are vital for the successful performance of this task. These structures should be included in focus on form activities that can be utilized to create opportunities for repetition and reinforcement.

5.2.4.9 Task 9

Uye waqaphela umahluko malunga nendlela umfundi aziphethe ngayo kwaye wagqiba kwelokuba uthethe naye bucala. Cacisela lo mfundi ukuba uyakhathala kwaye mbuze ngeengxaki ezingaba zikhona ekhayeni. Mthembise ngendlela olukhuseleke ngayo olu ndliwano ndlebe. Ukuba kunokwenzeka mthembise lo mfundi ngesisombululo sale ngxaki yakhe.

You notice a change in a learner's behaviour and decide to talk to the learner privately. Explain to the learner that you are concerned and then ask about possible problems at home. Assure the learner of the confidentiality of your conversation. If possible, suggest a solution to the problems the learner is experiencing.

T = Teacher

M = Mandla

Communicative purposes:

- 1 to find out what is causing change in learner's behaviour
- 2 to offer assistance, sympathy and reassurance

- T: (1) Ndiyabulela, bafundi. Ngoku lixesha lekhefu. Nonke phumani! Sukulimbarhaza kangaka ucango! Hambani ngendlela efanelekileyo. Mandla! ndingathetha nawe okomzuzwana?
(1) Thank you, class. (2) Right, it's break time. (3) Out you go! (4) Don't storm out the door like that! (5) Walk in an orderly way. (6) Mandla, could I talk to you for a moment?
 [Instructing class to leave room]
 [Requesting private conversation with learner]
- M: (7) Ewe, Mfundisi.
(7) Yes, Sir.
- T: (8) Yiza, masihlale apha. (9) Mandla, ndiye ndaqaphela ukuba usuke wathula kula malanga. (10) Ingaba yonke into ime kakuhle?
(8) Come, let's sit over here. (9) Mandla, I've noticed that you are very quiet lately. (10) Is everything all right?
 [Asking about learner's well being]
- M: (11) Ewe, Mfundisi.
 (11) Yes, Sir.
- T: (12) Uqinisekile? (13) Ukhangeleka ungonwabanga. (14) Yintoni ingxaki?
 (15) Ingaba wonwabile?
(12) Are you sure? (13) You haven't been looking too well. (14) What is the problem? (15) Are you feeling alright?
 [Stating concern about learners' well-being], [Asking about learner's well being]

- M: (16) Akukho ngxaki, Mfundisi.
(16) I'm fine, Sir.
- T: (17) Kulungile. (18) Ingaba zinjani izinto ekhayeni? (19) Ingaba yonke into ime kakuhle ekhayeni?
(17) *Okay. (18) And how are things at home? (19) Is everything going well at home?*
[Requesting information]
- M: (20) Ndicinga njalo, Mfundisi.
(20) *I suppose so, Sir.*
- T: (21) Ukhangeleka ungaqinisekanga. (22) Ingaba ikhona into ofuna ukuthetha ngayo nam? (23) Into ongandixelela yona yimfihlo phakathi kwethu. (24) Andisoze ndixelele namnye ukuba ufuna kube njalo. (25) Ndixelele ukuba yintoni le ikutyayo, Mandla?
(21) *You don't sound very sure. (22) Is there anything you want to talk to me about? (23) What you tell me can stay between the two of us. (24) I won't talk to anyone about it if you don't want me to. (25) Tell me what's bothering you, Mandla.*
[Reassuring learner about confidentiality], [Requesting information]
- M: (26) Mfundisi, ngutata wam...
(26) *Sir, it's my father ...*
[Providing information]
- T: (27) Yintoni ngotata, Mandla?
(27) *What about your father, Mandla?*
[Requesting information]
- M: (28) Uyazi, Mfundisi, utata wam usebenza kwifektri yempahla e-Woodstock.
(28) *Well, Sir, you see my father works in a clothing factory in Woodstock.*
[Providing information]
- T: (29) Ewe, ndiyayazi loo nto.
(29) *Yes, I know that.*
- M: (30) Ngoku, mfundisi, uyabona... (31) Utata uye wasixelela kule veki iphelileyo ukuba uza kuphelelwa ngumsebenzi ekupheleni kwale nyanga izayo.
(30) *Now, Sir, you see ... (31) My father told us last week that he is going to be laid off at the end of next month.*
[Stating problem]
- T: (32) Owu, ndiyaxolisa ukuva loo nto. (33) Ingaba uyayazi ukuba kutheni?
(32) *Oh, I'm very sorry to hear that. (33) Do you know why?*
[Expressing sympathy], [Requesting information]

- M: (34) Utata uthi la ndawo iphelelwe yinqgesho enkulu. (35) Uthi ngoku laa ndawo ithenga impahla e-China ezinexabiso eliphantsi kunempahla bebenza bona kweli lizwe. (36) Ngoku laa ndawo ayisafumani zinqgesho yiyo loo nto abanye abantu beza kuphelelwa ngumsebenzi.
(34) Father says it's because the factory has lost a big contract. (35) He says shops are now importing clothes from China that are cheaper than the clothes his factory can make here in our country. (36) So now the factory is not getting as many contracts, and now some of the workers are going to be let go.
 [Relating events resulting in loss of job]
- T: (37) Zambi ke ezo ndaba. (38) Ingaba umama wakho uyasebenza, Mandla?
(37) That is really bad news. (38) Does your mother work, Mandla?
 [Requesting information]
- M: (39) Ewe, Mfundisi. Ucoxa amagumbi e-Wynberg.
 (39) Yes, Sir. She cleans offices in Wynberg.
 [Providing information about work]
- T: (40) Ngoku ukhathazekile kuba utata wakho engazukuba namsebenzi. (41) Ndiyayiva lo nto, Manda. (42) Uziva njani ngale nto?
(40) So you are worried that your father will no longer have a job. (41) I can understand that, Mandla. (42) How do you feel about this?
 [Expressing reason for concern], [Requesting information]
- M: (43) Ndinexhala elikhulu, mfundisi. (44) Kuza kwenzeka ntoni kuthi?
(43) I'm very worried, Sir. (44) What is going to happen to us?
 [Expressing concern], [Requesting information]
- T: (45) Uyazi utata wakho angakwazi ukufuna i-UIF iinyanga ezimbalwa. (46) Into ethetha ukuba ngeli xesha afuna omnye umsebenzi, urhulumente uza kumnika imali iinyanga ezimbalwa. (47) Ayizi kufana nale ebeyibhatalwa ngoku kodwa uza kukwazi ukuthenga ukutya abhatale nezinye izinto.
(45) Well, your father will be able to claim UIF for a couple of months. (46) That means that while he is looking for new work, the government will give him some money for a couple of months. (47) It will not be as much as he earns now, but at least he will be able to buy food and cover basic expenses.
 [Providing information about UIF], [Reassuring learner]
- M: (48) Into ethetha ukuba kuza kuba imali yokutya, mfundisi?
(48) So we will have money for food, Sir?
 [Requesting information]
- T: (49) Ewe, ndicinga ukuba le mali iza kwanela ukutya ade utata wakho afumane omnye umsebenzi. (50) Kwaye nomama wakho unawo umsebenzi. (51) Ngoku akufuneki uzikhathaze kakhulu, Mandla.

(49) Yes, I think the money will be enough for food until your father finds another job. (50) And at least your mother also has a job. (51) So you don't have to worry so much, Mandla.

[Reassuring learner]

M: (52) Kodwa kuza kwenzeka ntoni ngesikolo, mfundisi?

(52) But what about the school, Sir?

[Requesting information]

T: (53) Kuza kwenzeka ntoni ngesikolo? (54) Owu! unexhala le mali yesikolo.

(53) What about the school? (54) Oh!! you are worried about your school fees.

[Stating understanding of problem]

M: (55) Ewe, mfundisi. Utata uthi xa engabhatali imali yam yesikolo, isikolo sise nokumsa kwinkundla yamatyala. (56) Kwaye kuza kufuneka ndiye kwesinye isikolo. (57) Isikolo saselokishini. (58) Andifuni ukuya kwisikolo saselokishini, mfundisi. (59) Akukho zincwadi kweza zikolo, mfundisi. (60) Umhlobo wam ohlala kufutshane nathi ufunda kwesinye seza zikolo.

(55) Yes, Sir. Father says that if we don't pay my school fees, the school can take him to court. (56) And then I will have to go to another school. (57) A township school. (58) I don't want to go to a township school, Sir. (59) There are no books in those schools, Sir. (60) My friend who lives next to us goes to one of those schools.

[Explaining what will happen if fees are not paid – condition],

[Expressing dislike of township schools]

T: (61) Mandla, kufanelekile nyhani ukuba ungazikhathazi. (62) Utata wakho angakwazi ukuthetha nenqununu. (63) Isikolo singakwazi ukuxoxa izinto naye sigqibe senze icebo. (64) Ukuba abazali abakwazi ukubhatala imali yesikolo bangabhala iinkcukankca zabo phantsi ukwenzela ukuba babonelelwe.

(61) Mandla, you really shouldn't worry. (62) Your father can come and talk to the headmaster. (63) The school can discuss things with him and perhaps they can make a plan. (64) If parents cannot afford the school fees, then they can fill in a form to ask for exemption.

[Reassuring learner], [Suggesting solution to problem], [Providing information]

M: (65) Yintoni, Mfundisi?

(65) What, Sir?

[Requesting information]

T: (66) Ukubonelelwa. (67) Into ethetha ukuba abazali bakho abazukubhatala imali yesikolo ade utata wakho afumane umsebenzi kwakhona.

(66) Exemption. (67) That means your parents may not have to pay school fees until your father can find a job again.

[Providing information, clarification]

- M: (68) Unyanisile, mfundisi? (69) Ingaba uqinisekile?
(68) Really, Sir? (69) Are you sure?
 [Requesting reassurance]
- T: (70) Ewe! Ndiqinisekile! (71) Akufanelekanga uzikhathaze, Mandla.
(70) Yes, I'm sure! (71) You don't have to worry, Mandla.
 [Reassuring learner]
- M: (72) Into ethetha ukuba ndiseza kuba kwesi sikolo, mfundisi?! (73) Kunye nabahlobo bam?
(72) So then I can still be in this school, Sir?! (73) With my friends?
 [Requesting information]
- T: (74) Ewe, Mandla. (75) Akufanelekanga uye ndawo! (76) Ungahlala apha, kunye nam nabahlobo bakho. (77) Yiyo loo nto ubukhangeleka uthule, udakumbile?
(74) Yes, Mandla. (75) You don't have to go anywhere! (76) You can stay right here, with me and your friends. (77) So is that why you have been so quiet, looking so depressed?
 [Reassuring learner], [Requesting clarification]
- M: (78) Ewe, Mfundisi. Andifuni nyhani ukuya kwesinye isikolo.
(78) Yes, Sir. I really don't want to go to another school.
 [Stating preference not to go to other school]
- T: (79) Ndithembe, Mandla. (80) Akufanelekanga uye ndawo. (81) Ndiyakucela uthethe nabazali bakho baze kubonana nenqununu kwamsinyane. (82) Yona iza kubacacisela ukuba kufanele benze ntoni ukufumana izibonelelo.
(79) Trust me, Mandla. (80) You don't have to go anywhere. (81) Please ask your parents to come and talk to the headmaster as soon as possible. (82) Then he can explain to them what they must do to get exemption.
 [Reassuring learner], [Instructing learner to convey message to parents]
- M: (83) Ndiyabulela, mfundisi.
(83) Thank you, Sir.
 [Expressing gratitude]
- T: (84) Wamkelekile, Mandla. (85) Ngoku hamba uyokonwabela intsalela yekhefu lakho. (86) Uyeke ukuzikhathaza!
(84) You are welcome, Mandla. (85) Now go and enjoy what's left of your break. (86) And stop worrying!
 [Instructing learner to go outside], [Reassuring learner]
- M: (87) Ndiya kwenza njalo, mfundisi. (ebaleka ephuma) Ndiyabulela!
(87) I will, Sir. (running out the door) (88) Thank you!
 [Expressing gratitude]

5.2.4.9.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for cognitive complexity this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

This task does not require of participants to distinguish between many similar spatial or temporal elements. It is classified as [+ few elements] despite the fact that some references to time and space do occur. These references are too few and insignificant to justify a classification of [– few elements]. Examples of temporal references are found in sentences such as the following: 2 (**lixesha lekhefu** / "it's break time"), 9 (**kula malanga** / "lately"), 31 (**kule veki iphelileyo** / "last week") and 45 (**iinyanga ezimbalwa** / "a few months). The following sentences contain examples of spatial references: 8 (**apha** / "here"), 18 (**ekhayeni** / "at home"), 28 (**ifektri** / "factory"), 59 (**kweza zikolo** / "in those schools") and 73 (**kwesi sikolo** / "this school").

[- no reasoning]:

This task is classified as [– no reasoning] because of evidence of reasoning and causal events that can be found in the task. In sentences 34-36 the learner is relating events that were the cause of his father losing his job. In sentences 45-47 the teacher explains to the learner what the result will be of his father getting UIF compensation. In sentences 55-61 the learner reasons with the teacher about what he thinks will happen if his father cannot afford his school fees. In sentences 67-68 the teacher explains to the learner what the result of exemption of school fees will be.

[- here-and-now]:

Because of various references to physical contexts and times other than those in which the task is performed, this task is classified as [– here-and-now]. The participants refer to events happening in other contexts, e.g. the factory the father works in, the learners home, and township schools. Examples of the past tense are

found in sentences 9, 13, 31 and 34 . Reference to future events are found in sentences 31, 36, 45-47, etc.

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that participants will be given planning time prior to the actual task performance. The participant taking the role of the teacher will have to plan how to approach the learner and how to enquire about what is bothering the learner. The participant in the role of the learner will have to plan prior to performing the task which details he or she will provide about his or her problem.

[- prior knowledge]:

No prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction. The teacher will need prior knowledge about claiming unemployment compensation and about how and when parents can qualify for exemption from school fees. The learner will need some prior knowledge about conditions resulting in clothing factories retrenching workers. Because the participants are student teachers it can be assumed that they will bring some prior knowledge, for example, about unemployment compensation and retrenchments to the task. The fact that no such prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction will contribute to the performative complexity of this task. Seen on a continuum, the amount of prior knowledge needed and the specific nature of the prior knowledge required is considered such that this will increase the performative complexity of the task for the participants. Hence a classification of [-prior knowledge] is made.

[- single task]:

This task is classified as requiring multiple tasks to be performed at the same time. The teacher will have to plan arguments about why the learner will be able to stay on at the school despite the fact that the parents will no longer be able to afford the school fees. The teacher will also have to plan ahead how terms such as "UIF" and "exemption" can be explained to the learner. The learner will have to plan how his

concern about his father's pending retrenchment can be communicated to the teacher.

With the exception of [+ planning time] all characteristics of this task correspond with those posited by Robinson (2005) for quadrant 4 of his framework for cognitive complexity. This task displays characteristics that will provide learning opportunities to the participants with high performative and high developmental complexity. Given the fact that (for the purposes of this study) it is assumed that planning time will be allowed, this task will have slightly less performative complexity than typical quadrant 4 tasks.

5.2.4.9.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue displays a combination of shorter and longer communication segments, as well as a combination of shorter, monoclausal sentences and longer, complex sentences. In this section a random selection of more complex sentences will be analyzed for their syntactic complexity.

Sentence 8 starts consists of two main clauses. First the imperative mood clause **yiza** ("come here"), and secondly the hortative mood clause **masihlale** ("let us sit"). In sentence 9 the main clause is the past tense indicative mood clause **ndiye ndaqaphela** ("I did I noticed"), followed by the complement clause **ukuba usuke wathula**, which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"), the subjunctive deficient verb **usuke** ("you just"), followed by the consecutive mood verb **wathula** ("you were quiet"). Sentence 10 consists of the potential copulative clause **ingaba** ("perhaps"), followed by the main subjunctive mood clause **ime** "it stands".

Sentence 21 starts with the complement clause **ukhangeleka** ("you seem") followed by the past tense negative subjunctive mood clause **ungaqinisekanga** ("you were not sure"). Sentence 22 starts with the main clause **ingaba ikhona** ("perhaps there is"), followed by the relative clause **ofuna** ("that you want"), which takes an infinitive complement clause **ukuthetha** ("to talk"). Sentence 23 begins with the relative complement clause **into ongandixelela** ("thing that you tell me"), which is

followed by the copular main clause **yimfihlo** ("it is a secret"). Sentence 24 starts with the negative complement clause **andisoze** ("I will never") followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **ndixelele** ("I tell"). After the main clause follows the complement clause **ukuba ufuna kube** ("if you want it to be"). This turn in the conversation is concluded with sentence 25 which starts with the subjunctive mood main clause **ndixelele** ("tell me"), which is followed by a copular complement clause introduced by the conjunction **ukuba: ukuba yintoni** ("that it is what"). Sentence 25 concludes with the relative mood complement clause **ikutyayo** ("that is eating/bothering you").

Sentence 34 begins with the present tense indicative mood main clause **uthi** ("he says") followed by the passive complement clause **iphelelwe** ("it has lost"). Sentence 35 begins with the same main clause as sentence 34 and then takes the indicative mood complement clause **ithenga** ("they buy"). This is followed by a relative complement clause, **ezinexabiso** ("that have prices") and by a recent past tense complement clause **bebezenza** ("they made"). In sentence 36 the main clause is the negative clause **ayisafumani** ("they no longer/not still receive"), which features the deficient verbal particle **-sa-** ("not still/no longer"). This is followed by the conjunction **yiyo loo nto** ("this is why"), which introduces a future tense passive clause **beza kuphelelwa** ("they will be let go").

Sentence 45 begins with a present tense indicative mood complement clause **uyazi** ("you know") which is followed by the subjunctive main clause **angakwazi ukufuna** ("he will know/ be able to get"). Sentence 46 begins with the complement clause **into ethetha** ("the thing says / it means"), which is followed by a further subjunctive complement clause **ukuba afuna** ("that he finds"). Sentence 46 ends with a future tense indicative mood clause **uza kukumnika** ("they will give him"). Sentence 47 starts with the negative future tense indicative mood main clause **ayizi kufana** ("it will not be the same") followed by a recent past tense passive complement clause **ebeyibhatalwa** ("he was paid"). After this follows a complement clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa: kodwa uza kukwazi ukuthenga** ("but he will be able to buy"), which consists of the conjunction **kodwa**

("but") and the future tense clause **uza kukwazi** ("he will be able to"), which takes an infinitive complement clause **ukuthenga** ("to buy"). Sentence 47 concludes with the subjunctive mood complement clause **abhatale** ("he pays").

Sentence 55 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **uthi** ("he says") followed by the negative complement clause **xa engabhatali** ("if he does not pay"). This is followed by a further complement clause **sise nokumsa** ("it can take him"). Sentence 56 begins with the conjunction **kwaye** ("and furthermore"), which introduces the future tense main clause **kuza kufuneka** ("it will be necessary"), after which follows the subjunctive mood subordinate clause **ndiye** ("I go"). Sentence 57 consists of a locative noun phrase only: **isikolo saselokishini** ("school in a township / a township school"). Sentence 58 starts with the negative main clause **andifuni** ("I don't want") followed by the infinitive complement clause **ukuya** ("to go"). Sentence 59 is a monoclausal sentence featuring the negative main clause **akukho** ("there are not"). Sentence 60 begins with a relative mood complement clause **ohlala** ("that stays"), followed by the main present tense indicative mood clause **ufunda** ("he studies").

Sentence 71 begins with the negative past tense complement clause **akufanelekanga** ("it was not necessary") followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **uzikhathaze** ("you worry yourself"), featuring the reflexive particle **zi**.

Sentence 80 starts with the same complement clause as sentence 71 above, and then continues with the subjunctive main clause **uye** ("you go"). In sentence 81 the main clause **ndiyakucela** ("I ask you") is followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **uthethe** ("you speak"), which in turn is followed by further subjunctive clause **baze** ("they come") taking an infinitive complement clause **kubonana** ("to meet"). The main clause is sentence 82 is the future tense indicative clause **iza kubacacisela** ("he will explain to them"), which is followed by complement clause **ukuba kufanele benze** ("that it is important they do"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"), the deficient verb **kufanele** ("it is

important") and the subjunctive **benze** ("they do"). Sentence 82 concludes with the infinitive clause **ukufumana** ("to receive").

From the above selection of sentence analyzed for syntactic complexity it is clear that this dialogue contains many examples of sentences with relatively complex structures. There is no apparent correlation between specific generic moves and sentences with complex structures.

5.2.4.9.3 Salient Language Structures

The constructions listed below is a selection of constructions that are crucial for the acquisition of the generic moves identified for this task:

[Giving instructions]

Imperative:

Nonke phumani! ("All of you go outside!") (3)

Hambani ngendlela efanelekileyo. ("Walk in an orderly way.") (5)

Ngoku hamba uyokonwabela ... ("Now go and enjoy ...") (85)

Negative of the Imperative:

Sukulimbarhaza kangaka ucango! ("Don't storm out the door like that")

(4)

Hortative:

... masihlale apha. ("Let us sit over here.") (8)

Use of **-cela** ("to ask"):

Ndiyakucela uthethe nabazali bakho ... ("I ask you/ please talk to your parents ... ") (81)

[Requesting information]

Use of **-xelele** ("to tell"):

Ndixelele ukuba yintoni le ikutyayo. ("Tell me what is bothering you.")

(25)

Use of **Yintoni** ("It is what?") + **nga-** ("about"):

Yintoni ngotata, Mandla? ("What about your father, Mandla?") (27)

Use of **–va njani?** ("feeling how?"):

Uziva njani ngale nto? ("How do you feel about this?") (42)

Use of **–enzeka ntoni?** ("What happens?"):

Kuza kwenzeka ntoni kuthi? ("What will happen to us?") (44)

Kodwa kuza kwenzeka ntoni ngesikolo ...? ("But what will happen about the school?") (53)

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba zinjani izinto ekhayeni? ("Perhaps how are things at home?") (18)

Ingaba yonke into ime kakuhle ekhayeni? ("Perhaps everything is going well at home?") (19)

Ingaba uyasazi ukuba kutheni? ("Perhaps you know why?") (33)

Ingaba umama wakho uyasebenza? ("Perhaps your mother is working?") (38)

[Expressing sympathy]

Use of **–xolisa ukuva** ("sorry to hear"):

Owu, ndiyaxolisa ukuva loo nto. (Oh, I am sorry to hear that.) (32)

Use of **iindaba** ("news") with the adjective stem **–bi**:

Zambi ke ezo ndaba. ("That is really bad news.") (37)

Use of **–va** ("to understand"):

Ndiyayiva lo nto, Mandla. ("I understand that, Mandla.")

[Expressing concern]

Use of **ixhala** ("worry/anxiety"):

Ndinexhala elikhulu, mfundisi. ("I have a big anxiety / I am very worried.") (43)

Use of **–enzeka** ("to happen") + future tense:

Kuza kwenzeka ntoni kuthi? ("What is going to happen to us?") (44)

[Reassuring learner]

Use of **–khathaza** ("to worry/ be concerned"):

Ngoku akufuneki uzikhathaze kukhulu, Mandla. ("So you don't have to worry so much, Mandla.") (51)

Kufanekile nyhani ukuba ungazikhathazi. ("You really don't have to worry.") (61)

Uyeke ukuzikhathaza. ("Stop worrying.") (86)

[Stating intention]

Use of the future tense:

Ndiya kwenza njalo, mfundisi. ("I will do that, sir.") (87)

[Stating ability]

Use of **-azi** + infinitive:

Uyazi utata wakho angakwazi ukufuna i-UIF... ("Well, your father will be able to claim UIF ...") (45)

... kodwa uza kukwazi ukuthenga ukutya ... ("... but he will be able to buy food ...") (47)

[Stating opinion]

Use of **-cinga** ("think") + **ukuba**:

Ndinga ukuba le mali iza kwanela ... ("I think that this money will be enough ... ") (49)

[Reasoning: cause and effect]

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba abazali abakwazi ukubhatala imali yesikolo bangabhala inkcukankca ... ("If your parents can't pay the school fees they can fill in a form ...")

[Providing explanation / clarification]

Use of **into ethetha ukuba** ("this means that"):

Into ethetha ukuba ngeli xesha afuna omnye umsebenzi, urhulumente uza kumnika imali iinyanga ezimbalwa. ("That means

that while he is looking for new work, the government will give him some money for a couple of months.") (46)

Into ethetha ukuba kuza kuba kho imali yokutya, mfundisi? ("Does that mean that there will be money for food, sir?") (48)

Into ethetha ukuba abazali bakho abazukubhatala imali yesikolo ... ("This means that your parents will not pay school fees ..") (67)

Into ethetha ukuba ndiseza kuba kwesi sikolo, mfundisi? ("Does that mean I can still be in this school, sir?") (72)

Use of **Yiyo lo nto** ("this is why"):

Ngoku le ndawo ayisafumani zingqesho yiyo loo nto abanye abantu beza kuphelelwa ngumsebenzi. ("So the factory isn't getting contracts, so this is why some people are being let go.") (36)

Yiyo loo nto ubukhangeleka uthule, udakumbile? ("So is this why you have been looking so quiet and depressed?") (77)

[Stating and enquiring about certainty]

Use of **-qiniseka** ("to be certain"):

Uqinisekile? ("Are you sure?") (12)

Ukhangeleka ungaqinisekanga. ("You look as if you are not sure.") 21

Ndiqinisekile! ("I am sure / certain.") (70)

[Expressing importance / necessity]

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"):

Kwaye kuza kufuneka ndiye kwesinye isikolo. ("And further I will have to go to another school.") (56)

The above salient language constructions display a variety of sentence types, many of which are found in complex, multi-clausal sentences. Constructions such as these should form the basis for designing focus of form activities that will help learners to acquire the language realised in the main generic moves identified for this task.

5.2.4.10 Task 10

Unike abafundi bakho umsebenzi ukuba bawenze. Ngeli xesha basebenzayo, ingxolo iphezulu kwaye uyabona ukuba abanye abafaki sandla kulo msebenzi weqela. Bathulise kwaye ubakhuze ngokwenza ingxolo engaka. Yalela abo bangazimisela ukuba bangene. Abanye abafundi bathi bamsulwa kwaye baza kunikezela ngamagama abo bafundekelayo bangenzi nto.

You have given your class a group work activity to complete. While they are working, the noise level is too high and you can see that some learners are not participating in the group work activity. Call the class to order and reprimand them for making so much noise. Instruct those not participating to join in. Some learners claim that they are innocent and give the names of the ones allegedly making the noise and not participating.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To discipline learners
- 2 To get learners to co-operate in groupwork activity

T = Teacher

L, A, S, M and Th = learners

T: (1) Ndiyanicela, bantwana! (2) Kwanele! (3) Nenza eyona ngxolo yakhe yankulu. (4) Ukuba nonke benisebenza ngokwamaqela enu ngekungekho le ngxolo. (5) Yizani apha, wena Lungi nawe Sithembile animameli.

(1) Come on, class! (2) That's enough! (3) You are making far too much noise. (4) If you were all working in your groups there wouldn't be so much noise. (5) Come now, Lungi, you and Sithembile are not co-operating.

[Reprimanding class for making noise]

L: (6) Hayi, Mfundisi, besithetha ngomsebenzi.

(6) No Sir, we were just talking about the work.

[Denying making noise]

A: (7) Uyaxoka, Mfundisi! (8) Bebethetha izinto ezihlekisayo!

(7) She's lying, Sir! (8) They were telling jokes!

[Accusing other learner of lying]

S: (9) Hayi, uyaphosisa!

(9) Now you're lying!

[Accusing other learner of lying]

A: (10) Hayi, andiphosisi!

(10) No, I'm not!

[Denying accusation]

- T: (11) Thulani! (12) Nonke, thulani nibuyele emsebenzini wenu. (13) Wena Lungi noSithembile ndinijongile.
(11) Quiet! (12) All of you, keep quiet and get back to work. (13) Lungi and Sithembile, I'm watching you.
 [Disciplining learners]
- L: (14) Kodwa Mfundisi, uManelisi kunye noThemba bebesenza ingxolo. (15) Bebehleka imiyalezo ehlekisayo kunomyayi kaThemba.
(14) But Sir, Manelisi and Themba were also making a noise. (15) They're laughing at funny smss on Themba's cellphone.
 [Relating information about other learners' behaviour]
- T: (16) Thula, Lungi. (17) Sukufuna ukufaka abanye abantu enkathazweni apho ubugeza wedwa.
(16) Quiet, Lungi. (17) Don't try to get other people into trouble when you were being naughty yourself.
 [Reprimanding learner]
- L: (18) Uxolo, Mfundisi.
(18) Sorry, Sir.
 [Apoligizing]
- T: (19) Manelisi kunye noThemba zisani loo nomyayi apha etafileni yam. (20) Niyayazi ukuba anivumelekanga ukuba nidlale ngoonomyayi benu ngeli xesha thina sisebenza.
(19) Manelisi and Themba, bring that cellphone to my table. (20) You know you are not allowed to play with your phones while we are working.
 [Instructing learners]
- Th: (21) Bendimbonisa into ekhawulezileyo, Mfundisi.
(21) I was just quickly showing him something, Sir.
 [Offering explanation]
- T: (22) Loo nto ayithethi. (23) Umthetho uthi 'akukho xesha lanomyayi ngexesha lokufunda'. (24) Zisa apha laa nomyayi ngokukhawuleza.
(22) That doesn't matter. (23) The rule is "No cellphones during class time". (24) Bring that phone here immediately.
 [Instructing learners]
- Th: (25) Ewe, Titshala.
(25) Yes, teacher.
- T: (26) Ngoku wonke umntu, makabuyele emsebenzini wakhe. (27) Nishekelwe yimizuzu elishumi nigqibe le ndima. (28) Emva kokuba nigqibile kufuneka sixoke ngeempendulo enibuye nazo emaqaleni enu.
(26) Now everybody, let's get back to work. (27) You only have 10 minutes left to finish this activity. (28) Once you've all finished I want us to discuss the answers you've come up with in your groups.

[Instructing learners]

Class: (29) Ewe, Titshala.
(29) Yes, teacher.

5.2.4.10.1 Cognitive Complexity Analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for cognitive complexity this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

The references to time and space that occur in this task are few and it is not important to distinguish between these elements in order to perform this task successfully. A temporal reference is found in sentence 27: (**nishikelwe yimizuzu elishumi** / "you have ten minutes left"). Spatial references are found in sentences 12 (**emsebenzini** / "to work"), 17 (**enkathazwe** / "into trouble"), 19 (lo nomyayi apha etafileni yam / "that cellphone here to my table"), 24 (**laa nomyayi** / "that cellphone") and 28 (**emaqaleni enu** / "in your groups").

[- no reasoning]:

The learners performing this task reason with the teachers about who it was that caused the noise in the classroom, e.g. in sentences 14 and 15. In sentence 17 the teacher reasons with a learner about not trying to shift the blame from herself.

[- here-and-now]:

This task is performed using mainly the present tense and discussing events that happened in the same physical context. It is however necessary for the participants to refer to events that happened in the past, albeit the recent past. The following are examples of the past tense used in this task: sentence 8 (**bebethetha** / "they were talking"), 14 (**bebesenza ingxolo** / "they were making noise"), 17 (**ubugeza wedwa** / "you were naughty yourself").

[+ planning]:

It is assumed for the purposes of this study that task participants will be given planning time prior to performing the task. The participant in the role of the teacher will need time to plan how react to the fact that the learners are not behaving, e.g. how to reprimand learners and how to restore order in the class. The participants taking the roles of the different learners will need time to plan how to react to accusations from other learners and to reprimanding from the teacher.

[+ prior knowledge]:

No prior knowledge is provided to participants in the task instruction. However, because the task participants are student teachers it can be assumed that they will bring the prior knowledge about e.g. how to reprimand and discipline a class with them to the task. No other specific subject knowledge is required to perform this task successfully. For this reason the amount and nature of the prior knowledge needed to perform this task are such that it will not contribute to the participants' cognitive and attentional load during task performance. A classification of [+ prior knowledge] is therefore made.

[- single task]:

Task participants are expected to perform multiple tasks while performing the task. The participant in the role of the teacher has to plan how to reprimand the learners while listening to learners defending themselves and attempting to shift the blame to other learners. The participants in the roles of the learners have to plan ahead while speaking how to react to the teacher's reprimands and comments from other learners.

Based on the above classification of task characteristics this task is classified as most resembling quadrant 3 tasks in Robinson's (2005) framework. Except for the characteristics [+ few elements] and [- single task] all the dimensions of this task correspond with those posited by Robinson for quadrant 3 tasks. Typical quadrant three tasks provide learners with learning material that will be high in developmental complexity and low in performative complexity. Because of the classification of [+

few elements] and [- single task] awarded to this task, it will provide slightly lower developmental complexity and marginally higher performative complexity than typical quadrant 3 tasks as described by Robinson.

5.2.4.10.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of short communication segments. Most of the sentences in this dialogue are short, monoclausal sentences. Most of the multiple clause sentences that are found in this task will be analyzed below.

Sentences 1-3 are monoclausal sentences. Sentence 4 begins with the recent past tense clause **ukuba benisebenza** ("if you were working") after which follows the negative main clause **ngekungekho** ("there would not be"). Sentence 5 consists of two main clauses. First the imperative mood clause **yizani apha** ("you come here"), and then the negative present tense indicative mood clause **animameli** ("you are not listening").

Two main clauses are also found in sentence 12. The first is an imperative mood clause **thulani**, followed by a subjunctive mood clause indicating a successive action **nibuyele** ("you return to"). In sentence 17 the main clause is the contracted negative clause **sukufuna** ("don't want /stop wanting"), which takes an infinitive complement clause **ukufaka** ("to put/get"). This is followed by a further complement clause, the recent past tense indicative mood clause **ubugeza** ("you were naughty").

Sentence 20 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **niyayazi** ("you know") followed by three complement clauses. First the negative complement clause **ukuba anivumelekanga** ("that you are not allowed") and then the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba nidlale** ("that you play"). The third complement clause in sentence 20 is **sisebenza** ("we are working"), a present tense indicative mood complement clause.

Judging by the small number of sentences in this dialogue that consist of multiple clauses, the deduction can be made that this dialogue is syntactically relatively non-complex.

5.2.4.10.3 Salient Language Structures

The following constructions are crucial for the acquisition of the generic moves that were identified for this task:

[Giving instructions] and [Disciplining / Reprimanding learners]

Imperative:

Yizani apha ... ("Come here ...") (5)

Thulani! ("Quiet all!") (11)

Nonke, thulani nibuyele emsebenzini wenu. ("All of you, keep quiet and get back to your work.") (12)

Thula, Lungi. ("Quiet, Lungi.") (16)

Zisa apha laa nomyayi ngokukhawuleza. ("Bring that phone here immediately.") (24)

Hortative:

Ngoku wonke umntu, makabuyele emsebenzini wakhe. ("Now, everyone let's get back to work.") (26)

[Reasoning]

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba nonke benisebenza ngokwamaqela enu ngekungekho le ngxolo. ("If everyone was working there wouldn't be so much noise.") (4)

Although only a small number of salient constructions can be identified for this task, these constructions are nevertheless important for learners to acquire. These constructions should form this basis for the design of focus on form activities for this task.

5.2.4.11 Task 11

Uyaqaphela ukuba umfundi akonwabanga okanye uyalila. Yiya etafileni yakhe umbuze undonakele. Phendula ngokovelwano kule nkcazelo yalo mfundi ukuba kutheni eziva buhlungu kwaye wenze iinzame zokuba le ngxaki ingasombululeka kanjani.

You notice that a learner is looking upset or is crying. Walk to the learner's desk and ask the learner what is wrong. Respond sympathetically to the learner's explanation of why he or she is feeling bad and make suggestions about how the problem can be alleviated.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To enquire about learner's well being
- 2 To reassure learner and respond to his or her questions and statements
- 3 To provide suggestions for solving learner's problem

T = Teacher

L = Learner

T: (1) Edward, yintoni undonakele? (2) Kutheni ulila nje?
(1) Edward, what's wrong? (2) Why are you crying?
 [Requesting information]

L: (3) Akukho nto, Titshala.
(3) It's nothing, Miss.
 [Denying problem]

T: (4) Awusoze ukhale nje kanti akukho nto ikutyayo.
(4) Well, you wouldn't be crying if nothing was bothering you.
 [Reasoning with learner]

L: (5) Ndikhululekile, Titshala.
(5) I'm okay, Miss.

T: (6) Awukhangeleki njengomntu okhululekileyo apha kum, Edward.
(6) You don't look okay to me, Edward.

L: (7) Owu, Titshala. (8) Kunzima ukucacisa.
(7) Oh, Miss. (8) It's hard to explain.
 [Admitting to problem]

T: (9) Kulungile ke, qalisa ukuthetha. (10) Ndiyathemba ukuba uya kuziva ngcono xa undixelele ukuba yintoni undonakele.
(9) Well, just start talking. (10) I'm sure you'll feel better after you've told me what's wrong.
 [Reassuring learner]

- L: (11) Yinja yam, Titshala. (12) Ndicinga ukuba iza kufa.
(11) *It's my dog, Miss. (12) I think he's going to die.*
[Providing information]
- T: (13) Kutheni ucinga njalo? (14) Kwenzekela ntoni?
(13) *Why do you think that? (14) What happened?*
[Requesting further information]
- L: (15) Izolo ebusukuinja yam uMax iye yalwa kunye nenyeinja.
(15) *Last night my dog, Max, was in a fight with another dog.*
[Providing information]
- T: (16) Ingaba uMax uye walimala kulo mlo?
(16) *Was Max hurt in the fight?*
[Requesting further information]
- L: (17) Ewe, titshala. (18) Bekukho igazi elininzi. (19) Utata wam uye wathi laa nja imlume uMax kwiindawo ezininzi.
(17) *Yes, Miss. (18) There was a lot of blood. (19) My father said the other dog bit Max in several places.*
[Providing information]
- T: (20) Uye wamsa na kugqirha wezinja?
(20) *Did you take him to the vet?*
[Requesting further information]
- L: (21) Bekusele kuhlwile izolo, Titshala. (22) Utata uye wazama ukunqanda ukopha kodwa kuye kwafuneka simshiye endlwini yakhe xa sisiya kulala. (23) Bendikhathazekile khange ndikwazi ukulala, titshala. (24) Ndiye ndavusa umama wam wathi kufuneka simzise uMax ekhitshini. (25) Ndiye ndalala naye kwelo gumbi, titshala. (26) Ebegula kakhulu ngale ntsasa ngoku ndiza esikolweni.
(21) *It was too late last night, Miss. (22) My father tried to stop the bleeding but we had to leave him in his kennel when we went to bed. (23) I was so upset I couldn't sleep, Miss. (24) So I woke up my mother and she said we could bring Max into the kitchen. (25) I slept with him in the kitchen, Miss. (26) He was very sick this morning when I came to school.*
[Providing information]
- T: (27) Ngoku ingaba utata wakho uye wamsa kugqirha wezinja ngale ntsasa?
(27) *So did your father take him to the vet this morning?*
[Requesting further information]
- L: (28) Umama wam uye wamsa emva kokuba eshiye mna apha esikolweni, Titshala. (29) Inokuba ufile ngoku. (walila kwakhona)

- (28) *My mother took him after she dropped me off at school, Miss. (29) He might be dead by now. (crying again)*
[Providing information]
- T: (30) Hayi, Edward. (31) Ukuba uye wakwazi ukuphila izolo, ndiyathemba ukuba ugqirha wezinja uza kumlungisa. (32) Ugqirha wezinja uza kumthunga amphe namayeza.
(30) *No, Edward. (31) If he survived the night, then I'm sure the vet will fix him up. (32) The vet will give him some stitches and some medicine.*
[Reassuring learner of dog's well being]
- L: (33) Andikwazi ukulinda kude kufike le mva kwemini, titshala. (alile kwakhona) (34) Inokuba sele efile.
(33) *I can't wait until this afternoon, Miss. (more crying) (34) He might be dead already.*
[Expressing concern]
- T: (35) Kulungile, masenze icebo. (36) Uthi umama wakho umse kwagqirha ngale ntsasa emva kokuba eshiye wena apha esikolweni?
(35) *Okay, let's make a plan. (36) You said your mother took him to the vet this morning after she dropped you off here at school?.*
[Stating intention to take action]
- L: (37) Ewe, Titshala.
(37) *Yes, Miss.*
- T: (38) Bekuphambili kwentsimbi yesibhozo ngale ntsasa. (39) Ngoku kuphambili kwentsimbi yeshumi elinanye... (40) Ithini inombolo kamama wakho kanomyayi? (41) Ingaba uyayazi? (42) Masimtsalele umnxeba ngexesha lekhefu.
(38) *That was before 8 this morning. (39) It's now just before 11... (40) What is your mother's cell phone number? (41) Do you know it? (42) Let's phone her during break time.*
[Requesting information], [Making suggestion]
- L: (43) Singayenza loo nto, Titshala?
(43) *Can we do that, Miss?*
- T: (44) Ewe, xa intsimbi ikhala ngexesha lekhefu kufuneka sihambe kunye ukuya kwela gumbi lingaphambile. (45) Siza kukwazi ukufowunela umama wakho sive ukuba ingaba akukho ndaba na.
(44) *Yes, when the bell rings for break you come with me to the front office. (45) Then we can phone your mother and hear if there is any news.*
[Stating intended actions]
- L: (46) Nyhani, Titshala?
(46) *Really, Miss?*

- T: (47) Ewe, Edward.
(47) Yes, Edward.
- L: (48) Ndiyabulela, Titshala.
(48) *Oh thank you, Miss!*
[Expressing gratitude]
- T: (49) Nantso ke into efunekayo, ungaphinde ulile ngoku. Kulungile?
(49) *There you go, no more tears now. Okay?*
[Reassuring learner]
- L: (50) Kulungile, Titshala. (51) Ndiyabulela, Titshala.
(50) Okay, Miss. (51) Thank you, Miss.
[Expressing gratitude]
- T: (52) Wamkelekile. (53) Ngoku buyela emsebenzini, khawulezisa ugqibe le ndima. (54) Ushiyekelwe yimizuzu emine uqalise.
(52) *You're welcome. (53) Now get back to work, quickly finish this activity. (54) Only about 4 more minutes to go.*
[Instructing learner]
- L: (55) Ewe, Titshala. Ndiyabulela.
(55) *Yes, Miss. Thank you.*
[Expressing gratitude]

5.2.4.11.1 Cognitive complexity analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

Because the references to time and space in this task are few and relatively non-essential for the successful performance of this task, it is classified as [+ few elements]. Temporal references occur in sentences such as the following: 15 (**izolo ebusuku** / "last night"), 26 (**ngale ntsasa** / "this morning"), 28 (**ngoku** / "now") and 33 (**le mva kwemini** / "this afternoon"). Examples of spatial references are found in sentences such as the following: 25 (**ekhitshini** / "in the kitchen"), 26 (**esikolweni** / "to school") and 45 (**kwi-ofisi engaphambili** / "to the front office").

[- no reasoning]:

This task requires of the teacher to reason with the learner. Examples of reasoning are found in sentences such as the following: 4, 6, 10 and 31-32.

[- here-and-now]:

The participants in this task are required to refer to events that occurred at a different time and in a different physical setting. The learner has to describe events that took place at his home the previous night and the morning before school. Examples of the past tense are found in sentences 15, 17, 18-20, etc. Reference to future events are also found: e.g. sentences 11, 32 and 45.

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that learners will be given planning time prior to task performance. The participant in the role of the teacher will need to plan how to approach the learner not looking well. He or she would also have to plan how to respond to the learner's stated problem. The participant in the role of the learner will have to plan prior to task performance which health or personal problem he or she is going to mention to the teacher. This participant will also have to plan which details regarding the problem should be revealed.

[- prior knowledge]:

Participants are not provided with any background knowledge in the task instruction, e.g. why the learner is not feeling well, which suggestions to make in order to solve the learner's problem, or how to reassure the learner. Although the participants, as student teachers, will bring some prior knowledge with them to the task, e.g. how to reassure a learner who is upset, the number and the wide range of topics that the learner could raise in this conversation is such that the participant in the role of the teacher may experience great demands being made on his or her attentional resources. For this reason a classification of [- prior knowledge] is made for this task.

[- single task]:

This task requires of task participants to perform multiple tasks. While speaking, the participant in the role of the teacher will have to plan ahead, for example, how to encourage the learner to tell him or her what is wrong, how to reassure the learner and what to suggest to the learner about solving his problem. The participant taking the role of the learner will have to plan ahead regarding issues such as the following: while speaking, how not to provide all the information at once; which information to provide about the dog's injuries; and how to convey feeling concerned about the dog's well-being.

Given the above characteristics this task can be classified as most resembling quadrant 4 tasks in Robinson's framework. This implies that the above task will provide learning opportunities exhibiting high performative and also high developmental complexity. Because of the characteristics labeled [+ few elements] and [+ planning] the developmental and performative complexity of this task will be slightly lower than those of typical quadrant 4 tasks.

5.2.4.11.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of a combination of shorter and longer communication segments. Numerous examples of relatively complex syntactic structures are found, some of which will be analyzed below.

Sentence 1 consists of the copular clause **yintoni** ("it is what") followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **undonakele** ("is worrying??? you"). Sentence 2 is a monoclausal sentence featuring the present tense indicative mood main clause **ulila** ("you cry"). Sentence 4 starts with the main clause **awusoze ukhale** ("you never would cry"), consisting of the negative deficient verb **awusoze** ("you never") and the subjunctive mood verb **ukhale** ("you cry"). This is followed by the negative clause **kanti akukho** ("whereas there is not") featuring the negative verb **akukho** ("there is not"), and by a complement clause describing the noun **nto** ("thing"): **ikutyayo** ("it eats/bothers you").

Sentence 6 starts with the negative main clause **awukhangeleki njengomntu** ("you don't look like a person") followed by the relative complement clause **okhululekileyo** ("who is alright"). In sentence 9 the imperative mood main clause **qalisa** ("begin") is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukuthetha** ("to speak"). Sentence 10 begins with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyathemba** ("I am sure") followed by three complement clauses. The first complement clause is **ukuba uya kuziva** ("that you will feel"), featuring the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the future tense verb **uya kuziva** ("you will feel yourself"), which contains the reflexive morpheme **-zi-**. Sentence 11 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndicinga** ("I think") followed by the future tense complement clause **ukuba iza kufa** ("that he will die").

Sentence 21 consists of a single clause **bekusele kuhlwile** ("already it became late"), featuring the past tense deficient verb **bekusele** ("it was already") and the stative verb **kuhlwile** ("it was late"). Sentence 22 starts with the remote past tense clause **uye wazama** ("he tried") followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukunqnda ukhophha** ("to stop the bleeding"). This is followed by two further complement clauses. The first is the remote past tense clause **kodwa kuye kwafuneka simshiye** ("but it was necessary that we leave him"), consisting of the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"), the remote past tense deficient verb **kuye kwafuneka** ("it was necessary") and the subjunctive mood verb **simshiye** ("we leave him"). The final complement clause in sentence 22 is **xa sisiya kulala** ("when we went to sleep"), which consists of the conjunction **xa** ("when") and the situative deficient verb **sisiya** ("we went") and the infinitive verb **kulala** ("to sleep"). Sentence 23 starts with the recent past tense indicative mood main clause **bendikhathazekile** ("I was upset") followed by the negative complement clause **khange ndikwazi** ("I could not"), consisting of the negative deficient verb **khange** ("not at all") and the verb **ndikwazi** ("I know / could"). This is followed by a further infinitive clause **ukulala** ("to sleep"). Sentence 24 consists of two main clauses. First with the main clause **ndiye ndavuse** ("I then woke"), which is a remote past tense verb, and then the consecutive mood verb **wathi** ("she then said"). This second main clause takes the complement clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary that"), which is followed by the

subjunctive mood subordinate clause **simzise** ("we bring him"). Sentence 25 is a monoclausal sentence consisting of the remote past tense indicative mood clause **ndiya ndalala** ("I did I slept"). Sentence 26 starts with the recent past tense indicative mood clause **ebegula** ("he was sick") which is followed by a complement clause **ngoku ndiza** ("when I came"), consisting of the conjunction **ngoku** ("at the time when") and the situative mood verb **ndiza** ("I came").

Sentence 31 starts with the complement clause **ukuba uye wakwazi ukuphila** ("if he did he could survive"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"), the remote past tense verb **uye wakwazi** ("he could") and the infinitive verb **ukuphila** ("to be well / to survive"). This is followed by the main clause of sentence 31, **ndiyathemba** ("I am sure"), which in turn is followed by the complement clause **ukuba uza kumlungisa** ("that he will let him be alright"), which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("if") and the future tense indicative mood verb **uza kumlungisa** ("he will let him be alright / heal him"). Sentence 32 starts with the future tense indicative mood main clause **uza kumthunga** ("he will give him stitches") and the subjunctive mood subordinate clause **amphe** ("he give him") which denotes a successive action.

Sentence 33 starts with the main clause **andikwazi ukulinda** ("I can't wait"), which consists of the negative verb **andikwazi** ("I don't know / I can't") and the infinitive verb **ukulinda** ("to wait"). This is followed by a complement clause **kude kufike** ("until it arrives"), consisting of the deficient verb **kude** ("until") and the subjunctive mood verb **kufike** ("it arrives"). Sentence 34 consists of the complement clause **inokuba** ("perhaps") and the main clause **sele efile** ("already he has died"), which consists of the deficient verb **sele** ("already") and the main situative verb **efile** ("he has died").

Sentence 44 begins with the complement clause **xa ikhala** ("when it rings") which consists of the conjunction **xa** and the present tense indicative mood verb **ikhala** ("it rings"). This is followed by the main clause of sentence 44, **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"), which takes a subjunctive mood subordinate clause **sihambe** ("that we go"). This is followed by the infinitive complement clause **ukuya** ("to go"). In

sentence 45 the main clause is **siza kukwazi ukufowunela** ("we will be able to phone"), which consists of the future tense deficient verb **siza kukwazi** ("we will be able to") and the infinitive main clause verb **ukufowunela** ("to phone"). This is followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **sive** ("we hear/find out"), followed by a further complement clause **ukuba ingaba kukho** ("if perhaps there is").

Sentence 53 consists of the main clause, the imperative mood clause **buyela** ("return"), and the complement clause **khawulezisa ugqibe** ("quickly you finish"). Sentence 54 starts with the passive mood main clause **ushiyekelwe** ("you are left"), which is followed by subjunctive mood complement clause **uqalise** ("you start").

When comparing the sentences analyzed here for their syntactic complexity with the generic moves these sentences constitute, no correlation is found between specific generic moves and sentences with a relatively high degree of cognitive complexity.

5.2.4.11.3 Salient Language Structures

Judging by the large number of highly complex sentences that were identified above, it is evident that substantial focus on form activities would have to be designed for this task. Structures such as the following should be included:

[Requesting information]

Use of interrogatives:

Yintoni undonakele? ("What is upsetting you?) (1)

Kutheni ulila nje? ("Why are you crying?") (2)

Kutheni ucinga njalo? ("Why do you think so?) (13)

Kwenzekwe ntoni? ("What happened?") (14)

Ithini inombolo kamama wakho kanomyayi? ("What is your mother's cellphone number?") (40)

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba uMax uye walimala kulo mlo? ("Perhaps Max was injured in the fight?") (16)

Ngoku ingaba utata wakho uye wamsa kugqirha wezinja ngale ntsasa? ("So did your father take him to the vet this morning?") (27)

Ingaba uyayazi? ("Perhaps you know it?") (41)

[Providing information]

Use of Recent Past Tense:

Bekukho igazi elinzi. ("There was a lot of blood.") (18)

Bekusele kuhlwile izolo ... ("It was too late last night ...") (21)

Bendikhathazekile khange ndikwazi ukulala, titshala. ("I was so upset I couldn't sleep, sir.") (23)

Ebegula kakhulu ngale ntsasa ... ("He was very sick this morning...") (26)

Bekuphambili kwentsimbi yesibhozo ngale ntsasa. ("That was before 8 this morning.") (38)

Use of Remote Past:

Utata wam uye wathi la nja imlume uMax ... ("My father said that dog bit Max ...") (19)

Utata uye wazama ukunqanda ukopha ... ("My father tried to stop the bleeding...") (22)

Ndiye ndavusa umama wam ... ("I woke my mother ...") (24)

[Expressing inability]

Use of **-azi** + Infinitive:

... khange ndikwazi ukulala ... ("... I could not sleep ...") (23)

Andikwazi ukulinda kude kufike le mva kwemini ... ("I can't wait until this afternoon ...") (33)

[Making suggestions]

Use of the hortative mood:

Kulungile, masenze icebo. ("OK, let's make a plan.") (35)

[Giving instructions]

Use of the Imperative:

... **qalisa ukuthetha.** ("... start talking.") (9)

Ngoku buyela emsebenzini ... ("Now get back to work ...") (53)

[Reasoning]

Use of **kanti** ("if"):

Awusoze ukhale nje kanti akukho nto ikutyayo. ("You would not cry if nothing was bothering you.") (4)

Use of **xa** ("if") + subjunctive:

Ndiyathemba ukuba uya kuziva ngcono xa undixelele ukuba yintoni undonakele. ("I am sure you will feel better if you tell me what is wrong.") (10)

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba uye wakwazi ukuphila izolo, ndiyathemba ukuba ugqirha wezinja uza kumlungisa. ("If he survived yesterday, I am sure that the vet will fix him up.") (31)

[Expressing concern]

Use of **-khathazeka**:

Bendikhathazekile khange ndikwazi ukulala ... ("I was so upset I couldn't sleep ...") (23)

[Reassuring learner]

Nantso ke into efunekayo, ungaphinde ulile ngoku. ("There you go, no more tears now.") (49)

The above constructions are vital for the acquisition of the generic moves identified for this task and should therefore be included in focus on form activities for this task. These focus on form activities will create opportunities for learners to notice the important constructions and will create opportunities for practice and repetition.

5.2.4.12 Task 12

Ungutitshala wenqanaba labasaqalayo. Kwiziganeko ezisandulukwehla zobundlobongela kwingingqi yesikolo sakho, ugqibe kwelokuba ube nengxoxo nabafundi bakho malunga nokhuseleko.

You are a Foundation Phase teacher. In the light of the recent incidents of crime in the area of your school, you decide to have a discussion with your learners about safety.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To instruct learners about personal safety matters and to respond to their question and statements regarding this topic

T = Teacher

L1, L2, etc. = different learners

T: (1) Hlalani phantsi, bafundi. (2) Ndifuna nizokuhlala apha phantsi ukuze siza kuthetha obaluleke kakhulu.

(1) Settle down, class. (2) I want you to come and sit on the mat so that we can talk about something very important.

[Instructing class]

T: (3) Kulungile, wonke umntu makamamele. (4) Ingaba ukhona umntu othe weva ngokwenzekileyo epaka ekujikeleni kwekona izolo?

(3) Right, now pay attention everyone. (4) Did any of you hear what happened yesterday in the park around the corner?

[Instructing class to pay attention], [Requesting information about recent event]

L1: (5) Kula nkwenkwe ikwibanga lesithandathu, titshala?

(5) To that boy in Grade 6, Miss?

[Requesting further information]

T: (6) Ewe, kuHarry Solomon. (7) Noba ngubani? (8) Izandla phezulu, ndiyanicela. (9) Jason, uve ntoni wena?

(6) Yes, to Harry Solomon. (7) Anyone? (8) Hands up, please. (9) Jason, what did you hear?

L2: (10) Ndive into yokuba uye waphangwa waphinda wahlaselwa, titshala.

(10) I heard he was robbed and attacked, Miss.

[Relating information about recent incident of crime]

L3: (11) Ewe, uye wabethwa bathatha zonke izinto zakhe.

(11) Yes, he was beaten up and they took all his stuff.

[Providing information]

- L4: (12) Uthe usisi wam uye wahlatywa ngemela.
(12) *My sister says he was stabbed with a knife.*
[Relaying information about incident]
- T: (13) Hayi, Julia, ngethamsanqa akakhange ade ahlatywe. (14) Kodwa abahlaseli bamoyikisile ngemela.
(13) *No, Julia, luckily he wasn't stabbed. (14) But the attackers did threaten him with a knife.*
[Correcting learner]
- L2: (15) Titshala, ndivile ukuba akakhange azilwelwe nokuzilwela kubo. (16) Ubanike nje ibhegi yakhe inemali yakhe nomnxeba wakhe! (17) Uyimofi! (18) Bendiza kubakhaba ndibabethe ngebhegi le yam entloko.
(15) *Miss, I heard that he didn't even fight back. (16) He just gave them his bag with all his money and his cell phone! (17) What a sissy! (18) I would have kicked them and hit them on the head with my bag.*
[Providing information], [Making suggestion]
- L4: (19) Unomlomo omkhulu, heyi! (20) Bendingenakuzama nokulwa nabo mna, titshala.
(19) *You've got a big mouth, hey! (20) I wouldn't have tried to fight with them, Miss.*
[Stating opinion]
- L2: (21) Ngenxa yokuba uyintombazana. (22) Titshala thina makhwenkwe somelele, siyakwazi ukulwa nabaphangi. (23) Ungabakhaba kooxhongo uphinde ubakhabe esiswini.
(21) *It's just because you're a girl. (22) Miss, us boys are tough, we know how to fight robbers. (23) You can kick them on their shins and hit them in the stomach.*
[Stating opinion and ability to take action]
- L3: (24) Ewe, uqale ubakhabe uphinde ubabethe. (25) Ubabetha ngenqindi apha esiswini kuqala uphinde ubabethe entloko. (26) Ubakhabe kwakhona.
(24) *Yes, first you kick them and then you hit them. (25) You punch them in the stomach first and then you hit them over the head. (26) Then you kick them again!*
[Stating procedure in successive steps]
- T: (27) Kulungile, masingaphumi kakhulu kwinto esiyithethayo. (28) Ndifuna sithethe ngokwenzeke kuHarry. (29) Nicinga ukuba ikhona into esinokuyenza ukukhusela izinto ezifana nezi zenzeke kuthi?
(27) *OK, let's not get too carried away. (28) I want us to talk about what happened to Harry. (29) Do you think there is anything we can do to prevent something like that happening to us?*
[Calming learner], [Stating topic of discussion], [Eliciting information from class]

- L1: (30) Akufunekanga ukuba uhambe nomnxeba wakho esithubeni, titshala. (31) Bonke abahlaseli bakukubona ukuba unomnxeba.
(30) You shouldn't walk around with your cell phone, Miss. (31) Then all the robbers can see you have a cell phone.
 [Providing information], [Stating result of walking with cell phone visible]
- T: (32) Ewe, Simphiwe. (33) Akufunekanga ukuba sibonise abanye abantu ukuba sinezinto ezibalulekileyo. (34) Ukuba unomnxeba okanye imali kuwe, kufuneka uyigcine ezipokothweni okanye ebhegini.
(32) Yes, Simphiwe. (33) We should not let other people see that we have valuable things with us. (34) If you have a cell phone or money with you, you should keep it in your pockets or in your bag.
 [Stating agreement], [Rephrasing information previously provided]
- L3: (35) Ewe, okanye umculo we-MP3. (36) Abantu basoloko befuna ukuba izinto ezinjalo.
(35) Yes, or your MP3 player. (36) People always want to steal things like that.
 [Providing further examples of valuable items], [Stating habitual action]
- T: (37) Ewe, kunjalo, bafundi. (38) Kufuneka singabavumeli abanye abantu babone ukuba siphethe izinto ezibalulekileyo. (39) Okanye mhlawumbi kufuneka singaphathi kwanto ebalulekileyo. (40) Ngoku, bafundi, ingaba ikhona enye into esingayenza ukuze into enje ngale ingaphindi yenzeke kuthi. (41) Ucinga ntoni ? (42) Julia.
(37) Yes, that's right, class. (38) So we should not let other people see that we are carrying valuable things. (39) Or perhaps we shouldn't even carry valuable things with us. (40) Now, class, is there anything else that you think we can do so that something like this doesn't happen to us. (41) What do you think? (42) Julia.
 [Requesting information]
- L4: (43) Titshala, umama wam uthi ndingaze ndigoduke ndedwa. (44) Kufuneka ndilinde ubhuti wam qho.
(43) Miss, my mother says I should never walk home alone. (44) I always have to wait for my brother.
 [Relating command], [Expressing necessity]
- T: (45) Ewe, kunjalo, bafundi. (46) Ukuba nihamba nibabini okanye nibathathu amathuba okuba abahlaseli banihlasele mancinci. (47) Yintoni enye?
(45) Yes, that's right, class. (46) If two or three of you are walking together the chances are smaller that criminals will approach you. (47) What else?
 [Stating agreement, Reasoning: statement of condition, requesting further information]
- L3: (48) Utata wam usoloko esithi mandibe sendlwini kungekabi mnyama. (49) Izihange ziyakuthanda ukusebenza ebusuku, Titshala.

(48) *My father always says I must always be home before dark.* (49) *Gangsters like working at night, Miss.*

[Expression of habitual statement, indirect command, expression of preference]

T: (50) Kunjalo. (51) Ebusuku abanye abantu abanakusibona ukuba sihlaselwe. (52) Akufunekanga nokuba sihambe kwiindawo ezisentlango, njengokuhamba wedwa ematyholweni ecaleni kwendlela okanye kwihlathi elisemva kwesikolo. (53) Apho abanye abantu abasokuze basibone ukuba siyahlaselwa, kwaye akukho mntu unokusinceda. (54) Niyavuma, bafundi?

(50) *That's right.* (51) *In the dark other people can't see if we are attacked.* (52) *We should also not go to deserted areas, like walking alone into the bushes next to the road or the forest behind the school.* (53) *There other people can't see if we are attacked, and there will be no one to help us.* (54) *Do you agree, class?*

[Providing further information], [Requesting agreement]

All: (55) Ewe, Titshala.

Bonke: (55) *Yes, Miss.*

[Stating agreement]

T: (56) Bafundi, kuqala sithethe ngokulwa izihange. (57) Ingaba ucinga ukuba kulungile ukulwa nezihange?

(56) *Class, earlier we talked about fighting off the robbers.* (57) *Do you think it is good to fight with robbers?*

[Introducing new point of discussion], [Asking opinion of learners]

L2: (58) Ewe, Titshala. (59) Kufuneka ulwe nazo.

(58) *Yes, Miss.* (59) *You must fight them!*

[Stating opinion]

T: (60) Ingaba nonke niyavumelana?

(60) *Do you all agree with that?*

[Enquiring whether class agrees with previous statement]

Abanye abafundi: (61) Hayi, Titshala.

Some learners: (61) *No, Miss.*

T: (62) Ngoba kutheni? (63) Kutheni kungalunganga ukulwa nabo?

(62) *Why not?* (63) *Why is not always good to fight back?*

[Requesting reason]

L1: (64) Izihange zingakulimaza, Titshala. (65) Ukuba ubanika le nto bayifunayo, abasokuze bakulimaze. (66) Kodwa ukuba awubaniki ezo zinto, baya kuzifumana ngokukulimaza.

(64) *The robbers can hurt you, Miss.* (65) *If you give them what they want, they won't hurt you.* (66) *But if you don't give them the stuff, they will hurt you to get it.*

[Reasoning: Argument exemplification][Expression of condition]

T: (67) Kunjalo. (68) Ootsotsi bakhulu kwaye bomelele kunawe. (69) Ukuba ubanika oko bakufunayo, amathuba okuba bakulimaze awabikho. (70) Niyavumelana?
(67) That's right. (68) The robbers are bigger and stronger than you. (69) If you give them what they ask, the chances are good that they won't hurt you. (70) Do you agree?
 [Stating agreement], [Reasoning: Argument exemplification], [Asking whether learners agree]

Abafundi: (70) Ewe, Titshalakazi.

Class: *(70) Yes, Miss.*

[Stating agreement]

T: (71) Ngoku, masithetheni ngezinye izinto zokukhuseleko. (72) Ngeziphizinye izinto ezibalulekileyo ngokhuseleko esinokucinga ngazo?
(71) Now, let's talk about some other things about safety. (72) What other things are important if we think about safety?
 [Indicating start of new topic of discussion], [Asking learners for further aspects of safety]

L4: (73) Kufuneka ukhale ukuba ubona abantu abazokukhulasela, Titshala.
(73) You must scream if you see people are going to attack you, Miss.
 [Stating safety hint]

T: (74) Ewe, kunjalo. (75) Ukuba uyangxola, abanye abantu baza kukujonga futhi kungoyikisa ootsotsi babaleke. (76) Ngeyiphizinye into esinokuyenza?
(74) Yes, that's right. (75) If you make noise, other people will come looking and that might scare the attackers away. (76) What else should we do?
 [Stating agreement], [Elaborating on learner's safety hint], [Requesting information]

L3: (77) Ukuba ubona abantu endleleni abajongeka ngathi ngootsotsi kufuneka uxelele abazali bakho uphinde utsalele amapolisa umnxeba, Titshala.
(77) If you see people in the street that look like criminals you must tell your parents and you must phone the police, Miss.
 [Stating further safety hint]

L1: (78) Ewe, utata wam wandixelela inombolo, Titshala. (79) Utsalela u-10111, amapolisa aya kuza.
(78) Yes, my father taught me the number, Miss. (79) You must phone 10111, then the police will come.
 [Providing further information]

T: (80) Ewe, kunjalo. (81) Inombolo zithi 10111. (82) Ziphindeneni emva kwam bafundi, 10111.

(80) Yes, that right. (81) The number is 10111. (82) Repeat after me class, 10111.

[Stating agreement], [Repeating information], [Instructing class to repeat information]

Abafundi: (83) 10111.

Class: (83) 10111.

T: (84) Ingaba niyazazi ezinye iinombolo ezingxamisekileyo?

(84) Do you know any other emergency numbers?

[Requesting further information]

Abafundi: (85) Hayi, Titshala.

Class: (85) No, Miss.

T: (86) Ungatsalela inombolo ethi 107 kwinombolo yendlu. (87) Leyo yinombolo engxamisekileyo yesixeko saseKapa. (88) Ukuba unomnxeba wesandla, ungatsalela u-112. (89) U-112 yinombolo engxamisekileyo ongayitsalela kumnxeba wesandla.

(86) You can also dial 107 from a landline. (87) That is the emergency number for the City of Cape Town. (88) If you have a cell phone with you, you can dial 112. (89) 112 is the emergency number to dial from a cell phone.

[Expressing ability, providing further information about emergency telephone numbers]

T: (90) Kulungile, ngezphi iinombolo ezintathu ongazitsalela ngexesha lengxaki.

(90) Right, so what are the three numbers we can dial in case of an emergency?

[Requesting information]

L1: (91) 10111.

(91) 10111.

L2: (92) Ewe, kunye no 107!

(92) Yes, and 107!

L4: (93) Kumnxeba wesandla kufuneka utsalele u-112, Titshala.

(93) And from a cell phone you must dial 112, Miss.

T: (94) Kwakuhle ke, bafundi. (95) Khumbulani ukungahambi nodwa, ingakumbi ebusuku, nokukhala nikhwaze kangangoko ninako ukuba niyahlaselwa. (96) Kwakhona nikhumbule ukuba kungcono nibanike abahlaseli oko bakufunayo. (97) Ubomi benu bubaluleke nokodlala umnxeba wesandla. (98) Kulungile, bafundi, seyilixesha lokuba intsimbi ikhale. (99) Khawulezisani nibhale phantsi umsebenzi wasekhaya wangomso niqinisekise ukuba nipakishe zonke iincwadi zenu.

(94) *That's very good, class.* (95) *So remember not to go out alone, especially not after dark, and to scream and shout as loudly as you can if you are attacked.* (96) *Also remember that it is better to give the attackers what they want.* (97) *Your life is worth much more than a cell phone.* (98) *Okay, class, it's almost time for the bell to ring.* (99) *Quickly write down the homework for tomorrow and make sure that you pack all your books.*

[Complimenting class], [Repeating main points of discussion], [Instructing class]

5.2.4.12.1 Cognitive complexity analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

Despite some references to time and space that occur in this task, it is classified as [+ few elements]. The temporal and spatial references that do occur are few and occur in isolation, which makes it unnecessary for participants to distinguish between different elements. Examples of temporal references are: 4 (**izolo** / "yesterday") 48, (**kungekabi mnyama** / "before dark") and 49 (**ebusuku** / "at night"). Spatial references are found in sentences such as the following: sentence 4 (*epaka* / "in the park"), sentence 5 (**ikwibanga lesithandathu** / "in grade 6), 34 (**ezipokothweni okanye ebhegini** / "in your pockets or in your bag") and 77 (**endleleni** / "in the street").

[- no reasoning]:

In order to perform this task successfully participants will have to make use of reasoning. Examples of reasoning are, for example, found in sentences 65 and 69, in which the teacher states what the results of certain actions will be. In sentence 65 and 69 the participant in the role of the teacher reasons with the learners by telling them that if they give the assailants that they want, they probably would not be hurt.

[- here-and-now]:

This task requires of participants to refer to events that happen in the past and the future, and also in other physical contexts than that in which the task is performed. Examples of the past are found in sentences 4 (**umntu othe weva** / "did anyone hear"), 9 (**uve ntoni** / "what did you hear") and 11 (**uye wabethwa** / "he was beaten"). References to other physical contexts are found in sentences such as the following: sentence 4 (**epaka** / "in the park") and 77 (**endleleni** / "in the street").

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this task it is assumed that participants will be given planning time prior to task performance. The participant taking the role of the teacher will have to plan how to approach the topic of discussion (personal safety) with the learners, which aspects of personal safety to discuss and what information would be appropriate for learners of this age. The participants in the roles of the learners would need time to plan their reactions to what the teacher tells them and to what other learners say.

[- prior knowledge]:

No prior knowledge is provided to participants in the task instruction. A considerable amount of prior knowledge is needed to perform this task successfully. The participant in the role of the teacher will need knowledge about safety hints applicable to Foundation Phase learners, as well as knowledge such as different emergency numbers learners should be made aware of. Given the fact that the participants are adult student teachers it can be assumed that they would bring some prior knowledge with them to the task. However, given the wide range of knowledge needed and the fact that this knowledge has to be presented in a manner suitable for Foundation Phase learners, this task is classified as [- prior knowledge]. Evaluated on a continuum, the amount and the nature of the prior knowledge needed to perform this task successfully is seen as contributing to the performative complexity of the task. Hence the classification of [- prior knowledge].

[- single task]:

This task requires of participants to perform multiple tasks. The teacher will have to plan ahead during task performance how to best instruct learners about issues of safety, while providing opportunity for the learners to contribute to the discussion.

Based on the characteristics identified above, this task can be classified as a quadrant 4 task. With the exception of [+ few elements] and [+ planning], all the cognitive characteristics of this task correspond with those set out by Robinson (2005) for quadrant 4 tasks. This has the implication that this task will provide learning opportunities and demands relating to both high performative and high developmental complexity.

5.2.4.12.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of a combination of shorter monoclausal sentences and longer , more syntactically complex sentences. The turns in the conversation also range from short, one-sentence questions or statements to longer explanations by the participant in the role of the teacher and the participants taking the roles of the learners. In what follows a random selection of the more complex sentences will be analyzed for their syntactic complexity.

In sentence 2 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndifuna** ("I want") takes a future tense complement clause **nizokuhlala** ("you will sit"). This is followed by a further complement clause, **ukuze sizokuthetha**, consisting of the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that") and the contracted future tense verb **sizokuthetha** ("we will talk"). Sentence 2 ends with a relative clause **obaluleke** ("that which is important").

Sentence 4 starts with the complement clause **ingaba ukhona** ("perhaps there is") followed by the main clause **othe weva** ("who heard"), consisting of the relative mood deficient verb **othe** ("that did") and the consecutive verb **weva** ("heard").

In sentence 10 the past tense indicative mood main clause **ndive** ("I heard") is followed by three consecutive mood complement clauses. The first, **uye waphangwa** ("he did he was robbed"), consisting of the deficient verb **uye** ("he did") and the passive consecutive verb **waphangwa** ("he was robbed"). This is followed by two further consecutive mood complement clauses **waphinda wahlaselwa** ("he further he was attacked"). In sentence 11 the main clause **uye wabethwa** ("he did he was beaten") is followed by a consecutive mood clause **bathatha** ("then they took").

Sentence 15 begins with the perfectum indicative mood main clause **ndivile** ("I heard") followed by the complement clause **ukuba akakhange azilwelwe** ("that he did not himself fight"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") followed by the negative deficient verb **akakhange** ("he did not") and the verb **azilwelwe** ("he himself fight"), which features the reflexive particle **za**. Sentence 15 concludes with a further complement clause, the infinitive clause **nokuzilwela** ("and to fight for himself"). Sentence 18 starts with the recent past tense verb describing a future action **bendiza kubakhaba** ("I would have kicked them"), followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause indicating a successive action **ndibabethe** ("I beat them").

Sentence 21 starts with the conjunction **ngenxa yokuba** ("because") which introduces the copular main clause **uyintombazana** ("you are a girl"). Sentence 22 consists of two main clauses. First the stative verb **somelele** ("we are tough") and then the present tense indicative mood main clause **siyakwazi** ("we know"). This is followed by the infinitive complement **ukulwa** ("to fight"). Sentence 23 also consists of two main clauses: first the present tense indicative mood clause **ungabakhaba** ("you can kick them"), featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-** ("can"), and then **uphinde ubakhabe** ("you also you kick them").

Sentence 27 starts with the negative hortative mood main clause **masingaphumi** ("let us not go out / carry on") followed by a relative mood complement clause **esiyithethayo** ("that which we spoke about"). Sentence 28 begins with the present

tense indicative mood main clause **ndifuna** ("I want"), followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **sithethe** ("we talk"). In sentence 29 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndicinga** ("I think") is followed by the complement clause **ukuba ikhona** ("that there is"). This is followed by the complement clause **esinokuyenza** ("that we can do it"), which is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukukhusela** ("to prevent"). Sentence 29 is concluded by two further complement clauses: first the relative clause **ezifana** ("that is like/similar"), and lastly the subjunctive mood clause **zenzeke** ("it happens").

Sentence 33 begins with the negative main clause **akufunekanga** ("it is not desirable / we ought not") followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba sibonise** ("that we show/let see") and, similarly, **ukuba sinezinto** ("that we have things"). Sentence 34 starts with the complement clause **ukuba unomnxeba** ("if you have a cellphone"), after which follows the main clause **kufuneka** and a subjunctive mood subordinate clause **uyigcine** ("it is necessary you keep it").

Sentence 38 consists of the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") followed by a negative subjunctive mood subordinate clause **singabavumeli** ("we don't let"), after which follows the subjunctive mood complement clause **babone** ("they see"). After this follows the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba siphethe** ("that we carry"). Sentence 39 starts with the complement clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"), after which follows the negative subjunctive mood main clause **singaphaphathi** ("we don't carry"). Sentence 40 starts with the main clause **ingaba ikhona** ("perhaps there is"), which consists of the deficient verb **ingaba** ("it can be") and the verb **ikhona** ("there is"). This is followed by two complement clauses. The first complement clause is the relative clause **esingayenze** ("that we can do"), featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-**. The second clause is **ukuze ingaphindi yenzeke** ("so that it does not also happen"), featuring the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that"), the negative deficient verb **ingaphindi** ("it is not repeated/also") and the subjunctive mood verb **yenzeke** ("it happens").

In sentence 48 the main situative clause **esithi** ("he says") is introduced by the deficient verb **usoloko** ("he always"). This is followed by the hortative complement clause **mandibe sendlwini** ("let me be at home") and the negative complement clause **kungekabi mnyama** ("it is not yet dark"). In sentence 49 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ziyakuthanda** ("they like it") is followed by the infinitive complement clause **ukusebenza** ("to work").

Sentence 51 starts with the negative infinitive main clause **abanokusibona** ("they can't see us") followed by the subjunctive complement clause **ukuba sihlaselwe** ("if we are attacked"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the passive verb **sihlaselwe** ("we are attacked"). Sentence 52 begins with the main negative clause **akufunekanga** ("it is not wanted / should not"), followed by the subjunctive complement clause **nokuba sihambe** ("that we go"), featuring the conjunction **nokuba** ("that") and the subjunctive mood verb **sihambe** ("we go"). This is followed by the complement clause **njengokuhamba** ("like walking"). Sentence 53 starts with the negative complement clause **abasokuze** ("they will not be able to"), followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **basibone** ("they see us"), which is the first of two main clauses in the sentence. This is followed by the complement clause **ukuba siyahlaselwa** ("that we are attacked"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the passive verb **siyahlaselwa** ("we are attacked"). This is followed by the second main clause of sentence 53, **kwaye akukho** ("and also there is not"), which takes the infinitive complement clause **unokusinceda** ("who can help us").

Sentence 65 consists of 2 complement clauses preceding the main clause. The first complement clause is the present tense indicative mood clause **ukuba ubanike** ("if you give them") and the second is the relative mood clause **bayifunayo** ("that they want"). The main clause in sentence 65 is **abasokuze bakulimaze** ("they will not hurt you"), consisting of the negative deficient verb **abasokuze** ("they will not") and the main verb **bukulimaze** ("they hurt you"), which is a subjunctive mood verb. Sentence 66 starts with the complement clause **kodwa ukuba awubaniki** ("but if you don't give them") which consists of the conjunction **kodwa** and **ukuba** ("but"

and "if"), and the negative present tense indicative mood verb **awubaniki** ("you don't give them"). This is followed by the future tense indicative mood main clause **baya kuzifumana** ("they will get it"), which takes an infinitive complement clause **ngokukulimaza** ("by hurting you") featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-**.

Sentence 73 starts with the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary/you must"), followed by **ukhale** ("you must scream"), which consists of the deficient verb ("it is necessary / you must") and the subjunctive mood verb **ukhale** ("you scream"). The main clause takes an indicative mood complement clause **ukuba ubona** ("if you see"). In sentence 75 the main clause is preceded by the complement clause **ukuba uyangxola** ("if you make noise"). The main clause in sentence 75 is the contracted future tense clause **baza kukujonga** ("they will look for you"). This is followed by two complement clauses: the complement clause **kungoyikisa** ("often it could scare") and the subjunctive mood clause **babaleke** ("then they run"), which denotes a successive action.

Sentence 77 consists of two complement clauses preceding the main clause and one complement clause following after the main clause. The first complement clause is the present tense indicative mood clause **ukuba ubona** ("if you see") and the second is the relative clause **abajongeka** ("that look like"). The main clause in sentence 77 is **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") followed by the subjunctive mood subordinate clause **uxelele** ("you tell"), which is followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **uphinde utsalele** ("and also you phone").

The main clause in sentence 86, **ungatsalela** ("you can phone/dial"), is followed by a relative mood complement clause **ethi** ("which says"). In sentence 88 the main clause is preceded by the complement clause **ukuba unomnxeba wesandla** ("if you have a cellphone"). The main clause in sentence 88 is **ungatsalela** ("you can phone/dial"). Sentence 89 starts with the copular main clause **yinombolo** ("it is the number"), which is followed by a relative mood complement clause **ongayitsalela** ("that you can dial").

Sentence 95 starts with the imperative mood complement clause **khumbulani** ("you remember") followed by a negative infinitive mood main clause **ukungahambi** ("not to walk"). This is followed by two further main clauses: first the infinitive clause **nokukhala** ("and to scream"), and then the subjunctive mood main clause **nikhwaze** ("you shout"). This is followed by the complement clause **ninako ukuba nyahlaselwa** ("if it happens that you are attacked"), which features the passive verb **nyahlaselwa** ("you are attacked"). Sentence 96 begins with the imperative mood main clause **nikhumbule** ("you remember"), followed by three complement clauses. The first is **ukuba kungcono** ("that it is better"), followed by the subjunctive mood clause **nibanike** ("you give them"), after which follows the relative mood clause **bakufunayo** ("that they want from you"). Sentence 97 starts with the main clause **kubaluleke** ("it is important") followed by the complement clause **nokudlala** ("than playing"). The main clause of sentence 98 **seyilixesha** ("already it is time") is a copular clause featuring the deficient verb **se** ("already"). This main clause is followed by the subjunctive mood clause **ikhale** ("it rings"). Sentence 99 starts with the complement clause **khawulezisani** ("you quickly"), followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **nibhale** ("you write"). This is followed by a second main clause **niqinisekise** ("you make sure"), which is also a subjunctive mood clause. This second main clause is followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba nipakishe** ("that you pack").

It is clear from the above analysis that this dialogue consists of a large number of sentences with a relatively high degree of syntactic complexity.

5.2.4.12.3 Salient Language Structures

Structures such as those listed below are crucial for the acquisition of the generic moves identified for this task:

[Indicating topic of discussion]

Use of **-thetha** ("speak") + **-nga** ("about"):

Ndifuna sithethe ngokwenzeke kuHarry. ("I want us to talk about what happened to Harry.") (28)

Use of the hortative mood:

Masithetheni ngezinye izinto zokukhuseleko. ("Let us talk about some other things about safety.") (71)

[Giving instructions]

Use of the imperative mood:

Hlalani phantsi, bafundi. ("Sit down, learners.") (1)

Khumbulani ukungahambi nodwa... ("Remember not to walk alone ...") (95)

Use of the subjunctive mood:

Ziphindeni emva kwam ... ("Repeat after me ...") (82)

Use of **-cela** ("to ask/please"):

Izandla phezulu, ndiyanicela. ("Hands up, I'm asking you all/please") (8)

Use of the **-funa** + infinitive:

Ndifuna nizokuhlala apha ... ("I want you to come sit here ...") (2)

Use of the hortative:

Kulungile, wonke umntu makamamele. ("OK, pay attention everyone.") (3)

[Requesting information]

Use of **Ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba ukhona umntu othe weva...("Perhaps there is anyone who heard...") (4)

Ingaba ikhona enye into esingayenza ukuze ... ("Is there anything else we can do so that ...") (40)

Ingaba ucinga ukuba kulungile ukulwa nezihange? ("Do you think it is a good idea to fight with robbers?") (57)

Ingaba nonke niyavumelana? ("Do you all agree?") (60)

Ingaba niyazazi ezinye iinombolo ezingxamisekileyo? ("Do you know any other emergency numbers?") (84)

Use of **-va-** ("to hear"):

Jason, uve ntoni wena? ("Jason, what did you hear?") (9)

Use of interrogatives:

Ngez^uziphi ezinye izinto ezibalulekileyo ngokhuseleko esingokucinga ngazo? ("What other things are important if we think about safety?") (72)

Ngez^uziphi iinombolo ezintathu ongazitsalela ngexesha lengxaki? ("What are the three numbers we can dial in case of an emergency?") (90)

Ngoba kutheni? ("Why not?") (62)

Kutheni kungalunganga ukulwa nabo? ("Why is not good to fight with them?") (63)

[Providing information]

Use of **-va** ("to hear"):

Ndive into yokuba uye waphangwa waphinda wahlaselwa. ("I heard he was robbed and attacked.") (10)

Ndivile ukuba akakhange azilwelwe nokuziwlela kubo. ("I heard he didn't even fight back.") (15)

Use of **-thi** ("to say"):

Uthe usisi wam uye wahlatywa ngemela. ("My sister said that he was stabbed with a knife.") (12)

[Making suggestions]

Use of potential **-nga-** ("can"):

Ungabakhaba kooxhongo ... ("You can kick them on their shins ...") (23)

[Expressing necessity]

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"):

... kufuneka uyigcine ezipokothweni ... ("... you must keep it in your pockets ...") (34)

Kufuneka ndilinde ubhuthi wam qho. ("It is necessary that I always wait for my brother.") (44)

Kufuneka ulwe nazo. ("It is necessary / you must fight them.") (59)

Kufuneka ukhale ukuba ubona abantu ... ("You must scream if you see people ...") (73)

[Reasoning: condition]

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba nihamba nibabini okanye nibathathu amathuba okuba abahlaseli banihlasele mancinci. ("If 2 or 3 of you walk together the chances are smaller that criminals will approach you.") (46)

Ukuba ubanika le nto bayifunayo, abasokuze bakulimaze. ("If you give them what they want, they won't hurt you.") (65)

Ukuba uyangxola, abanye abantu baza kukujonga futhi kungoyikisa outsotsi babaleke. ("If you make noise, other people will come looking and that might scare the attackers away.") (75)

[Stating ability]

Use of **-azi** ("to know"):

... siyakhwazi ukulwa nabaphangi. ("... we know how to fight robbers.") (22)

[Expressing habitual action]

Use of **-soloko** ("always") + situative mood:

Abantu basoloko befuna ukuba izinto ezinjalo. ("People always want to steal things like that.") (36)

Utata wam usoloko esithi ndibobasendlwini kungekabi mnyama. ("My father always says I must be home before dark.")

[Indicating successive actions]

Use of the subjunctive mood:

Uqale ubakhabe uphinde ubabethe. ("You first kick them and then you hit them.") (24)

Ubabetha ngenqindi apha esiswini kuqala uphinde ubabethe entloko. ("You hit them in the stomach and then you hit them over the head.") (25)

Khawulezani nibhale phantsi umsebenzi wasekhaya wangomso niqinisekise ukuba nipakishe zonke iincwadi zenu. ("Quickly write down the homework for tomorrow and make sure that you pack all your books.") (99)

Salient language features such as those listed above should be included in focus on form activities designed for this task with the aim of providing learners with opportunities to practice and reinforce important structures.

5.2.4.13 Task 13

Ungutitshala wesikolo samabanga aphantsi. Umfundi okwigumbi lebanga lesihlanu usokoliswa ngumsebenzi wakhe kwaye ucela uncedo lwakho.

You are a primary school teacher. A learner in your Grade 7 class is struggling with his work and asks your help.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To assist learner with homework and to respond to his/her questions and statements about the matter

T = Teacher

G = George, a learner

T: (1) George, ingaba kumaxa undawoni nomsebenzi wakho?
(1) *George, how are you getting on with the homework?*
[Enquiring about learner's progress]

G: (2) Akukho nto ibhetele, Titshala. (3) Andiyazi eyona nto kufuneka ndiyenzile apha. (4) Andiqinisekanga nokuba lo msebenzi ulungile na?
(2) *Not good, Miss.* (3) *I don't really know what to do here.* (4) *I'm not sure if this is right?*
[Stating uncertainty], [Requesting assistance]

T: (5) Yiza ndibone. (6) Ngeyiphi inombolo oxakeke yiyo ngoku?
(5) *Let me see.* (6) *Which number are you busy with now?*
[Requesting information]

G: (7) Ndenza inombolo 5, Titshala.
(7) *I'm doing nr 5, Teacher.*
[Providing information]

- T: (8) Kulungile, le mibini imibuzo yokuqala ilungile, kodwa jonga inombolo 5.3. (9) Ayinakuba yeyona ilungileyo. (10) Bakubuza ntoni apha? (11) Masifunde lo mbuzo kwakhona.
(8) Ok, the first two questions are right, but look at number 5.3. (9) That can't be right. (10) What are they asking you here? (11) Let's read the question again carefully.
 [Commenting on correctness of work], [Requesting information], [Instructing learner]
- G: (12) Bandibuza ukuba ingaba uMnumzana Dala yimalini ayikolotayo kwikhadi lakhe lesikwelito. (13) Ngoko ke ndijonge apho ithi: Imali efaniselwe ibhatalwe ngoku. (14) Phaya imali yi-R530. (15) Ingaba yimpendulo elungileyo leyo, Titshala?
(12) They are asking me how much Mr Dala owes on his credit card. (13) So I looked here where it says: Amount payable now. (14) The amount there is R530. (15) So is that the right answer, Miss?
 [Providing details of exercise], [Asking whether interpretation of facts is correct]
- T: (16) Hayi, George. (17) Leyo yimali efaniselwe ukuba ibhatalwe nguMnumzana Dala ukuphela kwenyanga. (18) Umbuzo uthi: Yimalini iyonke imali ekolotwa nguMnumzana Dala kwikhadi lakhe lesikwelito?
(16) No, George. (17) That is the amount Mr Dala has to pay at the end of the month. (18) The question is: "What is the total amount Mr Dala owes on his credit card?"
 [Providing clarification]
- G: (19) Ewe, Kodwa yi-R530 ayikolotayo, Titshala.
(19) Yes, but that is the R530 that he owes, Miss.
- T: (20) Hayi, i-R530 yeyona mali ekufuneka eyibhatalile ukuphela kwenyanga. (21) Iyonke imali ayikolotayo ininzi kakhulu. (22) Fundisisa ingxelo yekhadi lesikwelito kwakhona.
(20) No, the R530 is only what he is expected to pay at the end of the month. (21) The total amount that he owes is a lot more. (22) Read the credit card statement again carefully.
 [Providing clarification], [Instructing learner]
- G: (23) Apha phezulu ithi: Imali eshiyekileyo, R5355, 28. (24) Ingaba yiyo yonke le mali, Titshala?
(23) Here at the top it says: Closing balance, R5355, 28. (24) Is that the total amount, Miss?
 [Reading information], [Asking whether understanding of facts is correct]
- T: (26) Ewe, yimali ayikolota ibhanki. (27) Uyabona, ngekhadi lesikwelito, awunyanzelekanga ukuba ude ubhatalwe yonke into oyikwelitayo ngexesha elinye. Ibhanki ikucela nje ukuba ubhatalwe imali encinci oyikwelitayo qho ngenyanga. (28) Kodwa ke bakutsalela inzala eshiyekileyo. (29) Ngoku

- masijonge kwinombolo 5.4. (30) Apha babuza: "Yimalini imali uMnumzana Dala aza kuyikweleta ibhanki kule nyanga izayo ukuba akathenganga nto kule nyanga?" (31) Ucinga ntoni?
 (25) Yes, that is the amount he owes the bank. (26) You see, with a credit card, you don't have to pay back everything you owe at once. (27) The bank asks you to pay back only a small amount of what you owe every month. (28) But then they charge you interest on the amount that is still outstanding. (29) Now let's look at number 5.4. (30) Here they are asking: "How much will Mr Dala owe the bank at the end of the next month if he makes no further purchases during the present month?" (31) What do you think?
 [Explanation of facts/information], [Asking learner to answer question]
- G: (32) Kufuneka ndithathe i-R5355, 28 ndithabathe imali yokubhatala eyi-R530. (33) Iya kundinika malini ayikwelita ibhanki.
 (32) I must take the R5355, 28 and subtract the payment of R530. (33) That will give me how much he still owes the bank.
 [Providing information]
- T: (34) Ewe, kodwa kufuneka ukhumbule ngenzala ibhanki eza kuyitsala kuye. (34) Yes, but you must remember about the interest that the bank charges him.
 [Reminding learner of additional information needed]
- G: (35) Inzala? (36) Kulungile, ndiyabona. (37) Apha ithi inzala yi-25%. (38) Ngoku ndithatha le mali ishiyekileyo ndidibanise u-25% kuyo! (39) Oko kuya kundinika impendulo elungileyo.
 (35) The interest? (36) OK, I see. (37) It says here 25% interest. (38) So then I take the outstanding amount and add 25% to that! (39) That will give me the right answer.
 [Explaining procedure to follow in order to get to right answer]
- T: (40) Uqinisekile? (41) Masifunde apha kakuhle. (42) Ithi ubhatala i-25% NGONYAKA. (43) Ngoku ungasidibanisa i-25%?
 (40) Are you sure? (41) Let's just read carefully here. (42) It says that he pays 25 % PER YEAR. (43) So can you just add 25%?
 [Enquiring about certainty of answer], [Instructing learner], [Requesting information]
- G: (44) Hayi, oko akunakulunga. (45) Kufuneka ndisebenze ngenzala inyanga ibe nye kuphela. (46) Ngoku kufuneka ndikhangele inzala yonyaka ndiphinde ndiyohlule ngo12 ukufumana isiphumo senyanga.
 (44) No, that will not be right. (45) I have to work with the interest for one month only. (46) So then I must first work out the interest for one year and then divide that by 12 to get to the amount for one month.
 [Providing information]
- T: (47) Unyanisile, George. (48) Khawusenzele. (47) That's right, George. (48) Work it out for us.

- [Commenting on correctness of information provided], [Instructing learner]
- G: (49) Kulungile, Titshala. (50) Ngoko ke impendulo ngu-XYZ.
(49) Ok, Miss. (50) So the answer is XYZ.
 [Giving answer]
- T: (51) Uqinisekile? (52) Funda umbuzo kwakhona.
(51) Are you sure? (52) Read the question again.
 [Asking correctness of information provided], [Instructing learner]
- G: (53) Ndiyenzile yonke titshala. (54) Ndenze yonke inzala yonyaka ndaphinda ndayohlula ngo-12 ukufumana inzala yonyaka. (55) Kufanele ukuba yeyona mpendulo ichanekileyo!
(53) But I worked it all out Miss. (54) I worked out the interest for the whole year and then I divided it by 12 to get the interest for one month. (55) That must be the correct answer!
 [Explaining how answer was arrived at]
- T: (56) Funda umbuzo, George. (57) Kubalulekile ukuba wazi ngolwazi olubuzwayo.
(56) Read the question, George. (57) It is very important that you know what information is being asked.
 [Instructing learner, expressing importance]
- G: (58) Ndiyabona ke ngoku, Titshala. (59) Ndenze inzala yodwa, kodwa babuza inzala yemali aza kuyikwelita ukuphela kwenyanga ezayo.
(58) Now I see, Miss. (59) I only worked out the interest, but they are asking for the amount he will owe at the end of the next month.
 [Stating understating], [Explaining understanding of problem]
- T: (60) Ewe, kunjalo.
(60) Yes, that's right.
 [Stating correctness of information]
- G: (61) Ngoku ndisafuna ukudibanisa inzala kwimali eshiyekileyo. (62) Leyo iya kuba yimali aza kuyikwelita ekupheleni kwenyanga ezayo.
(61) So now I still need to add the interest to the outstanding amount. (62) That will be the amount he will owe at the end of the next month.
 [Stating further steps to follow]
- T: (63) Nantso ke! (64) Kunjalo. (65) Ngezi ziphumo kufuneka usoloko ufunda imibuzo kakuhle uqiniseke ukuba uyakwazi okubuzwayo. (66) Kufuneka ufunde ukusebenzisa lonke ulwazi abakunikayo njengemibuzo. (67) Kule meko kufuneka ufunde ingxelo yekhadi lesikweliti kakuhle ukuze ufumane ulwazi olululo.
(63) There you go! (64) That's right. (65) With these word sums you must always read the questions carefully and make sure you know what is being asked. (66) You must also learn to use all the information they are giving you

as part of the question. (67) In this case you have to read the credit card statement very carefully to get to the right information.

[Commenting on correctness of information, instructing learner, expressing necessity]

G: (68) Enkosi, Titshala. (69) Ndiziva ndingcono kakhulu ngomsebenzi ngoku.
(68) Thank you, Miss. (69) I'm feeling much better about the homework now.
[Expressing gratitude], [Stating feeling about work]

T: (70) Wamkelekile, George. (71) Gqibezela ke ngoku, ixesha seliza kuphela.
(70) You're welcome, George. (71) Now finish up, the period is almost over.
[Stating willingness to help], [Instructing learner]

5.2.4.13.1 Cognitive complexity analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[- few elements]:

This task is classified as [-few elements] because of the large number of similar temporal references that occur. It is important for the successful completion of the task that the learner must be able to distinguish between various similar references to time. Examples of such references are: sentence 20 (**ukuphela kwenyanga** / "at the end of the month"), 27 (**qho ngenyanga** / "every month"), 30 and 62 (**kule nyanga izayo** / "at the end of next month") and also in sentence 30 (**kule nyanga** / "this month"). Further examples are found in sentences 47 (**ngenzala inyanga ibenye kuphela** / "interest for one month only") and 48 (**inzala yonyaka** / "interest for one year") and in the same sentence (**isiphumo senyanga** / "amount for one month").

In addition to the temporal references mentioned above, spatial references are also found in the task. Examples include: sentence 23, 37 and 41 (**apha** / "here").

[- no reasoning]:

This task requires more than mere transmission of information. The participants in the roles of the teacher and the learner are required to reason about how to do the

homework. Examples of reasoning are found in sentences such as 44-46 and 51-59, in which the teacher reasons with the learner about which information is needed and how this information should be utilized to solve a specific problem set for the homework.

[- here-and-now]:

The participants of this task have to refer to events that occur elsewhere. The task is centered around a discussion of calculations that have to be made regarding a fictitious credit card statement. The time references are to times other than the present (e.g. sentence 20, **ukuphela kwenyanga** /"at the end of the month").

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that participants will be allowed planning time prior to performing the task. The participant in the role of the teacher will have to plan how he or she will assist the learner. The participant in the role of the learner will have to plan which problem he or she could be having with the homework and which questions could be asked about this problem.

[- prior knowledge]:

No prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction to the participants about the type of homework activity that is referred to in the task, i.e. calculating interest. A considerable amount of subject specific knowledge is needed in order to conduct a conversation about the calculation of interest. Because the participants are students teachers it can be assumed that they will bring some subject knowledge with them to the task. However, seen on a continuum, the amount and the nature of the subject knowledge needed to perform this task are such that these factors will be contribute to increasing the cognitive load of the participants. Hence a classification of [- prior knowledge] is specified.

[- single task]:

This task requires of participants to perform multiple tasks at the same time. While speaking, the participants have to plan ahead which aspects of the calculation of

interest they are going to address. The teacher has to plan which questions to ask the learner, and the learner will have to plan how to answer the questions posed about various issues related to the calculation of interest with reference to the credit card statement.

Based on the above classification of task characteristics this task can be classified as a quadrant 4 task in Robinson's (2005) framework. With the exception of [+planning time], this task has all the characteristics of typical quadrant 4 tasks. This task will therefore provide participants with learning opportunities and demands relating to high performative and high developmental complexity. The fact that planning time is assumed for the purposes of this study will slightly reduce the performative complexity of this task.

5.2.4.13.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists mostly of relatively short communication segments shared between the participants in the roles of the teacher and the learner. In this section a selection of speech turns displaying syntactic complexity will be analyzed according to the AS-unit proposed by Foster et al. (2000).

Sentence 3 starts with the negative present tense indicative mood main clause **andiyazi** ("I don't know") followed by the complement clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") and a further complement clause **ndiyenzile** ("I do it"). Sentence 4 also starts with a negative main clause, **andiqinisekanga** ("I am not sure"), which is followed by the complement clause **nokuba ulungile** ("whether it is right").

Sentence 8 consists of the main clause featuring the stative verb **ilungile** ("it is right") followed by the complement clause **kodwa jonga** ("but look"), which consists of the conjunction **kodwa** ("but") and the imperative mood verb **jonga** ("look"). Sentence 9 starts with the negative infinitival clause **ayinakuba** ("it cannot be") and concludes with the relative mood complement clause **ilungileyo** ("that is right"). Sentences 10 and 11 are short, monoclausal sentences.

Sentence 12 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **bandibuza** ("they are asking me") followed by a copular complement clause **ukuba ingaba yimalini** ("if perhaps it is how much money"), which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"), the deficient verb **ingaba** ("perhaps") and the copular verb **yimalini** ("it is how much money"). Sentence 12 ends with a relative mood complement clause: **ayikolotayo** ("that he owes it"). Sentence 13 consists of two main clauses. First the perfectum indicative mood clause **ndijonge** ("I looked") and then the present tense indicative mood clause **ithi** ("it says"). This is followed by two passive complement clauses: **efanelwe** ("that it should"), a relative mood passive clause, and then also **ibhatalwe** ("it is paid"). Sentence 14 consists only of the copular main clause **yi-R530** ("it is R530"). In sentence 15 the main clause **ingaba yimpendulo** consists of the deficient verb **ingaba** ("perhaps") and the copular main clause **yimpendulo** ("it is the answer"). The main clause of this sentence is followed by the relative complement clause **elungileyo** ("that is right").

In sentence 25 the main copular clause **yimali** ("it is the money/amount") is followed by a relative clause **ayikolota** ("that he owes"). Sentence 26 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **awunyanzelekanga** ("it is not compulsory"), followed by the complement clause **ukuba ude ubhatale** ("that until you pay"), which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"), the conjunction **ude** ("until you") and the subjunctive mood verb **ubhatale** ("you pay"). Sentence 27 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ikucela** ("it asks you") followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba ubhatale** ("that you pay"). Sentence 28 is actually a continuation of sentence 27, and as such starts with the conjunction **kodwa ke** ("but then"), followed by the main clause **bakutsalela** ("they charge you"). Sentence 29 is a monoclausal sentence consisting of the hortative mood main clause **masijonge** ("let us look"). Sentence 30 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **babuza** ("they ask") followed by a quotation, which then starts as a new sentence within sentence 30. The quotation starts with the copular question clause **yimalini** ("it is how much money"), followed by the future tense complement clause **aza kuyikweleta** ("he will owe"), and by a further complement clause **ukuba akathenganga** ("if he does not buy"), consisting

of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the negative subjunctive mood verb **akathenganga** ("he does not buy"). Sentence 31 is a monoclausal sentence consisting only of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ucinga** ("you think").

Sentence 37 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ithi** ("it says") and the copular complement clause **yi-25%** ("it is 25%"). Sentence 38 starts with the main clause **ndithatha** ("I take") followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **ndidibanise** ("I add") which denotes a successive action.

Sentence 46 starts with the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") followed by **ndikhangele** ("I check"), a subjunctive mood subordinate clause. This is followed by two complement clauses. First **ndiphinde ndiyohlule** ("I then also divide it"), consisting of the deficient verb **ndiphinde** ("I then also") and the subjunctive mood verb **ndiyohlule** ("I divide it"). The second complement clause in sentence 46 is the infinitival clause **ukufumana** ("to get").

Sentence 53 is a monoclausal sentence containing the perfect past tense verb **ndiyenzile** ("I did it"). Sentence 54 starts with the perfect past tense verb **ndenze** ("I did") followed by two consecutive mood clauses, the first of which functions as an deficient verb: **ndaphinda ndayohlula** ("I then I divided it"). This is followed by a further complement clause, the infinitival clause **ukufumana** ("to get"). Sentence 55 begins with a complement clause **kufanele** ("that should/must be"), followed by the main clause **ukuba yeyona** ("that it is it/him"), and a relative complement clause **ichanekileyo** ("that is accurate/correct").

Sentence 65 starts with the main present tense indicative mood clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"), followed by the situative mood subordinate clause **usoloko ufunda** ("you always study"), featuring the deficient verb **usoloko** ("you always"), followed by the situative mood verb **ufunda** ("you learn"). This is followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **uqiniseke** ("you ensure"), which denotes a successive action. This is followed by a further indicative mood complement clause

ukuba uyakwazi ("that you know it"), which is followed by a relative mood clause **okubuzwayo** ("that which is asked"). Sentence 66 begins with the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") followed by the subjunctive mood subordinate clause **ufunde** ("you learn"). This is followed by two further complement clauses: first the infinitival clause **ukusebenzisa** ("to use") and the relative mood clause **abakunikayo** ("that they give you"). Sentence 67 consists of the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") and the subjunctive mood subordinate clause **ufunde** ("you learn"). This is followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuze ufumane** ("so that you learn"), which is introduced by the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that").

From the above speech unit analysis it is evident that this dialogue contain numerous sentence that are syntactically complex. No correlation between syntactically complex sentences and specific generic moves realized by these sentences is apparent.

5.2.4.13.3 Salient Language Structures

The following are examples of constructions that are crucial for the acquisition of the generic moves identified for this task:

[Making suggestions]

Use of the hortative:

Masifunde lo mbuzo kwakhona. ("Let us read this question again.") (11)

Ngoku masijonge kwinombolo 5.4. ("Now let us look at nr 5.4.") (29)

Masifunde apha kakuhle. ("Let us read carefully here.") (41)

[Stating uncertainty]

Use of **-qiniseka** ("to be sure") in the negative:

Andiqinisekanga nokuba lo msebenzi ulungile na. ("I'm not sure if this is right.") (4)

[Requesting information]

Use of interrogatives:

Bakubuza ntoni apha? ("What are they asking you here?") (10)

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba yimpendulo elungileyo? ("Is this perhaps the correct answer?") (15)

Ingaba yiyo yonke le mali? ("Is that perhaps the total amount?") (24)

Use of **-cinga** ("think") + interrogative:

Ucinga ntoni? ("What do you think?") (31)

[Stating necessity]

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") + relative:

Hayi, i-R530 yeyona mali ekufuneka eyibhatalile ukuphela kwenyanga. (No, the R530 is only what he is expected to pay at the end of the month.)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") + subjunctive:

Kufuneka ndithathe i-R5355,28 ndithabathe ... ("I must take the R5355,28 and deduct ...") (32)

Ewe, kodwa kufuneka ukhumbule ngenzala ibhanki eza kuyitsala kuye. ("Yes, but you must remember about the interest the bank charges him.") (34)

Kufuneka ndisebenze ngenzala inyanga ibe nye kuphela. ("I have to work with the interest for one month only.") (45)

Kufuneka ufunde ukusebenzisa lonke ulwazi abakunikayo njengemibuzo. ("You must learn to use all the information they give you in the question.") (66)

[Giving instructions]

Use of the imperative mood:

Yiza ndibone. ("Come let me see.") (5)

Fundisisa ingxelo yekhadi lesikwelito kwakhona. ("Read the credit card statement again carefully.") (22)

Funda umbuzo kwakhona. ("Read the question again.") (52)

Gqibezela ke ngoku ... ("Finish up now ...") (71)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") + subjunctive:

Kule meko kufuneka ufunde ingxelo yekhadi lesikweliti kakuhle...

("In this case you must read the credit card statement carefully ...") (67)

[Indicating successive actions]

Use of the consecutive mood:

Ndenze yonke inzala yonyaka ndaphinda ndayohlula ... ("I worked out the interest for the whole year and then I divided it ...") (54)

[Stating importance]

Use of **-balulekile** ("it is important"):

Kubalulekile ukuba wazi ngolwazi olubuzwayo. ("It is important that you know what information is being asked.") (57)

Viewed in totality the key linguistic structures identified for this task are relatively complex. These structures should serve as the basis for the design of focus on form activities for this task which should provide opportunities for learners to notice the structures and to practice using them.

5.2.4.14 Task 14

Ungutitshala wesikolo samabanga aphantsi. Umfundi kwigumbi lebanga lesine usokoliswa ngumsebenzi wakhe wesikolo ngenxa yokuba isiNgesi ingelolwimi lwakhe lokuqala. Xoxa ngenkqubela yakhe kunye nabazali bakhe ubanike icebo lokuba bangamnceda njani ekuphuhliseni ulwimi lwakhe lwesiNgesi.

You are a primary school teacher. A learner in your Gr 6 class is struggling with her schoolwork partly because English is not her first language. Discuss the learner's progress with her parents and offer some advice about how they can help to improve her English.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To inform parents of problem with learner's progress
- 2 To provide information about why learner's progress isn't as expected
- 3 To provide information to parents about how to help learner
- 4 To reassure parents about learner's ability

T = Teacher
 P = Parents
 M = Mother
 F = Father

- T: (1) Molweni, Mnumzana noNkosikazi Mahali.
(1) Good evening, Mr and Mrs Mahali.
 [Greeting]
- P: (2) Molo.
(2) Good evening.
 [Greeting]
- T: (3) Ndiyabulela ngokuza kwenu. (4) Ndiyavuya sinalo ithamsanqa lokuxoxa ngempumelelo kaZukiswa.
(3) Thank you for coming. (4) I'm glad we have the opportunity to discuss Zukiswa's progress.
 [Expressing gratitude]
- M: (5) Sikhathazekile kancinci. (6) Ingaba uqhuba kakuhle phofu? (7) Ulwazi lwakhe ekuqaleni kwekota yokuqala belungekho lubi noko.
(5) We're a bit worried. (6) Is she doing all right? (7) Her report at the end of the first term wasn't too bad.
 [Expressing concern], [Requesting information about learner's progress]
- T: (8) Kaloku, usebenza nzima kakhulu. (9) Ngelishwa iziphumo zakhe azizihlanga kule kota njengaleyo iphelileyo.
(8) Well, she is trying very hard. (9) Unfortunately her marks are not looking as good this term as they were last term.
 [Providing information about learner's progress]
- F: (10) Kutheni kunjalo? (11) Besicinga ukuba yonke into ihamba kakuhle.
(10) Why is that? (11) We thought everything was going all right.
 [Requesting detail], [Stating assumption]
- T: (12) Kaloku, isantya siba bukhawuleza kwikota yesibini kunakwikota yokuqala. (13) Umsebenzi omninzi wabafundi ekufuneka bewenzile wohlaziyo nawo wonyukile. (14) Ngenxa yokuba isiNgesi ilulwimi lwesibini lukaZukiswa, uthatha umzuzu ukufunda umsebenzi wakhe. (15) Uthatha ixesha elide ukufunda imibuzo xa ebhala ubhalo lokuzihlaziya. *(12) Well, in the second term the pace is a bit faster than it was in the first term. (13) The amount of work that the learners have to cover for tests is also increasing. (14) Because English is Zukiswa's second language, she takes a bit longer to read through her work. (15) She also takes longer to read the questions when she is writing a test.*
 [Explaining possible reasons for learner's poor performance]
- M: (16) Ewe, unokuthatha ixesha elide ukudibanisa iimpendulo zakhe.

(16) Yes, and she probably also takes longer to formulate her answers.
[Stating agreement], [Providing further information]

- T: (17) Unyanisile, yiyo kanye ingxaki. (18) Ndiqaphele ukuba usoloko engakwazi ukuwugqiba umsebenzi wakhe. (19) Ingathi xa ndijongile isakhono sakhe kwisiNgesi siyamlibazisa kweli nqanaba, kuyo nayiphi na into.
(17) Absolutely, that is exactly the case. (18) I have noticed that she isn't always able to finish her tests. (19) It seems to me that her ability in English is holding her back at this stage, more than anything else.
[Stating agreement], [Providing further information]
- F: (20) Ukuba kunjalo, singenza ntoni? (21) Singamnceda njani? (22) Asifuni nyhani ukuba abuyele kwizikolo zaselokishini, Titshala Ross.
(20) If that is the case, what can we do? (21) How can we help her? (22) We really don't want her to go back to a township school, Miss Ross.
[Requesting further information], [Expressing concern]
- T: (23) Ewe, ndiyakuqonda oko. (24) Andiqondi ukuba oko kuya kuba yimfuneko, Mnumzana Mahali. (25) Kodwa sakujonga iindlela zokuphuhlisa isiNgesi sikaZukiswa.
(23) Yes, I understand that. (24) I don't think that will be necessary, Mr Mahali. (25) But we will have to look at ways in which we can improve Zukiswa's English.
[Stating understanding], [Reassuring parents]
- M: (26) Sakwenza konke okusemandleni ukunceda, kodwa ngelishwa nesethu isiNgesi asigqibelelanga. (27) Ucinga ukuba singakwazi ukumnceda?
(26) We'll do anything we can to help, but unfortunately our English isn't so good either. (27) Do you think we will be able to help her?
[Seeking reassurance about ability to assist learner]
- T: (28) Ndiqinisekile ungakwazi, Nkosikazi Mahali. (29) Ndinga ukuba kweli inqanaba kufuneka uZukiswa simfundise isiNgesi kangangoko sinako. (30) Apha eklasini ndiya kumnika ezinye iincwadi zokufunda, kodwa ngelishwa kukho ixesha elincinci lokuba afunde. (31) Ukutsho oko kwakufuneka afunde kakhulu ekhaya. *(28) I'm sure you can, Mrs Mahali. (29) I think at this stage we need to expose Zukiswa to as much English as we possibly can. (30) Here in class I will give her extra reading material, but unfortunately there is very little time in class for her to read. (31) So that means that she will have to do the extra reading at home.*
[Reassuring parents about ability to assist learner], [Making suggestions about how learner can be assisted]
- M: (32) Kulungile. (33) Singaqala ngomsebenzi wakhe wesikolo kwamsinyane ngokuhlwa ukuze sibe nalo ixesha lokufunda ezinye izifundo.
(32) That's fine. (33) We can start with her homework a little earlier in the evenings so that we can make time for the extra reading.
[Stating agreement], [Making suggestion]

- F: (34) Zeziphi ezi zifundo niza kumnika zona?
 (34) *What kind of reading are you going to give her?*
 [Requesting information]
- T: (35) Ndiya kuzama ukumfunela iincwadi okanye amanqaku afanayo nemiba esiqhele ukuthetha ngayo eklasini. (36) Kwezinye izifundo sineencwadi nezohlukileyo kwezo sizisebenzisa apha egumbini lokufunda. (37) Ngoko ke uZukiswa uya kuba nako ukuba afunde ngakumbi ngezinto asele eziqhelile. (38) Ukuba umba okanye umxholo awukho nzima kangako, uya kufuneka aqinisekise kulwimi olusetyenzisiweyo.
 (35) *I will try to find books or articles related to some of the topics we are covering in class. (36) For some of the learning areas we have textbooks that are different from the ones we are using in class. (37) Zukiswa will then be able to read more about things that she is already familiar with. (38) If the topics or the content isn't so difficult, she will be able to concentrate more on the language used.*
 [Providing information about how learner will be assisted, Stating intended actions, Stating ability, Reasoning: condition]
- M: (40) *Kodwa ingaba ukufunda kakhulu kuyanceda?*
 (40) But will more reading really help?
 [Expressing doubt]
- T: (41) Ndiqinisekile kuya kuba njalo, Nkosazana Mahali. (42) Ngokuye uZukiswa ebona amamela kuya kubangcono. (43) Nakanjani kuya kunceda kakhulu ukuba uyathetha naye ngemihlathi ayifundileyo. (44) Ngalo ndlela uya kunyanzeleka ukuba azicingele ngesiNgesi. (45) Kufuneka niqiniseke ukuba niwucacisa ngesiNgesi umsebenzi wakhe. (46) Ngaphandle kokuba kukho igama lesiNgesi angaliqondiyo mhlawumbi ungasebenzisa igama lesiXhosa ukumxelela intsingiselo yegama.
 (41) *I'm sure it will, Mrs Mahali. (42) The more English Zukiswa sees and hears the better. (43) Obviously it will also help a lot if you talk to her about the reading passages. (44) That way she will be forced to formulate her thoughts in English. (45) You must just make sure that you all discuss the work in English. (46) It's just if she doesn't understand an English word that you can perhaps use isiXhosa to explain the meaning of the word to her.*
 [Reassuring parents], [Reasoning with parents about how learner will benefit]
- F: (47) Ngeyiphi enye into esingayenza ukumnceda, Titshala Ross?
 (47) *What else is there that we can do to help her, Miss Ross?*
 [Seeking advice]
- T: (48) Mh, ningathetha isiNgesi ekhaya. (49) Nokuba nenza imisebenzi engacacanga apha endlwini. (50) Ukuba ufuna uZukiswa akundlalele itafile, mnike imiyalelo ngesiNgesi kwaye uthethe naye ngelixa elungisa ngezinto ozibeka etafileni. (51) Thetha ngabahlobo bakhe nezinto abazenzayo ngesiNgesi. (52) Ndicinga ukuba iya kuba nzima into yokuba uthethe isiNgesi

naye ngalo lonke ixesha, ngoba sele uqhelile ukuthetha naye isiXhosa. (53) Kodwa emva kosuku neentsuku ezimbini uya kukhawuleza uqhele. (54) Ucinga ntoni wena, Nkosikazi Mahali?

(48) Well, you can speak English at home. (49) Even when you are just doing ordinary tasks in and about the house. (50) If you want Zukiswa to lay the table for you, give her the instruction in English and talk to her while she is doing it about the things that you put on the table. (51) Talk to her about her friends and what they do in English. (52) I suppose it will feel awkward for you to speak English to her all the time, because you are used to speaking to her in isiXhosa. (53) But after a day or two you will soon get used to it. (54) What do you think, Mrs Mahali?

[Providing further information about how learner can be assisted]

M: (55) Ewe, ndicinga ukuba ekuqaleni ayisayi kuqheleka, kodwa kufuneka sizame. (56) Bendicinga ukuba sichithe ixesha elininzi kakhulu simsa esikolweni ekuseni. (57) Singasebenzisa elo xesha xa sithetha isiNgesi. (58) Futhi singamamela nezitishi ezithetha isiNgesi.

(55) Yes, I think it will feel funny in the beginning, but we have to try it. (56) I've also been thinking, we spend a lot of time traveling to school in the morning. (57) We can also use that time to speak English to her. (58) And we can listen to English radio stations.

[Stating agreement], [Making suggestion]

T: (60) Lelona cebo libalulekileyo elo. (61) Kufuneka uqaphele ukuba uZukiswa akoyiki ukusebenzisa igama isiNgesi esilungileyo. (62) Ukuba sisoloko simlungisa njalo uya kungazithembi oyike ukuthetha abhale ngokugqibeleleyo. (63) Zama nje ukumlungisa ngesiNgesi, kodwa sukumlungisa ngalo lonke ixesha esenza impazamo.

(60) That's an excellent idea. (61) You must just be careful that Zukiswa doesn't become too anxious about using correct English. (62) If we correct her too often she will become self-conscious and afraid to speak or write freely. (63) So just try to surround her with English, but don't correct her every time she makes a mistake.

[Stating agreement with suggestion], [Warning about overcorrecting learner's language]

F: (64) Kodwa ingaba ukuthetha naye isiNgesi kuya kwanela? (65) Akufanelanga sizame into ethe ngqo, ecacileyo?

(64) But will speaking English to her be enough? (65) Shouldn't we try something more direct, more specific?

[Expressing concern about whether suggested actions will have desired result]

T: (66) Jonga, uZukiswa uyintombazana efundayo. (67) Ingxaki ayikho ekubeni engaqondi umsebenzi. (68) Yinto yokuba usokoliswa sisiNgesi kancinci. (69) Ukuba simfundisa isiNgesi, amanqaku akhe aya kuba bhetele. (70) Kufuneka nikhumbule ukuba ukufunda ulwimi yinto eqhelekileyo. (71) Singangaziboni kwangoko iziphumo, kodwa ndiyaniqinisekisa ukuba umsebenzi wakhe uya kuphucuka.

(66) Look, Zukiswa is a very bright girl. (67) The problem isn't that she doesn't understand the work. (68) It's just that she struggles with the English a little. (69) So if we improve her English, her marks will improve. (70) You must also remember that learning a language is a gradual process. (71) We may not see results immediately, but I can assure you that her performance will improve.

[Reassuring parents], [Reasoning with parents about why intended course of action will be successful]

M: (72) Ndithemba njalo.

(72) I really hope so.

[Expressing hope]

T: (73) Akukho mfuneko yokuba nizikhathaze ngoZukiswa, Mnumzana noNkosikazi Mahali. (74) Ndiyavuya sibe nalo ixesha lokuthetha. (75) Ndiyabulela ngokuza kwenu nokuba nomdla wokunceda.

(73) You don't have to worry about Zukiswa, Mr and Mrs Mahali. (74) I'm glad that we had this opportunity to talk. (75) Thank you for coming and for being willing to help.

[Reassuring parents], [Thanking parents]

F: (76) Siyabulela ngokusimema nokusibonisa ingxaki ukuba siyiqaphele. (77) Sakuzama ukunceda kangangoko sinako.

(76) Thank you for inviting us and for bringing the problem to our attention.

(77) We will try to help as best we can.

[Expressing gratitude], [Stating intention to assist]

M: (78) Ewe, sibulela ngayo yonke into oyenzele uZukiswa, Titshala Ross.

(78) Yes, we are grateful for everything you do for Zukiswa, Miss Ross.

[Expressing appreciation]

T: (79) Wamkelekile. (80) Uyintombazana ethandekayo endinayo kwigumbi lam lokufundisa.

(79) You are welcome. (80) She is such a lovely child to have in my class.

[Commenting on nature of child]

Parents: (81) Usale kakhuhle.

Abazali: (81) Good bye.

[Greeting]

T: (82) Nihambe kakuhle.

(82) Good bye.

[Greeting]

5.2.4.14.1 Cognitive complexity analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

The spatial and temporal references that occur in this task are few and non-essential for the successful performance of the task. These references also occur in low frequency and participants are not challenged to distinguish between them. Hence the classification of [+ few elements]. Sentences such as the following contain examples of temporal references: sentence 7 (**ekuqaleni kwikota yokuqala** / "at the beginning of the first term"), 9 (**kule kota njengaleyo iphelileyo** / "this term ... last term") and 30 (**ixesha elincinci** / "little time"). Examples of spatial references are found in sentences such as the following: 22 (**kwizikolo zaselokishini** / "to township schools"), 30 (**apha eklasini** / "here in class") and 48 (**ekhaya** / "at home").

[- no reasoning]:

This task requires of participants to do more information transmission. In sentences 62 and 69 examples of causality are found when the teacher reasons with the parents by saying what will happen if certain courses of action are followed.

[- here-and-now]:

The participants are required to refer to events that happened in the past and future, and also to refer to events that occur in a different physical space. Examples of references in the past tense are found in sentences 7 (**belungekho lubi noko** / "wasn't too bad") and 18 (**ndiqaphele** / "I have noticed"). Examples of the future tense are found in sentences such as the following: 35 (**ndiya kuzama** / "I will try"), 43 (**kuya kunceda** / "it will help") and 52 (**iya kuba nzima** / "it will feel awkward").

[+ planning]:

It is assumed for the purposes of this study that participants will be given planning time prior to task performance. The participant in the role of the teacher will need time to plan what he or she will tell the parents about their child's performance and also what suggestions he or she can make to the parents. The participants taking the role of the parents will have to plan how they will respond to the information that their child is not performing well at school and what possible causes for this they could mention to the teacher. All the participants will have to plan together how they intend remedying the situation.

[+ prior knowledge]:

No prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction. The participant taking the role of the teacher and the participants in the roles of the parents will have to rely on the knowledge they bring to the task in order to perform this task successfully. Given the fact that the participants are student teachers it can be assumed with a relative amount of certainty that they will have sufficient prior knowledge in order to perform this task successfully. Judged on a continuum, this task is classified as [+ prior knowledge] because the amount and nature of the subject knowledge the participants will bring to the task is such that this task dimension will not add to the cognitive load of the participants.

[- single task]:

Participants will have to perform multiple tasks in order to perform this task successfully. The participant in the role of the teacher will have to think ahead while speaking how to inform parents about their child's problem, how to make suggestions for improving the child's English, how to reassure parents and how to thank them for coming. The participants taking the role of the parents will have to think ahead while speaking how to react to the news that their child is not performing well at school, which questions they will ask, which suggestions they will make, and how they will react to the suggestions made by the teacher.

Based on the above classification of task characteristics this task is seen as most resembling quadrant 3 tasks in Robinson's (2005) framework for the cognitive analysis of tasks. Quadrant 3 tasks provide learning opportunities and demands relating to low performative and high developmental complexity. Because this task consists of few elements the developmental demands of this task will be less than those of typical quadrant 3 tasks. Because participants will be required to perform multiple tasks, this task will place greater performative demands on learners than typical quadrant 3 tasks.

5.2.4.14.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of a combination between shorter and longer communication segments. In the longer segments the participant in the role of the teacher is providing information to the participants in the role of the parents about how to improve their child's English. The shorter segments typically contain questions by the parents or information they are providing to the teacher. Both the shorter and the longer communication segments contain complex syntactic structures. In this section a selection of the sentences with a complex structure will be analyzed for their syntactic complexity.

Sentence 3 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyabulela** ("I thank") and the infinitival complement clause **ngokuza** ("for you to come"). Sentence 4 also starts with a present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyavuya** ("I am glad"). This is followed by a copular complement clause **sinalo** ("we have it") and the infinitival possessive complement clause **ithamsanqa lokuxoxa** ("opportunity of to discuss").

Sentence 11 starts with the recent past tense indicative mood main clause **besicinga** ("we thought") followed by the complement clause **ukuba ihamba** ("that it is going"). Sentence 12 consists of the main clause **siba bukhawuleza** ("we go faster"). Sentence 13 begins with the relative mood clause **umsebenzi omninzi** ("the work that is a lot") followed by the main clause **ekufuneka** ("that is

necessary") and three complement clauses. First is the perfect past tense indicative mood subordinate clause **bewenzile** ("they did it"), second the relative complement clause **wohlaziyo** ("that they are exposed to"), and thirdly the perfect past tense indicative mood complement clause **wenyukile** ("it has increased"). Sentence 14 begins with the copular complement clause **ngenxa yokuba ilulwimi lwesibini**, consisting of the conjunction **ngenxa yokuba** ("because") and the copular verb **ilulwimi lwesibini** ("it is the second language"). This is followed by the main clause of sentence 14, the present tense indicative mood clause **uthatha** ("she takes"), and the infinitive complement clause **ukufunda** ("to read"). Sentence 15 takes the same main verb and infinitive complement clause as sentence 14, followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **xa ebhala** ("if she writes"), which is introduced by the conjunction **xa** ("if").

Sentence 23 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyakuqonda** ("I understand it"). Sentence 24 starts with the negative present tense indicative mood main clause **andiqondi** ("I don't think") followed by the future tense complement clause **ukuba kuya kuba yimfuneko** ("that it will be necessary"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that"), the future tense deficient verb **kuya kuba** ("it will be") and the copular verb **yimfuneko** ("it is a necessity"). In sentence 25 the conjunction **kodwa** ("but") introduces the contracted future tense main verb **sakujonga** ("we will look"), after which follows the infinitive mood subordinate clause **iindlela zokuphuhlisa** ("ways to improve").

Sentence 33 starts with the indicative mood clause **singaqala** ("we can start"), featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-**. This is followed by the complement clause **ukuze sibe nalo** ("so that we can have it"), consisting of the conjunction **ukuze** ("so that") and the verb **sibe nalo** ("we can have it"). This is followed by an infinitive subordinate clause **ixesha lokufunda** ("time to read").

In sentence 35 the main clause is the future tense indicative mood clause **ndiya kuzama** ("I will try"), which is followed by an infinitival complement clause **ukufunela** ("to find"). This is followed by the two relative complement clauses

afanayo ("that are similar") and **esiqhele** ("that we are familiar with"), as well as an infinitival complement clause **ukuthetha** ("to talk"). The main clause in sentence 36 is **sinencwadi** ("we have books"), which features the verbal particle **-na-** ("to have"). This is followed by the relative subordinate clause **nezohlukileyo** ("that are different") and the indicative mood complement clause **sizisebenzisa** ("we use them"). In sentence 37 the main clause is the future tense clause **uya kuba nako** ("she will be able to"), followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba afunde** ("that she reads") and a recent past tense indicative mood clause **asele eziqhelile** ("she already knew it"), featuring the deficient verb **-sele** ("already"). Sentence 38 starts with the negative complement clause **ukuba awukho** ("if it is not"), after which follows the future tense indicative mood main clause **kuya kufuneka** ("it will be necessary"). This is followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **aqinisekise** ("she concentrates") and the passive relative subordinate clause **olusetyenzisiweyo** ("that was used").

Sentence 55 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndicinga** ("I think"). This is followed by the future tense complement clause **ayisayi kuqheleka** ("it will not be familiar"). Sentence 55 continues with a second main clause, **kodwa kufuneka** ("but it is necessary"), consisting of the conjunction **kodwa** ("but") and the main verb **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"). This is followed by a final, subjunctive complement clause **sizame** ("we try"). Sentence 56 starts with the recent past tense indicative mood complement clause **bendicinga** ("I was thinking"), followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba sichithe** ("that we spend"), followed by the complement clause **simsa** ("we bring her"). Sentence 57 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **singasebenzisa** ("we can use"), featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-**. This is followed by a situative complement clause **xa sithetha** ("if we speak"). Sentence 58 begins with the present tense indicative mood main clause **singamamela** ("we can listen"), followed by the relative mood complement clause **ezithetha** ("that speak").

Sentence 66 starts with the imperative mood main clause **jonga** ("look") followed by a second, copular main clause **uyintombazana** ("she is a girl"), and a relative

complement clause **efundayo** ("who is clever"). In sentence 67 the main clause **ayikho** ("it is not") is followed by a negative subjunctive mood clause **ekubeni engaqondi** ("that she does not understand"). Sentence 68 begins with the conjunction **yinto yokuba** ("the thing is/however"), followed by the passive main clause **usokoliswa** ("she is made to struggle"). Sentence 69 starts with the complement clause **ukuba simfundisa** ("if we teach her"), followed by the future tense indicative mood main clause **aya kuba bhetele** ("it will be better"). In sentence 70 the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary") is followed by the subjunctive mood subordinate clause **nikhumbule** ("you remember"). This is followed by the infinitival complement clause **ukuba ukufunda** ("that to learn") and the copular complement clause **yinto** ("it is a thing"). Sentence 70 concludes with the relative subordinate clause **eqhelekileyo** ("that needs exercise"). In sentence 71 the negative subjunctive mood main clause **singangaziboni** ("we may not see") is followed by a second main clause introduced by the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"): **kodwa ndiyaniqinisekisa** ("but I assure you"), which is a present tense indicative mood clause. Sentence 71 continues with a future tense indicative mood complement clause **ukuba uya kuphucuka** ("that it will improve").

Sentence 76 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **siyabulela** ("we thank you") followed by two infinitival complement clauses: **ngokusimema** ("for to invite us") and **nokusibonisa** ("and to show us"). This is followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba siyiqaphele** ("that we notice it"). Sentence 77 begins with the contracted form future tense indicative mood main clause **sakuzama** ("we will try"). This is followed by the infinitival complement clause **ukunceda** ("to help") and by the complement clause **sinako** ("we can").

From the above analysis it is evident that this dialogue contains many examples of sentences that display a relatively high degree of syntactic complexity. No correlation can be found between sentences with a high degree of syntactic complexity and specific generic moves. A variety of generic moves is represented by the sentences that are syntactically complex.

5.2.4.14.3 Salient Language Structures

Judging by the large number of highly complex sentences that were identified above, it is evident that substantial focus on form activities would have to be designed for this task. Structures such as the following should be included:

[Expressing concern]

Use of **–khathazeka** ("to be concerned"):

Sikhathazekile kancinci. ("We are a bit worried.") (5)

[Requesting information]

Use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba uqhuba kakuhle phofu? ("Is she doing alright?") (6)

Kodwa ingaba ukufunda kakhulu kuyanceda? ("But will reading a lot really help?") (40)

Kodwa ingaba ukuthetha naye isiNgesi kuya kwanela? ("But will speaking English to her be enough?") (64)

Use of interrogatives:

Kutheni kunjalo? ("Why is that?") (10)

Ukuba kunjalo, singenza ntoni? ("If that is so, what can we do?") (20)

Singamnceda njani? ("How can we help her?") (21)

Zeziphi ezi zifundo niza kumnika zona? ("What kind of reading are you going to give her?") (34)

Ngeyiphi enye into esingayenza ukumnceda? ("What else is there that we can do to help her?") (47)

Use of **–cinga** ("to think"):

Ucinga ukuba singakwazi ukumnceda? ("Do you think we can help her?") (27)

Ucinga ntoni wena? ("What do you think?") (54)

[Expressing opinion]

Use of the negative:

Asifuni nyhani ukuba abuyele kwizikolo zaselokishini. ("We really don't want her to go back to a township school.") (22)

Andiqondi ukuba oko kuya kuba yimfuneko. ("I don't think that will be necessary.") (24)

Use of **–cinga** ("to think") + recent past tense:

Besicinga ukuba yonke into ihamba kakuhle. ("We thought everything was going alright.") (11)

Use of **–cinga** ("to think") + **ukuba** ("that"):

Ndicinga ukuba kweli inqanaba kufuneka uZukiswa simfundise isiNgesi kangangoko sinako. ("I think at this stage we need to expose Zukiswa to as much English as we possibly can.") (29)

Ndicinga ukuba iya kuba nzima into yokuba uthethe isiNgesi ... ("I think it will be difficult to speak English ...") (52)

Ewe, ndicinga ukuba ekuqaleni ayisayi kuqheleka ... ("Yes, I think at the beginning it will feel funny ...") (55)

[Expressing agreement]

Use of **–nyanisile** ("you speak the truth / you are right"):

Unyanisile, yiyo kanye ingxaki. ("Absolutely, that is exactly the problem.") (17)

[Stating ability]

Use of **–banako** ("be with it / can"):

Ngoko ke uZukiswa uya kuba nako ukuba afunde ngakumbi ngezinto asele eziqhelile. ("Zukiswa will then be able to read more about things that she is already familiar with.") (37)

Use of **–azi** ("know/can do"):

Ndiqinisekile ukuba ungakwazi ... ("I am sure you can ...") (28)

[Stating inability]

Use of **–azi** ("know/can do") + negative:

Ndiqaphele ukuba usoloko engakwazi ukuwugqiba umsebenzi wakhe. ("I noticed that she isn't always able to finish her work.") (18)

[Expressing certainty]

Use of **–qiniseka** ("to be certain"):

Ndiqinisekile ukuba ungakwazi ... ("I am sure you can ...") (28)

Ndiqinisekile kuya kuba njalo ... ("I am sure it will be like that ...") (41)

[Stating intention]

Use of the future tense:

Apha eklasini ndiya kumnika ezinye iincwadi zokufunda, ... ("Here in class I will give her some extra reading material... ") (30)

Ndiya kuzama ukumfunela iincwadi ... ("I will try to find her books ...") (35)

Sakuzama ukunceda kangangoko sinako. ("We will try to help as best we can.") (77)

[Making suggestions]

Use of **–cinga ukuba** ("think that"):

Ndinginga ukuba kweli inqanaba kufuneka ... ("I think that at this stage we have to ...") (29)

Use of **–nga-** ("can"):

Singaqala ngomsebenzi wakhe wesikolo kwamsinyane... ("We can start with her homework earlier ...") (33)

Ningathetha isiNgesi ekhaya. ("You can speak English at home.") (48)

Singasebenzisa elo xesha za sithetha isiNgesi. ("We can use that time to speak English.") (57)

Futhi singamamela nezitishi ezithetha isiNgesi. ("Futher we can listen to English radio stations.") (58)

Use of the imperative mood:

Thetha ngabahlobo bakhe nezinto abazenzayo ngesiNgesi. ("Talk about her friends and the things they do in English.") (51)

Zama nje ukumlungisa ... ("Try to correct her ...") (63)

[Reasoning: condition]

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba umba okanye umxholo awukho nzima kangako, uya kufuneka aqinisekile kulwimi olusetyenzisiweyo. ("If the topics or the content isn't so difficult, she will be able to concentrate more on the language used.") (38)

Ukuba sisoloko simlungisa njalo uya kungazithembi oyike ukuthetha abhale ngokugqibeleleyo. (If we correct her too often she will become self-conscious and afraid to speak or write freely.) (62)

[Stating importance]

Use of **-kufuneka** ("it is necessary that"):

Kufuneka niqiniseke ukuba niwucacisa ngesiNgesi umsebenzi wakhe. ("It is important that you discuss the work in English.") (45)

Kufuneka uqaphele ukuba uZukiswa akoyiki ukusebenzisa igama lesiNgesi esilungileyo. ("It is necessary that you note that Zukiswa doesn't become anxious about using correct English.") (61)

[Reassuring someone]

Use of **-khathaza** ("to worry") with the reflexive **-zi-**:

Akukho mfuneko yokuba uzikhathaze ngoZukiswa. ("You don't have to worry about Zukiswa.") (73)

[Stating assumption]

Besicinga ukuba yonke into ihamba kakuhle. ("We thought everything was going all right.") (11)

The salient language features listed above are vital for the successful performance of this task. These structures should be included in focus on form activities that can be utilized to create opportunities for repetition and reinforcement.

5.2.4.15 Task 15

Ngexesha abafundi egumbini lakho lokufundisela bexakekile ngumsebenzi wabo, uqaphele ukuba omnye wabafundi ukhangeleka edangele kwaye akacingi apha. Uya edesikeni yalo mfundi umbuze ukuba ingaba uziva kakuhle na. Ingxoxo yakho ebanzi nomfundi iveze ukuba kukho ingxaki yokuxhatshazwa kotywala ekhaya.

While the learners in your class are busy with individual class work, you notice that one of the learners is looking pale and not really concentrating. You walk to the learner's desk and ask if she is feeling all right. Your subsequent discussion with the learner reveals that there is a problem with alcohol abuse at home.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To establish what is causing learner's unusual behaviour
- 2 To ensure learner of confidentiality of conversation
- 3 To offer assistance to learner

T = Teacher

L = Lungi, a learner

T: (1) Lungi, uziva kakuhle?

(1) Lungi, are you feeling all right?

[Enquiring about learner's well being]

L: (2) Ewe, ndicinga njalo, Titshala.

(2) Yes, I think so, Miss.

[Stating well-being]

T: (3) Mh, awukhangeleki njalo kum. (4) Yintoni embi? (5) Ingaba uyagula?

(3) Well, you don't look well to me. (4) What's wrong? (5) Are you feeling sick?

[Reasoning with learner], [Repeating enquiry about well being]

L: (6) Akunjalo, Titshala. (7) Akukho nto.

(6) Not really, Miss. (7) It's nothing.

T: (8) Lungi, ndiyabona ukuba ikhona into embi. (9) Ndicela uhlale emva ekugqibeleni kweklasi ukwenzela ukuba sizo kuba nencokwana emnandi.

(8) Lungi, I can see that something is wrong. (9) Please stay behind at the end of the class so that we can have a nice chat.

[Reasoning with learner], [Instructing learner to stay behind]

L: (10) Kulungile, Titshala.

(10) OK, Miss.

Emva kokuba abanye abafundi behambile:

After the other learners have left:

- T: (11) Yiza, masihlale apha, Lungi. (12) Ingaba yintoni ekuhluphayo?
(11) Come, let's sit over here, Lungi. (12) What is wrong?
 [Inviting learner to sit closer], [Repeating enquiry]
- L: (13) Andiziva kakuhle, Titshala.
(13) I'm not feeling well, Miss.
 [Commenting on well being]
- T: (14) Ingaba yinto oyityileyo? (15) Ubutye ntoni ekuseni namhlanje?
(14) Is it something that you've eaten? (15) What did you have for breakfast this morning?
 [Requesting information]
- L: (ethintitha, eqalisa ukukhala) Andikhangе nditye ekuseni, Titshala.
(hesitating, starting to cry) (16) I didn't eat this morning, Miss.
 [Providing information]
- T: (17) Kulungile, Lungi, sukukhala. (18) Kutheni ungatyanga ekuseni? (19) Uye waselwa, bekungekho kutya kwaneleyo kokuba utye?
(17) It's ok, Lungi, don't cry. (18) Why didn't you eat this morning? (19) Did you oversleep, was there not enough time for you to eat?
 [Comforting learner], [Requesting further information]
- L: (20) Hayi, Titshala, asiyiyo loo nto.
(20) No, Miss, it's not that.
- T: (21) Ingaba umama wakho akakhange akubekele kutya kwaneleyo? (23) Akaqhelanga kwenzela amaqebengwana?
(21) Did your mother not pack anything for you to eat? (22) Doesn't she normally make sandwiches for you?
 [Requesting information about why learner did not eat breakfast]
- L: (23) Hayi, Titshala. (24) Ngamanye amaxesha ndiyazenzela amaqebengwana, kodwa bekungekho kwasonka eso ekuseni.
(23) No, Miss. (24) I sometimes make my own sandwiches, but there wasn't any bread this morning.
 [Stating reason why didn't eat]
- T: (25) Umama wakho khange akunike enye into yokutya?
(25) Didn't your mother give you something else?
 [Requesting information]
- L: (26) Hayi, Titshala.
(26) No, Miss.

[Answering negatively]

- T: (27) Khange utye kwanto wena?
(27) Didn't you take anything yourself?
 [Requesting further information]
- L: (28) Hayi, Titshala. (29) Bekungekho kwanto endingayitya. (30) Umama khange athenge kwakutya izolo.
(28) No, Miss. (29) There wasn't really anything to take. (30) My mother didn't buy any food yesterday.
 [Stating why there was nothing to eat]
- T: (31) Ndiyabona. (32) Ingaba nyhani bekungekho nto yakutya endlwini, Lungi?
(31) I see. (32) Was there really nothing in the house for you to eat, Lungi?
 [Stating understating], [Requesting confirmation]
- L: (33) Hayi, Titshala. (34) Ndiziva ndingathi ndiyagula futhi ndilambile, Titshala. (35) Nditye isonka sokugqibela ebusuku.
(33) No, Miss. (34) I'm feeling sick and hungry, Miss. (35) I ate the last bread last night.
 [Confirming earlier statement], [Stating feeling unwell]
- T: (36) Kulungile, mandikunike esinye sesonka sam, emva koko singathetha.
(36) Ok, let me give you one of my sandwiches, then we can talk some more.
 [Offering learner sandwich]
- T: (37) Kulungile, ingaba uziva bhetele ngoku?
(37) Ok, are you feeling any better?
 [Enquiring about how learner is feeling]
- L: (38) Ewe, ndiyabulela, Titshala. (39) Bendilambe kakhulu.
(38) Yes, thank you, Miss. (39) I was just really very hungry.
 [Stating well being], [Expressing gratitude]
- T: (40) Lungi, ndixelele ngezinto ekhaya. (41) Ingaba yonke into ihamba kakuhle ekhaya?
(40) Lungi, tell me about things at home. (41) Is everything all right at home?
 [Requesting further information about conditions at home]
- L: (42) Ndicinga njalo, Titshala. (43) Ndiziva bhetele ngoku, bendilambile qha.
(42) I suppose so, Miss. (43) I'm ok, I was just very hungry.
 [Answering uncertainly]
- T: (44) Kodwa bekutheni ukuze kungabikho kutya endlwini? (45) Bekungekho mali yokuthenga ukutya?
(44) But why wasn't there any food in the house? (45) Was there no money to buy food?

[Enquiring about reason for lack of food]

- L: (46) Ndicinga ukuba imali ibikhona, Titshala. (47) Kodwa umama wam akakhange ayokuthenga kutya izolo.
(46) I think there was money, Miss. (47) But my mother didn't go to buy any food yesterday.

[Providing information]

- T: (48) Lungi, kwakufuneka undithembe kwaye undixelele ukuba kuqhubeka ntoni. (49) Ngapha koko andisayi kukwazi ukukunceda. (50) Ingaba umama wakho uphelelwe ngumsebenzi? (51) Utata wakho yena?
(48) Lungi, you will have to trust me and tell me what is going on. (49) Otherwise I won't be able to help you. (50) Has your mother lost her job? (51) What about your father?

[Reasoning with learner why trust is necessary], [Requesting information]

- L: (52) Ndihlala nomama, Titshala. (53) Utata umnke kwiinyanga ezimbalwa ezigqithileyo. (54) Uza kukwahlukana nomama.
(52) I live with my mother, Miss. (53) My father moved out a couple of months ago. (54) He is going to divorce my mother.

[Providing information about situation at home]

- T: (55) Ndiyaxolisa ngokuva oko, Lungi. (56) Inoba iya kukhathaza loo nto. (57) Usambona utata wakho?
(55) I'm very sorry to hear that, Lungi. (56) That must be very hard for you. (57) Do you still see your father?

[Expressing sympathy], [Requesting information about contact with father]

- L: (58) Hayi kangako, Titshala. (59) Ngamanye amaxesha uye azondilanda ngeempela-veki. (60) Emva koko siya kwa-McDonalds sasiye nakwimiboniso bhanya-bhanya.
(58) Not much, Miss. (59) He sometimes comes to pick me up over weekends. (60) Then he takes me out to McDonalds and once we went to see a movie.

[Providing information about contact with father]

- T: (61) Umama wakho yena? (62) Ingaba uyasebenza?
(61) And your mother? (62) Is she working?

[Requesting information about mother]

- L: (63) Ewe, Titshala. (64) Usebenza kwisebe lezabasebenzi.
(63) Yes, Miss. (64) She works at the Department of Labour.

[Providing information about mother's occupation]

- T: (65) Kodwa Lungi bekutheni ukuze kungabikho ukutya ekuseni endlwini? (66) Umama wakho akakuthengi ukutya?
(65) But Lungi why was there no food in the house this morning? (66) Doesn't your mother do grocery shopping?

[Requesting information about reason for lack of food at home]

L: (67) Uyakuthenga, Titshala, kodwa ngamanye amaxesha akathengi kutya.
(67) *She does, Miss, but sometimes she doesn't buy food.*

T: (68) Ngoba kutheni, Lungi? (69) Akukho mfuneko yokuba woyike ukundixelela, Lungi. (70) Andisoze ndikufake engxakini. (71) Ndixelele ingaba umama wakho ukunakekele?
(68) *Why not, Lungi?* (69) *You don't have to be afraid to tell me, Lungi.* (70) *I won't let you get into trouble.* (71) *Tell me, does your mother take good care of you?*

[Requesting further information], [Reassuring learner], [Requesting information about care at home]

L: (72) Uqhele ukwenza njalo, Titshala, kodwa xa esele kusoloko kungekho kutya. (72) *She usually does, Miss, but when she drinks there isn't always food.*

[Stating why food there is not always food at home]

T: (73) Ndiyabona, Lungi. (74) Xa esele... (75) Ingaba oku kwenzeka qho, le yokusela?
(73) *I see, Lungi.* (74) *When she drinks...* (75) *Does this happen often, that she drinks?*

[Stating understanding of problem], [Requesting information about mother's drinking habit]

L: (76) Akunjalo, Titshala. (77) Kuqhele ukuba ngeempela-veki. (78) Kodwa nayizolo ebusuku... xa sifika ekhaya...
(76) *Not really, Miss.* (77) *It's usually over weekends.* (78) *But also last night... when we got home...*

[Providing information about mother's drinking habit]

T: (79) Ingaba iyakuhlupha le nto yokusela kwakhe?
(79) *Does it bother you that she drinks?*

[Enquiring about learners feelings about mother drinking]

L: (80) Ndicinga njalo, Titshala. (81) Akabi nabubele. (82) Akathethi nokuthetha nam xa esele.
(80) *I suppose so, Miss.* (81) *She's not nice then.* (82) *She doesn't really talk to me when she's been drinking.*

[Expressing feelings about mother drinking]

T: (83) Thatha elinye iqebengwana lesonka, Lungi, thatha nale R5. (84) Ungazithengela ipakethe yeelekese neechips evenkileni phambi kwekhefu lokugqibela. (85) Ingaba umama wakho wakhe wakubetha xa esele, Lungi?
(83) *Take another sandwich, Lungi, and take this R5.* (84) *You can buy a packet of chips and some sweets at the tuck shop before the end of break.* (85) *Does your mother ever hurt you when she's been drinking, Lungi?*

- [Offering learner more food, and money to buy more food], [Enquiring about mother's behaviour]
- L: (86) Ndiyabulela, Titshala. (87) Hayi, Titshala, Akandibethi. (88) Uyahlala nje aselele phambi komabonakude, emva koko andixelele ukuba mandiyegumbini lam lokulala.
(86) Thank you, Miss. (87) No, Miss, she doesn't hurt me. (88) She just sits and drinks in front of the TV, and then she tells me to go to my room.
[Expressing gratitude], [Providing information about mother's behaviour]
- T: (89) Lungi, andiyazi ukuba mandithini na ngoku.
(89) Lungi, I'm not sure what to do now.
[Expressing uncertainty about course of action]
- L: (90) Ndiyakucela ungamxeleli umama ezi zinto ndikuxelele zona, Titshala!
(91) Uya kuba nomsindo kakhulu.
(90) Please don't tell my mother what I told you, Miss! (91) She will be very angry.
[Requesting teacher not to talk to mother]
- T: (92) Andisoze ndiyenze loo nto, Lungi. (93) Ndiya kuzama ukucinga into – kufanele kubekho into esiyenzayo. (94) Okwangoku, ndifuna undithembise ukuba uya kundixelela kwakhona xa uze esikolweni ungatyanga. (95) Awunakuhamba ungenanto yokutya intsasa yonke. (96) Awusoze uwenze kakuhle umsebenzi wakho. (97) Ukuba ulambile, ndakukuzamela into etyiwayo.
(92) I won't do that, Lungi. (93) I'll try to think of something – there must be something we can do. (94) For now, I want you to promise me that you will tell me if you come to school without eating again. (95) You can't go without food for the whole morning. (96) You won't be able to concentrate on your work at all. (97) If you are hungry, I will find something for you to eat.
[Reassuring learner of confidentiality of conversation], [Offering learner help, food], [Reasoning with learner about why she has to eat]
- L: (98) Enkosi, Titshala.
(98) Thank you, Miss.
[Expressing gratitude]
- T: (99) Kulungile, Lungi. (100) Ngoku hamba uyokufumana ezo chips, ikhefu sele liza kuphela.
(99) Ok, Lungi. (100) Now go and get those chips, break is almost over.
[Acknowledging thanks], [Instructing learner to buy more food]

5.2.4.15.1 Cognitive complexity analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

The references to time and space found in this task are few and non-essential in nature. These references occur in low frequency, rather than high frequency in the same segment and not essential for the successful completion of the task. Temporal references occur in tasks such as the following: sentence 9 (**ekugqibeleni kweklasi** / "at the end of the class"), 15 (**ekuseni namhlanje** / "this morning"), 30 (**izolo** / "yesterday") and 53 (**kwiinyanga ezimbalwa ezigqithileyo** / "a couple of months ago"). Examples of spatial references are found in sentences such as the following: sentence 32 (**endlwini** / "in the house"), 40 (**ekhaya** / "at home") and 88 (**phambi komabonakude** / "in front of the TV"; and also **egumbini lam lokulala** / "to my room").

[- no reasoning]:

This task does require reasoning from the participants. In sentences 40 – 74 the teacher and the learner are reasoning about why the learner is feeling unwell and about why there was no food at home that morning for the learner to eat. The teacher uses words like **kutheni** ("why") and **ngoba kutheni** ("why") in an attempt to discover the reason why the learner came to school without having eaten. An example of reasoning is also found in sentences 48 and 49: (48) **Lungi, kwakufuneka undithembe kwaye undixelele ukuba kuqhubeka ntoni. (49) Ngapha koko andisayi kukwazi ukukunceda.** ("*(48) Lungi, you will have to trust me and tell me what is going on. (49) Otherwise I won't be able to help you.*") In these sentences the teacher reasons with the learner about why it is important for her to tell what the problem is. The amount of reasoning required to perform this task successfully is such that a classification of [-no reasoning] is made.

[- here-and-now]:

Task participants are required to refer to events in the past and the future, and also that took place in other physical settings. Examples of the Past Tense are found in sentences such as 14-16, 18-19 and 29-30. Examples of the Future Tense are found in sentences 54 and 99.

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this task it is assumed that participants will be given planning time prior to performing the task. The participant in the role of the teacher will need time to plan how to approach the learner, how convince the learner to trust him or her, and how to assist the learner once the learner's problem has been identified. The participant taking the role of the learner will need time to plan how to gradually divulge information to the teacher and what to say about the situation at home.

[+ prior knowledge]:

Apart from the general information given in the task instruction, i.e. that there is a problem with alcohol abuse at the learner's home, no prior knowledge is provided. Participants will have to rely on their own knowledge of similar situations in order to complete this task successfully. Not much specific knowledge about alcohol abuse is required to perform the task. Given the fact that the participants are student teachers, it can be assumed that they will bring sufficient prior knowledge to the task. The amount and nature of the prior knowledge needed is relatively little and general, and for this reason is considered as contributing to the cognitive complexity of the task. For this reason a classification of [+ prior knowledge] is made.

[- single task]:

This task requires of the participants to perform multiple tasks. The participant in the role of the teacher will have to plan ahead while speaking how to keep asking questions until the learner reveals the information required. The participant taking the role of the teacher will also have to plan ahead how to react to the information that the participant in the role of the learner reveals to him or her. In order to make the task realistic, the participant in the role of the learner will also have to perform

multiple tasks in that he or she will have to plan ahead while speaking how much information to reveal to the teacher with each question asked.

Based on the above analysis this task can be classified as most resembling quadrant 3 tasks in Robinson's (2005) framework. With the exception of [+ few elements] and [- single task], this task displays all the characteristics of a quadrant 3 tasks, i.e. tasks with low performative and high developmental complexity.

5.2.4.15.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of mostly short exchanges between the two participants, typically taking the form of the teacher requesting information and the learner supplying it. In this section a selection of syntactically complex sentences will be analyzed.

Sentences 1-8 are short, monoclausal sentences. Sentence 8 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyabona** ("I see") followed by the complement clause **ukuba ikhona** ("that there is"). In sentence 9 the main clause **ndicela** ("I ask/please") is followed by the complement clause **uhlale** ("you stay"). This is followed by the infinitive complement clause **ukwenzela** ("to make that"), after which follows a further complement clause **ukuba sizokuba**, consisting of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the future tense verb **sizokuba** ("we will be").

Sentence 11 starts with the imperative mood clause **Yiza** ("come"), followed by the hortative mood complement clause **masihlale** ("let us sit"). Sentence 12 begins with the potential copulative clause **ingaba**, followed by the copular verb **yintoni** ("it is what?") and the relative mood complement clause **ekuhluphayo** ("that is troubling you").

Sentence 14 begins with the potential copulative clause **ingaba** ("it can be") followed by the copular main clause **yinto** ("it is a thing"), after which follows the perfectum relative complement clause **oyityileyo** ("that you have eaten").

Sentence 16 starts with the negative deficient verb **khange** ("I did not") which introduces the subjunctive main clause **nditye** ("I ate").

Sentence 21 consists of the potential copulative clause **ingaba** ("it can be") followed by the the negative deficient verb **akakhange** ("she did not") and the subjunctive mood main clause **akubekele** ("she pack for you"). Sentence 22 starts with the negative subordinate clause **akaqhelanga** ("does she not usually") followed by the indicative mood main clause **kwenzela** ("make for you"). Sentence 24 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyazenzela** ("I make for myself") featuring the reflexive morpheme **-zi-**, followed by the negative complement clause **kodwa bekungekho** ("but there was not"). Sentence 29 starts with the same negative, **bekungekho** ("there was not"), which here functions as the main clause. This is followed by the relative complement clause **endingayitya** ("that I can eat"). Sentence 30 consists of the negative deficient verb **khange** ("I did not") which introduces the subjunctive main clause **athenge** ("she bought").

Sentence 36 starts with the main clause **kulungile** ("it is fine/okay") followed by a second main clause, the hortative mood clause **mandikunike** ("let me give you"). This is followed by the complement clause **emva koko singathetha**, which consists of the conjunction **emva koko** ("after that") and the complement clause **singathetha** ("we can talk"), featuring the potential morpheme **-nga-**. Sentence 37 also starts with the main clause **kulungile** ("it is fine/okay"), after which follows the potential copulative clause **ingaba** ("it can be") and a second main clause, **uziva** ("you feel yourself"), featuring the reflexive morpheme **-zi-**.

In sentence 46 the main verb **ndicinga** ("I think") is followed by the complement clause **ukuba ibikhona**, which features the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the recent past tense clause **ibikhona** ("it was there"). Sentence 47 begins with the conjunction **kodwa** ("but"), which introduces the main clause **akakhange ayokuthenga**, consisting of the negative deficient verb **akakhange** ("she did not") and the infinitive clause **ayokuthenga** ("she went to buy"). Sentence 48 starts with the main clause **kwakufuneka** ("it is necessary that") followed by the subjunctive

mood complement clause **undithembe** ("you trust me"). This is followed by the complement clause **kwaye undixelele** ("and also you tell me"), consisting of the conjunction **kwaye** ("and further") and the subjunctive mood clause **undixelele** ("you tell me"). This is followed by a further complement clause **ukuba kuqhubeka**, which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the indicative mood clause **kuqhubeka** ("it goes"). Sentence 49 starts with the conjunction **ngapha koko** ("otherwise"), which introduces the negative future tense indicative mood main clause **andisayi kukwazi** ("I will not be able"). This is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukukunceda** ("to help you"). Sentence 50 consists of the potential copulative clause **ingaba** ("it can be"), the main passive clause **uphelelwe** ("she was let go"), and the copulative complement clause **ngumsebenzi** ("by work").

Sentence 67 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **uyakuthenga** ("she buys it") followed by the complement clause **kodwa akathengi** ("but she does not buy"). Sentence 69 starts with the main clause **akukho** ("there is not") followed by the complement clause **yokuba woyike** ("that you are afraid"), which in turn takes an infinitive complement clause, **ukundixelele** ("to tell me"). In sentence 70 the negative deficient verb **andisoze** ("I never will") is followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **ndikufake** ("I put you"). Sentence 71 starts with the subjunctive mood main clause **ndixelele** ("tell me"), followed by the potential copulative clause **ingaba** ("it can be") and the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukunakekele** ("she cares for you"). Sentence 72 starts with the deficient verb **uqhele** ("she usually") and the indicative mood main clause **ukwenza** ("she does it"). This is followed by a complement clause **kodwa xa esele** ("but when she drinks"), consisting of the conjunctions **kodwa** ("but") and **xa** ("when") and the subjunctive mood clause **esele** ("she drinks"). This is followed by a further complement clause **kusoloko kungekho** ("there always there is not"), consisting of the deficient verb **kusoloko** ("always") and the negative clause **kungekho** ("there is not").

Sentence 88 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **uyahlala** ("she sits") followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause indicating a successive action **aselele** ("then she drinks"). This is followed by two further complement clauses. First the subjunctive mood clause **emva koko andixelele** ("after that she tells me") and then **ukuba mandiyе** ("that I should go"), which is a hortative mood clause denoting a request. Sentence 89 starts with the negative indicative mood clause **andiyazi** ("I don't know") followed by the hortative mood complement clause **ukuba mandithini** ("that I must do what"), which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the hortative mood clause **mandithini** ("let me do what") which features the question particle **-ni**. Sentence 90 starts with the main clause **ndiyakucela** ("I ask you / please") followed by the negative subjunctive mood complement clause **ungamxeleli** ("you don't tell her"). This is followed by a further complement clause, **ndikuxelele** ("I told you"), which is a perfectum past complement clause. Sentence 91 consists only of the main clause **uya kuba** ("she will be"), which is a future tense indicative mood clause.

Sentence 92 consists of the negative deficient verb **andisoze** ("I would never") followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **ndiyenze** ("I do it"). Sentence 93 starts with the future tense indicative mood main clause **ndiya kuzama** ("I will try"), followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukucinga** ("to think"). Sentence 93 then continues with a second main clause **kufanele** ("it is necessary"), after which follows the complement clause **kubekho** ("there is") and a further complement clause, the relative clause **esiyenzayo** ("that we can do"). Sentence 94 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndifuna** ("I want") followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **undithembise** ("you promise me"). This is followed by the complement clause **ukuba uyakundixelela** ("that you will tell me"), after which follows the subjunctive mood complement clause **xa uze** ("if you come") and a further, negative subjunctive mood complement clause **ungatyanga** ("you did not eat"). Sentence 95 begins with the negative infinitive main clause **awunakuhamba** ("you cannot go") followed by a negative complement clause **ungenanto** ("you don't have a thing") and an infinitive complement clause feature a possive concord, **yokutya** ("of to eat"). Sentence 96 consists of the

negative deficient verb **awusoze** ("you never") followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **uwenze** ("you do it"). Sentence 97 starts with the subordinate clause **ukuba ulambile** ("if you are hungry"), followed by the future tense indicative mood main clause **ndakukuzamela** ("I will find for you"), and the passive relative complement clause **etyiwayo** ("that can be eaten").

5.2.4.15.3 Salient Language Structures

The following are examples of language structures that are vital for the acquisition of the generic moves that have been identified as important for the successful performance of this task:

[Giving Instructions]

Use of the imperative:

Yiza, ... Lungi. ("Come here, ... Lungi.") (11)

Thatha elinye iqebengwana thatha nale R5. ("Take another sandwich ... take this R5.") (83)

Ngoku hamba uyokufumana ezo chips ... ("Now go and get those chips ...") (100)

Use of **-cela** + subjunctive:

Ndicela uhlale emva ekugqibeleni kweklasi ... ("I ask/please stay behind at the end of the class ...") (9)

Hortative:

Yiza, masihlale apha, Lungi. (Come, let us sit here, Lungi.") (11)

[Requesting information]

Use of **Ingaba** ("perhaps"):

Ingaba yintoni ekuhluphayo? ("I can be/perhaps what is it that is bothering you?") (12)

Ingaba yinto oyityileyo? ("It can be/perhaps it is something that you have eaten?") (14)

Ingaba umama wakho akakhange akubekele kutya kwaneleyo? ("It can be/perhaps your mother did not pack you enough food?") (21)

Use of interrogatives:

Yintoni embi? ("What is wrong / bad?") (4)

Kodwa Lungi bekutheni ukuze kungabikho ukutya ... ("But Lungi why was there no food ...") (65)

Ngoba kutheni, Lungi? ("But why, Lungi?") (68)

Use of the negative: Using **khange** ("did not") + subjunctive:

Ingaba umama wakho akakhange akubekele kutya kwaneleyo? ("It can be/perhaps your mother did not pack you enough food?") (21)

Umama wakho khange akunike enye into yokutya? ("Did your mother not give you something to eat?") (25)

Khange utye kwanto wena? ("Did you not eat anything?") (27)

[Comforting learner]

Use of the negative **musa uku- / suku:**

Kulungile, Lungi, sukukhala. ("It's okay, Lungi, don't cry.") (17)

[Expressing sympathy]

Use of **-xolisa** ("to be sorry"):

Ndiyaxolisa ngokuva oko. ("I am sorry to hear that.") (55)

Use of **-khathaza** ("to distress"):

Inoba iya kukhathaza loo nto. ("That must be very distressing for you.") (56)

[Reassuring learner]

Use of **-oyika** ("to be afraid"):

Akukho mfuneko yokuba woyike ukundixelela, Lungi. ("You is no need for you to be afraid to tell me, Lungi.") (69)

[Stating opinion]

Use of **-cinga** ("think"):

Ewe, ndicinga njalo, Titshala. ("Yes, I think so, Miss.") (2), (42), (80)

Ndicinga ukuba imali ibikhona, Titshala. ("I think there was money, Miss.") (46)

[Making suggestions]

Use of the hortative:

Kulungile, mandikunike esinye sonka sam, ... ("Okay, let me give you one of my sandwiches, ...") (36)

Use of **-nga-**:

Ungazithengela ipakethe yeelekese ... ("You can buy yourself a packet of sweets ... ") (84)

[Expressing habitual actions]

Use of the deficient verb **-qhele** ("always"):

Uqhele ukwenza njalo, Titshala, ... ("She usually does, Miss, ...") (72)

Kuqhele ukuba ngeempela-veki. ("It is usually over weekends.") (77)

[Expressing uncertainty]

Use of **-azi** ("to know") in the negative:

Andiyazi ukuba mandithini na ngoku. ("I don't know what to do now.") (89)

[Stating intention]

Use of the future tense:

Ndiya kuzama ukucinga into ... ("I will try to think of something ...") (93)

Ndakukuzamela into etyiwayo. ("I will find you something to eat.") (97)

[Indicating necessity]

Use of **-kufanele** ("it is necessary")

Kufanele kubekho into esiyenzayo. ("There must be something we can do.") (93)

Use of **-kufuneka** ("it is necessary")

Lungi, kwakufuneka undithembe ... ("Lungi, you will have to trust me ...")
(48)

[Expressing inability]

Use of **-na-** + infinitive in the negative:

Awunakuhamba ungenanto yokutya ... ("you can't go without anything to eat ...") (95)

The selection of salient language structures given above displays a variety of sentence constructions, most of which are multi-clausal and highly complex. These constructions would have to be included in focus on form activities and could also be targeted for input enhancement in order to facilitate the acquisition of these constructions.

5.2.4.16 Task 16

Uqaphele ukuba umfundi wakho okwibanga lesi-7 usebenza ngendlela esezantsi kunaleyo aqhele ukusebenza ngayo. Uqgiba kwelokuba uthethe nalo mfundi ngendlela asebenze ngayo yaye umnika neengcebiso ngeendlela zokufunda.

You notice that a learner in your Gr 7 class is performing below what you believe to be his ability. You decide to talk to the learner about his performance and offer to give him some tips about study methods.

Communicative Purposes:

- 1 To discuss learner's poor performance with him/her
- 2 To attempt to motivate learner
- 3 To provide guidelines about study methods to the learner

T = Teacher

J = Joe, a learner

Utitshala: (1) Joe, ndicela uze apha.

Teacher: (1) Joe, come here please.

[Instructing learner to approach]

Joe: (2) Ewe, Titshala.

(2) Yes, sir.

- T: (3) Joe, iziphumo zakho azikhange zibe zezincomekayo kulo nyaka. (4) Ndiyazibuza ukuba kutheni kunjalo?
(3) Joe, your marks haven't been too great so far this year. (4) I'm wondering why that is.
 [Stating dissatisfaction with marks]
- Joe: (5) Andiyazi, Titshala.
(5) I don't know, sir.
- T: (6) Jonga ezi ziphumo zakho ze-Social Science. (7) 58% nyhani awenzanga kangangoko unako. (8) Kwenzeka ntoni nge-test ye-SS?
(6) Look here at your mark for Social Sciences. (7) 58% really isn't the best you can do. (8) What went wrong in the SS paper?
 [Providing examples of low marks], [Asking learner's opinion]
- Joe: (9) Inene andiyazi. (10) Ndifundile, kodwa andikwazanga ukukhumbula yonke into, titshala.
(9) I really don't know. (10) I studied, but I just couldn't remember everything, sir.
 [Expressing uncertainty about reason for poor result]
- T: (11) Ubufunde kakhulu? (12) Lingakanani ixesha olichithileyo ufundela olu hlaziyo? Iyure, iiyure ezimbini?
(11) Did you study enough? (12) How much time did you spend studying for this test? An hour, two hours?
 [Requesting information about time spent studying]
- Joe: (13) Hayi, titshala! (14) Ndichithe iiyure ezine ndifundela olu hlaziyo.
(13) No, sir! (14) I spent at least four hours studying for the test.
 [Providing information about time spent studying]
- T: (15) *Mh, xa kunjalo kufuneka sithethe ngendlela ofunda ngayo. (16) Kufanele ufumane iziphumo ezibhetele ukuba ufunde iiyure ezine zonke. (17) Ndixelele ngendlela ofunda ngayo.*
 (15) Well, in that case we have to talk about how you study. (16) You should be getting much better marks if you studied for four hours. (17) Tell me about how you study.
 [Suggesting discussion about study methods], [Expression of necessity], [Requesting information about current study methods]
- Joe: (18) Ndifunda umsebenzi wonke ndizame ukukhumbula iindawo ezibalulekileyo. (18) *I read over the work and then I try to remember the facts.*
 [Providing information about current study methods]
- T: (19) Ingaba ubhala yonke into phantsi?
(19) Do you write anything down?
 [Requesting further information, raising possibility]

- Joe: (20) Akunjalo, titshala. (21) Ithatha ixesha elide kakhulu into yokubhala phantsi.
(20) Not really, sir. (21) It takes too long to write everything down.
 [Providing information]
- T: (22) Mh, akukho mfuneko yokubhala yonke into phantsi! (23) Ufanele ukuba wenze isishwankathelo sakho ngaphambi kwexesha, apha kwikota, ukwenzela ukuba kusuku olulandela usuku lohlaziyo, ufunde nje isishwankathelo sakho kuphela. (24) Xa usenza isishwankathelo uqala ngokukrwelela iindawo ezibalulekileyo kwincwadi yakho wandule ukuzibhalela ezakho izishwankathelo ezingezi ndawo zikrwelelwe umgca ngaphantsi. (25) Uyaqonda ke?
(22) Well, you don't have to write down everything! (23) You should make a summary for yourself before the time, during the term, so that when you get to the day before the test, you can only learn off your summary. (24) To make a summary you must first underline the important things in your notes and then write down notes for yourself based on the underlined sections. (25) Do you understand?
 [Explaining how to make summary of work]
- Joe: (26) Ewe, titshala. (27) Ndiyabona indlela engandisebenzela ngayo. (28) Ukuba nje ndingafunda isishwankathelo, akukho nto ingako endingayinkqayayo.
(26) Yes, sir. (27) I can see how that could work for me. (28) If I only have to learn the summary, there won't be so much to memorize.
 [Stating understanding of benefits of summary]
- T: (29) Kunjalo kanye. (30) Ngoku masijonge ezinye izifundo kwiziphumo zakho. (31) 63% kwizibalo. (32) Ayikho mbi kakhulu, kodwa ndiqinisekile ukuba uya kwenza ngcono kunoku. (33) Ndixelele ngendlela ofunda ngalo kwezobalo. (34) O, ndixelele ukuba uyifunda phi nanini into yakho eninzi?
(29) Exactly. (30) Now let's look at some of the other learning areas on your report. (31) 63% for Maths. (32) That isn't too bad, but I'm sure you can do better than that. (33) Tell me about how you study for Maths. (34) Oh, and tell me when and where you do most of your studying.
 [Discussing other results], [Requesting further information about study habits]
- Joe: (35) Mh, titshala ndiqhele ukufundela egumbini lam lokulala. (36) Ngesiqhelo ndenza umsebenzi wam ngexesha abazali bam bebukele umabonakude.
(35) Well, sir I usually study in my room. (36) Usually I do my homework while my parents are watching TV.
 [Providing information about study habits]
- T: (37) Lilonke ufunda ebusuku. (38) Hayi emva kwemini?
(37) So you study at night. (38) Not in the afternoon?
 [Determining study time]

- Joe: (39) Akunjalo. (40) Ndidlala ezemidlalo emini, emva koko ndiye kwindawo ekulindwa kuyo kude kube yintsimbi yesihlanu, xa umama wam ezokundilanda. (41) Kuyangxolwa kwindawo ekulindwa kuyo kangangokuba andiwenzi kakhulu umsebenzi wam phaya.
(39) Not really. (40) I do sport in the afternoon and then I go to aftercare until 5 o'clock, when my mother comes to pick me up. (41) It's so noisy at the aftercare centre that I don't get much work done there.
 [Providing information about study time], [Stating reason why not studying during the afternoon]
- T: (42) Ndiyayiqonda loo nto, kodwa ndicinga ukuba kufuneka uqale ngokwenza umsebenzi wakho kwangethuba ebusuku. (43) Ukuba uqala emva kwesidlo sasebusuku, uba sele udiniwe ukwenza ngokuzimisela nokufunda ixesha elide. (44) Ubeka itafile okanye idesika egumbini lakho lokulala?
(42) I understand that, but I really think you have to start with your homework earlier in the evening. (43) If you only start after supper, you are too tired to do your best and to study for long. (44) Do you sit at a desk or a table in your room?
 [Reasoning with learner about why he should start with homework earlier in the day], [Requesting information about place of study]
- Joe: (45) Hayi qho. (46) Ngamanye amaxesha ndihlala kwitafile yasekhithshini, ngamanye amaxesha ndihlale egumbini lokuhlala, ukanti ngamanye amaxesha ndihlala phezu kwebhedi yam.
(45) Not always. (46) Sometimes I sit at the kitchen table, sometimes in the dining room, and sometimes I just sit on my bed.
 [Stating different places where he studies]
- T: (47) Utheth' ukuthi ungqengqa phezu kwebhedi! (48) Ngenye yeengxaki ke leyo. (49) Uqala ngokuhlala ebhedini yakho, emva kwemizuzu embalwa, ugqibela ngokungqengqa kuyo. (50) Ingxaki yeyokuba ukuba umzimba wakho ulele ngecala, ingqondo yakho icinga ukuba lixesha lokuphumla – ngokuqinisekileyo asilo elokufunda! (51) Kungcono xa usoloko ufundela kuloo ndawo inye. (52) Ukuba usoloko usebenzela kuloo ndawo inye, uya kufumanisa ukuba uyifanisa nendawo yokufundela. (53) Xa uhlala phantsi ufunda, uya kukhawuleza uyiqhele futhi uya kukwazi ukufunda nokuqaphela ngcono. (54) Ukuba usoloko ufundela kwindawo enye, uyayiqhela loo ndawo – uyakwazi ukuyiqhela ingxolo kwelo gumbi okanye kuloo ndawo isendlwini. (55) Le yinto ebalulekileyo, ngoba ukuba uyiqhelile ingxolo, ungacinga ngcono ngomsebenzi wakho, ngoba ingqondo ayicingi ngxolo, ayizami kucinga kuqaphela iingxolo ezikhoyo nezisendlwini, ngoba sele isazi ukuba loo ngxolo ivela phi. (56) Ngoku? (57) Ucinga ntoni ngale nto?
(47) You mean you lie on your bed! (48) That is part of the problem. (49) You start off sitting on your bed, and then after a couple of minutes, you end up lying on your bed. (50) The problem with that is that if your body is horizontal, your brain thinks it's time to rest – definitely not to study! (51) It is also better if you always study in the same place. (52) If you always work in the same environment, you will find that you start to associate that place

with studying. (53) So when you sit down to study, you will quickly settle in and you will be able to concentrate better. (54) If you always sit in the same place, you get used to the environment – you get to know the sounds in that room or in that part of the house. (55) This is important, because if you get used to the sounds, you can concentrate better on your work, because your brain isn't concentrating on the sounds, trying to identify the sounds in or around that room, because it already knows where all the sounds are coming from. (56) So? (57) What do you think of all this?

[Reasoning with learner about why a fixed place to study is best], [Reasoning: discussing conditions for best place to study], [Stating benefits of habitual actions], [Asking learner's opinion about information provided]

Joe: (58) Ndiyayiqonda, titshala. (59) Iyavakala kakhulu. (60) Ndingazisusa zonke izinto eziphezu kwetafile legumbi lam lokulala ukwenzela ukuba ndisoloko ndifundela khona.

(58) I understand, sir. (59) It makes a lot of sense. (60) I can clear all the stuff off the desk in my bedroom so that I can always study there.

[Stating understanding and agreement]

T: (61) Uyabona ke! (62) Ngenye yezinto onokuzizama. (63) Ngoku ingaba injani inkuthazo? (64) Ukhuthazeke kangakanani kumsebenzi wakho?

(61) There you go! (62) That is another thing you can try. (63) Now how about motivation? (64) How motivated are you to do well in your school work?

[Enquiring about learner's motivation]

Joe: (65) Andiqondi ukuba andikhuthazekanga, titshala.

(65) I don't think I'm unmotivated, sir.

[Stating lack of understanding for low level of motivation]

T: (66) Kulungile, ukuba ufuna ukwenza kakuhle, kufuneka unyaniseke, uzimisele kakhulu ukhuthazeke. (67) Kufuneka ugcine indlela yempumelelo engqondweni xa ufunda. (68) Zeziphi iindlela zakho zempumelelo? (69) Sele ucingile ngomsebenzi ongafuna ukuwenza xa ukhulile?

(66) Well, if you want to do well, you have to be really, really committed and motivated. (67) You must keep your long-term goals in mind when you study. (68) What are your long-term goals? (69) Have you thought about what job you would want to do when you are grown up?

[Reasoning with learner about why motivation is important], [Stating necessity], [Enquiring about learner's long-term goals]

Joe: (70) Andiqinisekanga, titshala. (71) Kodwa ndicinga ukuba kungaba mnandi ukusebenza ngeekhompyutha.

(70) I'm not sure, sir. (71) But I think it would be nice to work with computers.

[Stating uncertainty about long-term goals], [Stating interest in working with computers]

- T: (72) Kwakuhle ke oko, kodwa ukwenza kakuhle kumsebenzi weekhompuyutha kwakufuneka unesiqinisekiso samabanga aphakamileyo. (73) Kwaye awunakukwazi ukuya eyunivesithi ngezi ziphumo zinje ngezakho, Joe. (74) Kwakufuneka usebenze nzima kakhulu nangcono kunoku. (75) Ndiqinisekile ungayenza loo nto.
(72) That's wonderful, but to do well in the field of computers you will need a post-school qualification. (73) And you won't be able to go to university with marks like yours, Joe. (74) You will have to work a lot harder and a lot smarter. (75) I'm sure you can do it!
 [Reasoning with learner about why good marks are needed], [Expressing necessity], [Motivating learner by assuring him of his own ability]
- Joe: (76) Ndiyavuma, titshala. (77) Ndifuna ukuba ndonyuse iikawusi kwizifundo zam.
(76) I agree, sir. (77) I just need to be a bit more jacked up with my studies.
 [Stating agreement]
- T: (78) Ewe, ujonge kwimpumelelo yakho. (79) Sakuthetha ngezinye iindlela zokufunda ngomso. (80) Ndiqinisekile ukuba bonke abafundi baya kuzuba ukuba ndithethe nabo ngezinye zendlela zokufunda. (81) Ngoku gqibezela umsebenzi, ukwenzela ukuba uqale ngesishwankathelo sesiqendu esilandelayo encwadini.
(78) Yes, and focus on your goals. (79) We can talk about some more study tips tomorrow. (80) I'm sure the rest of the class will also benefit if I talk to them about some more study tips. (81) Now finish up the homework, so that you can start to make a summary of the next chapter in the book!
 [Stating intention to have further discussion on study tips], [Instructin learner to carry on with work]
- Joe: (82) Ndiyabulela ngecebiso lakho, titshala. (83) Ndakuzama ukulungisa izinto ekhaya ukuze ndifunde kakhulu.
(82) Thank you for the advice, sir. (83) I will try to sort out things at home so that I can study more.
 [Expressing gratitude], [Stating intention to be more diligent]
- T: (84) Ndiyavuya ukuyiva loo nto. (85) Sakuthetha kwakhona ngomso.
(84) I'm glad to hear that. (85) We can talk again tomorrow.
 [Stating intention to discuss topic further the next day]

5.2.4.16.1 Cognitive complexity analysis

Analyzed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework for task analysis, this task displays the following characteristics:

[+ few elements]:

This task is classified as having few elements despite the fact that some temporal and spatial references occur. These references are, however, few and they occur separately, which makes it less difficult for participants to distinguish between them. Examples of sentences with temporal references are: sentence 3 (*kulo nyaka* / "this year"), 14 (**iiyure ezine** / "four hours"), 36 (**ngesiqhelo** / "usually") and 40 (**emva kwemini** / "in the afternoon"). Spatial references are found in sentences such as the following: 24 (**kwincwadi yakho** / "in your notes"), 46 (**phezu kwebhediyam** / "on my bed") and 60 (**eziphezu kwetafile legumbi lam lokulala** / "off the desk in my bedroom").

[- no reasoning]:

In order to perform this task successfully participants are required to reason with one another. Words like **ukuba** ("if") and **kuba** ("because") serve as indicators of reasoning taking place. Examples of sentences in which reasoning takes place are sentences 52 and 54. In these sentences the teacher reasons with the learner about why it is important to have a fixed place of study. **(52) Ukuba usoloko usebenzela kuloo ndawo inye, uya kufumanisa ukuba uyifanisa nendawo yokufundela.** ("If you always work in the same environment, you will find that you start to associate that place with studying.") **(54) Ukuba usoloko ufundela kwindawo enye, uyayiqhela loo ndawo – uyakwazi ukuyiqhela ingxolo kwelo gumbi okanye kuloo ndawo isendlwini.** ("If you always sit in the same place, you get used to the environment – you get to know the sounds in that room or in that part of the house.")

[- here-and-now]:

The task participants are required to refer to events that occur in the past and also to events that occur in a different physical location. Examples of the Past Tense are found in sentences 3, 10-12 and 14, while examples of references to places other than that in which the participants find themselves, are found in sentences 44 & 46 where there is reference to the learner's home.

[+ planning]:

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that participants will be given planning time before performing the task. The participant taking the role of the teacher will have to plan how to assist the learner to improve his or her study routine. The participant in the role of the learner will need planning time to decide on the information he or she will be supplying to the teacher's questions about his or her study routine.

[- prior knowledge]:

No prior knowledge is provided in the task instruction. A considerable amount of background knowledge about study skills is, however, required to perform this task successfully. Although it can be assumed that being student teachers the participants will bring some knowledge about study methods to the task, the amount and the nature of the knowledge needed to perform this task successfully are such that this will contribute to the cognitive load of the participants in this task. For this reason a classification of [- prior knowledge] is made.

[- single task]:

This task requires of participants to perform more than one action at a time. The teacher and the learner will have to do considerable planning while performing the task. The teacher will have to plan while speaking which information to give to give to the learner about studying, while the learner will have to plan which information to give to the teacher about his current study habits.

Based on the above classification of characteristics this task can be placed in quadrant 4 of Robinson's (2005) framework for cognitive complexity. With the exception of +few elements and +planning, this task displays all the characteristics of a typical quadrant 4 task. This task will provide high performative and high developmental complexity.

5.2.4.16.2 Analysis of Speech Units

This dialogue consists of mostly short exchanges with a view longer turns in the conversation in which the teacher gives the learner advice about the correct study methods. In what follows a selection of sentences with relatively complex structures will be analyzed for their syntactic complexity.

Sentence 3 consists of the negative deficient verb **azikhange** ("they were not") followed by the subjunctive mood main clause **zibe** ("they were"), followed by the relative complement clause **zezincomekayo** ("that were to praise"). Sentence 4 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyazibuza** ("I ask myself"), featuring the reflexive morpheme **-zi-**. This is followed by the complement clause **ukuba kutheni kunjalo** ("that why this is so").

In sentence 10 the perfectum indicative mood main clause **ndifundile** ("I studied") is followed by the negative subjunctive complement clause **kodwa andikwazanga** ("but I could not"), which in turn takes an infinitive complement clause, **ukukhumbula** ("to remember").

Sentence 15 starts with the complement clause **xa kunjalo** ("if this is so") followed by the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary that"). This followed by two further complement clauses: first the subjunctive mood clause **sithethe** ("we talk") and then the relative complement clause **ofunda** ("that you learn"). In sentence 16 the main clause **kufanele** ("it is necessary") is followed by the subjunctive mood subordinate clause **ufumane** ("you get"). This is followed by **ezibhetele** ("that is better"), a relative complement clause, and **ukuba ufunde** ("if you studies"), a subjunctive mood complement clause. Sentence 17 starts with the subjunctive mood main clause **ndixelele** ("tell me") after which follows a relative complement clause **ofunda** ("that you study").

In sentence 27 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyabona** ("I see") is followed by the complement clause **ukuba ingandisebenzela**, which consists of

the the conjunction **ukuba** ("that") and the indicative mood clause **ingandisebenzela** ("it can work for me"). Sentence 28 starts with the complement clause **ukuba ndingafunda** ("if I can learn"), followed by the negative main clause **akukho** ("there is not"). This is followed by the complement clause **ingako** ("it is such"), which takes a relative complement clause **endingayikqayayo** ("that I must memorize").

In sentence 35 the infinitive main clause **ukufundela** ("to study") is introduced by the deficient verb **ndiqhele** ("I always"). Sentence 36 consists of the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndenza** ("I do"), followed by the subjunctive mood complement clause **bebukele** ("they watch").

Sentence 40 consists of two main clauses. First the indicative mood clause **ndidlala** ("I play") and then **emva koko ndiye** ("after that I go"), consisting of the conjunction **emva koko** ("after that") and then the subjunctive mood complement clause **ndiye** ("I go"), which denotes a successive action. This is followed by a copular subordinate clause **yintsimbi yesihlanu** ("it is 5 o'clock") and a further complement clause **xa ezokundilanda** ("when she comes to fetch me"), which is a subjunctive mood verb contracted with an infinitive verb. Sentence 41 starts with the present tense indicative mood main clause **kuyanxola** ("it makes noise/it is noisy"), after which follows a negative indicative mood complement clause **andiwenzi** ("I don't do it").

Sentence 47 begins with the contracted complement clause **utheht'ukuthi** ("you speak to say / you mean"), which consists of the indicative mood verb **uthetha** ("you speak") and the infinitive verb **ukuthi** ("to say"). This introduces the main clause of this sentence, i.e. **ungqengqa** ("you recline/lie"). In sentence 49 the indicative mood main clause **uqala** ("you start") is followed by an infinitive mood complement clause **ngokuhlala** ("by sitting"). This is followed by a second main clause **ugqibela** ("you end"), which is also followed by an infinitive mood complement clause **ngokungqengqa** ("by reclining"). Sentence 50 starts with the subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba ulele** ("if you lie down"), followed by

the present tense indicative mood main clause **icinga** ("it thinks"). This is followed by the copular complement clause **ukuba lixesha** ("that it is time"), which takes a further complement clause, **lokuphumla** ("of to rest"), which is an infinitive clause also containing a possessive concord. The second part of sentence 50 consists of two complement clauses: first the relative infinitive clause **ngokuqinisekileyo** ("for certain") and secondly **asililo elokufunda** ("not of to study"), which consists of a copulative (**ayilo** / "it is not it"), and the possessive concord **la** (referring to the noun **ixesha** used earlier in the sentence) combined with the infinitive verb **ukufunda** ("to study"). Sentence 51 consists of the main clause **kungcono** ("it is better"), followed by the complement clause **xa kusoloko ufundela** ("if you always study"), which consists of the conjunction **xa** ("if"), the deficient verb **ukusoloko** ("you always") and the situative mood verb **ufundela** ("you study"). Sentence 52 starts with the complement clause **ukuba usoloko usebenzela** ("if you always work"), which consists of the conjunction **ukuba** ("if"), the deficient verb **usoloko** ("you always") and the situative mood verb **usebenzela** ("you study"). This is followed by the future tense indicative mood main clause **uya kufumanisa** ("you will find"), after which follows the complement clause **ukuba uyifanisa** ("that you will associate it") and the possessive infinitive clause **yokufundela** ("of to study").

Sentence 66 begins with the complement clause **ukuba ufuna** ("if you want"), followed by the infinitive clause **ukwenza** ("to do"). After this follows the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"), which takes three subjunctive mood complement clauses: first **unyaniseke** ("you be certain"), then **uzimisele** ("you be committed") and lastly **ukhuthazeke** ("you be motivated"). Sentence 67 starts with the main clause **kufuneka** ("it is necessary"), which takes the subjunctive mood complement clause **ugcine** ("you keep"). This followed by a further complement clause **xa ufunda** ("when you study"), which consists of the conjunction **xa** ("when") and the situative mood verb **ufunda** ("you study"). Sentence 68 is a monoclausal sentence only consisting of the copular verb **zeziphi** ("they are which"). Sentence 69 starts with the main clause **sele ucingile** ("already you have thought") which consists of the deficient verb **sele** ("already") and the perfectum indicative mood verb **ucingile** ("you have thought"). This is followed by the relative

complement clause **ongafuna** ("that you would like") and the infinitive complement clause **ukuwenza** ("to do it"). Sentence 69 is concluded with the perfectum indicative mood complement clause **xa ukhulile** ("when you have grown").

Sentence 79 consists of the contracted future tense indicative mood main clause **sakuthetha** ("we will talk") and a possessive infinitive complement clause **zokufunda** ("of to learn"). Sentence 80 starts with the main clause **ndiqinisekile** ("I am sure") followed by the complement clause **ukuba bakufumana** ("that they will benefit"). This is followed by two further complement clauses: first the subjunctive mood clause **ndithethe** ("I speak") and then **zokufunda** ("of to study") which is an infinitive clause featuring a possessive concord. Sentence 81 starts with the imperative mood main clause **gqibezela** ("finish"). This is followed by an infinitive complement clause **ukwenzela** ("so that") and a subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuba uqale** ("that you start"). Sentence 81 is concluded by a relative complement clause **esilandelayo** ("that follows").

Sentence 83 begins with the contracted future tense indicative mood main clause **ndakuzama** ("I will try"), which takes the infinitive complement clause **ukulungisa** ("to sort out"). This is followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause **ukuze ndifunde** ("so that I study"). In sentence 84 the present tense indicative mood main clause **ndiyavuya** ("I am glad") takes an infinitive complement clause **ukuyiva** ("to hear it").

5.2.4.16.3 Salient Language Structures

The following are examples of constructions that are necessary for the acquisition of the generic moves that were identified for this task:

[Expressing necessity]

Use of **-fanele** ("necessary"):

Kufanele ufumane iziphumo ezibhetele ... ("It is necessary that you get better marks ... ") (16)

Ufanele ukuba wenze isishwankathelo sakho ... ("You should/must do your summary ...") (23)

Use of **kufuneka** ("it is necessary that") + subjunctive:

... kufuneka unyaniseke ... ("it is necessary that you be sure ...") (66)

[Expressing successive actions]

Use of the subjunctive mood:

Ndifunda umsebenzi wonke ndizame ukukhumbula iindawo ezibalulekiyo. ("I read over the work and then I try to remember the facts.") (18)

[Making suggestions]

Use of the hortative mood:

Ngoku masijonge ezinye izifundo ... ("Now let's look at some other learning areas ...") (30)

[Giving instructions]

Use of the imperative mood:

Jonga ezi ziphumo zakho ... ("Look at these marks of yours ...") (6)

[Requesting information]:

Use of **ingaba** ("it can be / perhaps"):

Ingaba ubhala yonke into phantsi? ("Do you write everything down?") (19)

Use of interrogatives:

Lingakanani ixesha olichithileyo ufundela olu hlaziyo? ("How much time did you spend studying for this test?") (12)

[Expressing opinion]

Use of **-cinga** ("to think"):

... kodwa ndicinga ukuba kufuneka uqale ngokwenza umsebenzi wakho ... ("but I really think you have to start with your homework ...") (42)

Use of **-qonda** ("to think"):

Andiqondi ukuba andikhuthazekanga ... ("I don't think I'm unmotivated ...") (65)

[Expressing uncertainty]

Use of **-azi** ("to know") in the negative:

Andiyazi. ("I don't know.") (5)

Inene andiyazi. ("I really don't know.") (9)

Use of **-qiniseka** ("to be certain") in the negative:

Andiqinisekanga. ("I am not certain.")

[Expressing certainty]

Use of **-qiniseka** ("to be certain")

... kodwa ndiqinisekile ukuba uya kwenza ngcono kunoku. ("... but I am sure you can do better than that." (32)

... ngokuqinisekileyo ayilolokufunda ("certainly not to study")

[Expressing inability]

Use of **-azi** ("to know/can") in the negative:

... kodwa andikwazanga ukukhumbula ("... I could not remember") (10)

[Reasoning]

Use of **ukuba** ("if"):

Ukuba nje ndingafunda isishwankathelo, akukho nto ingako endingayinqayayo. ("If I only have to learn the summary, there won't be so much to memorize.") (28)

Ukuba uqala emva kwesidlo ..., ube udiniwe ukwenza ngokuzimisela ... ("If you start after supper, you are too tired to do your best ...") (43)

Ukuba usoloko usebenzela kuloo ndawo inye, uya kufumanisa ukuba uyifanisa nendawo yokufundela. ("If you always work in the same place you will find that you associate that place with studying.") (52)

[Expressing habitual action]

Use of **-qhele** ("always"):

Ndiqhele ukufundela egumbini lam lokulala. ("I usually study in my bedroom.") (35)

Ngesiqhelo ndenza umsebenzi wam ... ("I usually do my homework ...") (36)

[Stating importance]

Use of **-balulekile** ("be important"):

Le yinto ebalulekileyo, ngoba ukuba uyiqhelile ingxolo, ... ("This is important because if you get used to the sounds ...") (55)

The salient language features listed above are vital for the successful performance of this task. These structures should be included in focus on form activities that can be utilized to create opportunities for repetition and reinforcement.

5.3 CALL Design and Input Enhancement through Focus on Form

Design-based Research (DBR) was reviewed in Section 4.4.4 of Chapter 4 of this study and identified as being particularly suitable for use in instructional environments that are as constantly subjected to change and innovation as CALL second and foreign language classrooms. Yutdhana (2005:175) states that "DBR allows us to explore both technology artefacts and learning environments". It was stated in Chapter 4 that the cyclical nature of the design-based approach to research (i.e. design, implementation, evaluation, analysis and redesign) makes this research approach ideally suited to bring together the theory of second language teaching and learning with the practical aspects encountered in CALL syllabus and materials design. This cyclical mode of operation also makes it possible to investigate both the products and the processes involved in CALL second language teaching and learning. Given these features and obvious benefits for accurately describing the processes and actions involved in CALL second language teaching and learning environments, a DBR approach to the process of CALL materials development and subsequent implementation is advocated in this study. Further motivation for the adoption of DBR is that its emphasis on the actual processes and actions involved in the learning environment makes it the ideal approach for investigating second language courses for specific purposes.

In Section 3.3.6 of Chapter 3 a model for LSP course design which incorporates CALL by Chanier (1996) was reviewed. Chanier's model is based on a task-based approach to second language teaching and learning and is therefore in line with the overwhelming majority of current research into second language methodology, as was reviewed in Chapter 3. In the current section a procedure for CALL design based on Chanier's model will be proposed and contextualized within a DBR approach. Aspects of the model relating to the grading and sequencing of tasks as well as the incorporation of focus on form using CALL will be investigated. The different steps in the proposed procedure will be illustrated by means of reference to the analyses conducted in the previous section of this chapter. The analyses undertaken above were done in accordance with the proposal by Dudley-Evans and

St John (1998:125) that a linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre-based analysis should be conducted of the language that is used in the target situation (see Sections 3.3.3 and 3.3.4 of Chapter 3 of this study).

The model illustrating the procedures involved in the design of tasks for use in an LSP CALL environment shown on the next page indicates that the design stage consists of seven steps. The first step involves doing a needs analysis to determine the communicative needs of the learners. The tasks analysed in Section 5.2.4 of this chapter were selected from a range of conversations that were written based on the communication needs identified in a survey conducted in a number of primary schools chosen randomly in the Cape Peninsula (see Appendix 1&2). The survey was done amongst primary school teachers who are non-mother tongue speakers of isiXhosa and who indicated that they would like to be able to communicate with the isiXhosa mother-tongue speaking learners in their classes.

The second step, Designing Main Tasks, involves obtaining authentic or semi-authentic texts from the target communication situation. Although the texts constructed for the purpose of this study are not transcriptions of authentic conversations, the language and the content they contain, as is realised in the generic moves identified in the discourse analysis, closely resemble that which would be used in real-world classrooms where these types of conversations take place. The selection and design of the main tasks represent the final outcome that learners have to reach towards the end of the course for which the design is done. As such, the tasks selected and designed at this stage of the procedure should resemble real-world target tasks as closely as possible.

The third step in the design procedure involves analysing the authentic or near-authentic tasks obtained during Step 2 in terms of discourse elements, cognitive complexity, syntactic complexity, and also to determine salient language structures. For the discourse analysis of the tasks used in this study the generic moves were indicated with square brackets, e.g. [Requesting information].

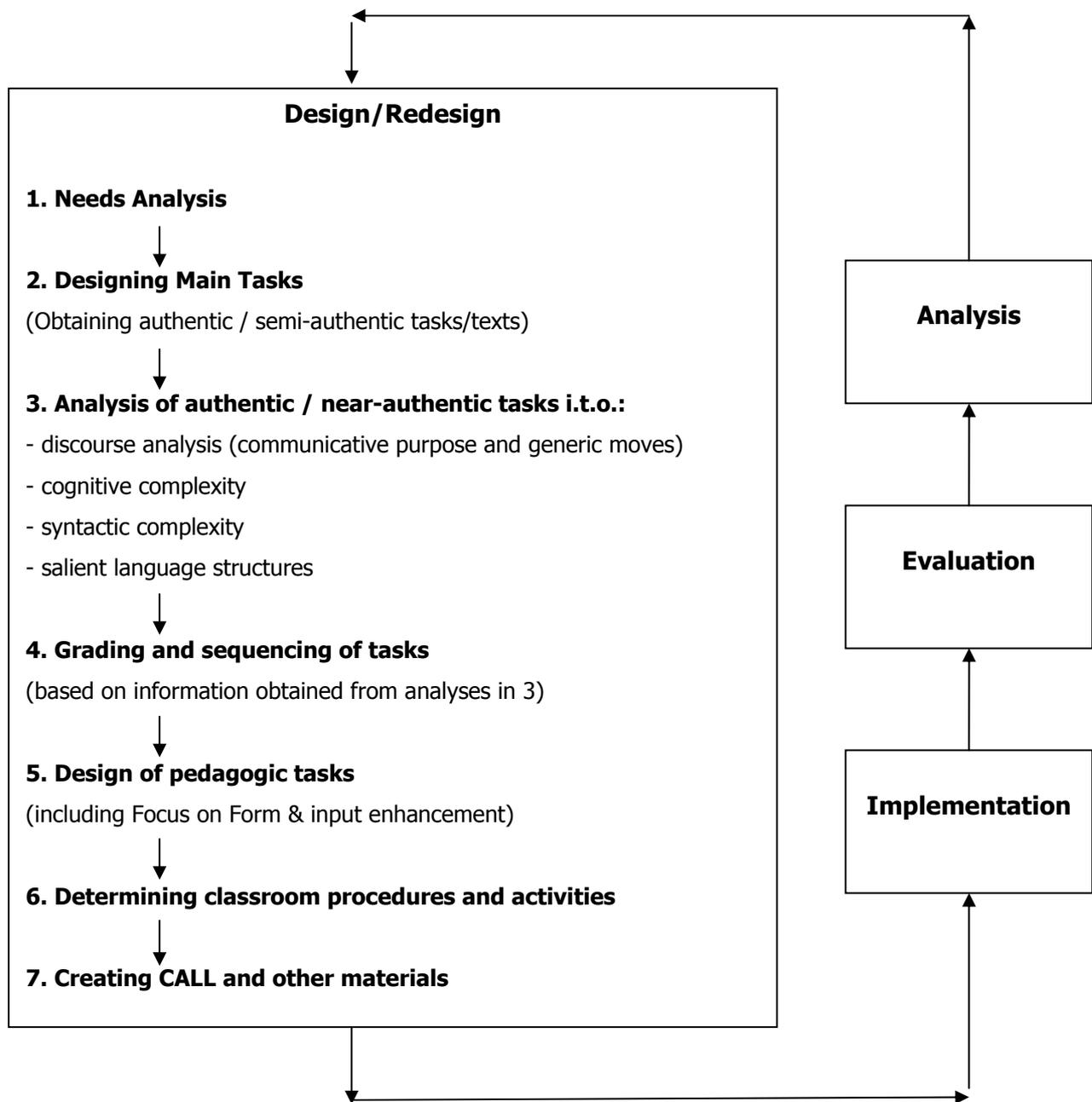


Table 5.2

Procedure for the Design of LSP CALL within a DBR Approach

Collectively these generic moves provide the course/syllabus designer with a comprehensive picture of the kind of language that non-isiXhosa mother tongue speaking teachers need if they want to communicate with their isiXhosa mother tongue speaking learners and/or their parents. Viewed in totality the generic moves identified for each dialogue constitute the communicative purpose of that dialogue.

The second kind of analysis proposed for Step 3 of the design procedure involves analysing the authentic/near-authentic tasks for their cognitive complexity. In this study the cognitive complexity analysis was done using the framework of Robinson (2005), as was discussed in Section 5.2.1 above. The cognitive analysis of tasks is undertaken in order to grade and sequence tasks. Classifying a task according to the four quadrants of Robinson's framework enables the course designer to grade the task, in other words to determine the relative level of cognitive complexity of the task. Comparing the cognitive complexity analyses of several tasks would then make it possible to sequence different tasks. As was explained in Section 5.2.1, quadrant 1 tasks in Robinson's framework (i.e. tasks with lower cognitive complexity) would be placed at the beginning of a course. By first increasing the resource dispersing variables of a task (e.g. by reducing or removing planning time and prior knowledge and by expecting learners to perform multiple tasks) the overall cognitive complexity can be increased gradually. Once all the resource dispersing variables have been adapted, the resource directing resources can be adjusted gradually in order to increase overall cognitive complexity until all the dimensions correspond with those specified in Robinson's quadrant 4. The rationale for gradually increasing the cognitive complexity of tasks was outlined in Section 5.2.1 above. It was explained that according to Robinson's theory of cognitive complexity (2005 & 2007) increasing cognitive complexity by means of resource-directing variables is believed to create opportunities for learners to pay attention to accuracy and complexity of their output. Robinson proposes, as does Skehan (2003), that manipulating task features in such a way that learners have to pay more attention to the complexity and accuracy of their output will create conditions under which learners will be obliged to focus on form. Focus on form, as discussed in Chapter 2 and elsewhere in this study, is believed to facilitate noticing, which in turn is believed to be necessary for uptake and

acquisition to take place. In Step 4 below the use of the data obtained in this study to grade and sequence tasks will be discussed in further detail.

The third type of analysis proposed in Step 3 of the design model is the analysis of speech units, which is undertaken to determine the syntactic complexity of the speech units in the different tasks. The syntactic complexity of tasks, according to Ellis (2003b) also needs to be taken into consideration when attempting to grade or sequence tasks. Apart from grading and sequencing, a further use of a syntactic complexity analysis is that this gives the course designer a good indication of the type and level of language learners will be exposed to in a particular target communication setting. This type of information is needed for the design of classroom activities and pedagogic tasks – see Step 5 below. In Chapter 3 (Section 3.2.5.3.1) of this study it was pointed out that according to Ellis (2003b) the amount of subordination in a text should be taken into account when determining the code complexity of a task. It was also pointed out in Chapter 3 that in tasks where the language is considered too syntactically complex for the learners' current level, it is preferable to make use of input elaboration techniques rather than to simplify the language. Input elaboration and specifically CALL input elaboration techniques, together with other input enhancement techniques, will be discussed later in this section.

The fourth kind of analysis recommended in Step 3 of the design procedure is the identification of the salient language structures realised in the generic moves that were identified for each task. These salient language structures are needed for the focus on form aspects of pedagogic task and activity design.

Viewed in totality, the information obtained from the four types of analysis proposed in Step 3 of the design model provides the course designer with an overview of the features of the language learners are likely to need (in terms of both comprehension and production) in the real-world situation. The generic moves identified serve as a basis in course design for the selection of topics and task content. Using the information obtained from the generic moves as the point of departure for topic and

content selection in course design will ensure that the language to which learners are exposed in the classroom will largely resemble that which they are likely to come across in the real-world situation they are being prepared for. As was mentioned above, information about the cognitive complexity of the tasks can be used to grade and sequence tasks. This is done in Step 4 of the design process.

The importance of task grading and sequencing was discussed in Section 5.2.1 of this chapter. It was pointed out that providing learners with tasks that gradually increase in cognitive complexity is believed to force learners to focus on the accuracy and complexity of their output which leads increased noticing of salient structures. Noticing is believed to be crucial for interlanguage development to take place.

Various proposals for the grading and sequencing of tasks were discussed in Section 3.2.5 of Chapter 3. It was said that Skehan (1996) proposes that the code complexity, the cognitive complexity as well as what he terms 'the communicative stress' have to be considered when grading and sequencing tasks. Also in Section 3.2.5 of Chapter 3 a detailed discussion of Robinson's triadic framework (2001) for the grading and sequencing of tasks was given. This framework consists of cognitive factors (referred to as 'task complexity'), interactional factors (termed 'task conditions') and learner factors (called 'task difficulty'). As was stated in Chapter 3, Robinson (2001) was uncertain about how the three sets of factors he proposed would interact with one another. In his later work (e.g. Robinson 2005 and 2007) he rejected the latter two sets of factors in favour of using only cognitive complexity as a basis for the grading and sequencing of tasks. Robinson's 2005 model (as discussed in Section 5.2.1 of this chapter) was adopted for this study and was used for the cognitive complexity analyses done for the tasks used in this study. The third and final framework for the grading and sequencing of tasks reviewed in Chapter 3 is that of Ellis (2003b). As was explained in Chapter 3 Ellis's framework is more detailed than those of Robinson (2001a&b) and Skehan (1996), but because no research exists to explain and predict possible interactions between the different sets of criteria, this framework is of limited use because it can only be used to generate

taxonomical lists of factors. This fact served as further motivation for the adoption of the framework proposed by Robinson (2005) for use in this study.

Step 5 in the design procedure entails the design of pedagogic tasks. Information about the syntactic complexity and the key language structures is needed for the design of pedagogic tasks and classroom activities, particularly with the aim of including focus on form elements into these tasks and to enhance input. It was explained in Chapters 2 and 3 of this study that focus on form is considered vital for successful second language acquisition. In Chapter 2 various options for achieving focus on form were reviewed. In Chapter 4 input enhancement through the use of multimedia was proposed as an ideal way of ensuring focus on form in task input.

Input can be enhanced by making it more salient, by modifying it and by elaborating on certain aspects of the input (Chapelle, 2003). Input salience can be achieved by making the targeted structures more noticeable to the learner, e.g. by highlighting them on the screen through the use of colour or bolded text, by providing pop-up translations or explanations of structures, and by providing the possibility to listen to the pronunciation of a selected item. Input can also be made more salient by increasing the frequency of the targeted structures in the task or activity. Increased frequency and repetition will increase opportunities for practice and reinforcement, which in turn will improve the chances of noticing and eventually of uptake and acquisition taking place. The analysis of authentic texts to determine the generic moves and also the language structures that are used to realise these moves can provide the materials designer with valuable information for making input more salient. If a specific generic move is identified as being of particular importance in a certain task, the syntactic complexity analysis together with the identification of the salient language structures that are realised in that move can be used to identify important structures or vocabulary that could be made more salient in the task.

The second option for input enhancement is input modification. Input can be modified in order to make it more accessible or easier to understand for the learner. In a CALL environment modifications can be made to a text by, for example, adding

pop-up images or short video clips that will clarify the meaning of lexical items, or by making translations in the learners' first language available that learners can click on or that will pop up if learners slide the cursor across the word or phrase. Word definitions in the target language can be given in a glossary or translations in the first language could be added in a glossary, e.g. to the left or right of the text on screen. Input can also be modified by adapting sentence structures and vocabulary to better suit the learners' current level of development. Syntactic complexity analyses, such as the analyses conducted in this study are most useful for input modification purposes. The syntactic complexity analysis provides detailed information about various aspects of the syntactic complexity, e.g. the tense and mood of the sentences, as well as information about the number of possible subordinate clauses. All of this information can be used when modifying texts during the design stage. For example, sentences that contain a number of subordinate clauses could be simplified by breaking them up into shorter sentences with fewer clauses.

The third input enhancement technique discussed by Chapelle (2003) is input elaboration. As explained in Chapter 4, this entails adding to an original text or extending the text with the aim of making it more accessible to the learner. The rationale is that texts prepared for second language learners should not always be simplified. Simplifying texts will make them more accessible to learners, which can be beneficial for beginner learners, but in order to provide learners with rich input, elaboration rather than simplification should be used. Decisions about which aspects of a text should be elaborated on can be informed by using the information obtained in Step 3, from the discourse analysis, the syntactic complexity analysis as well as information about salient language structures that are found in a text.

Step 6 of the design procedure entails determining classroom procedures and activities. This should be done according to established methodological principles that have been developed and researched over time. In Section 3.2.8 of Chapter 3 of this study an overview was given of what task-based methodology involves. It was stated that most research to date favours a three-part methodological sequence

featuring pre-task activities, the tasks themselves and then also some post-task activities. In Section 3.2.6 of Chapter 3 various options for the inclusion of focus on form in all three methodological stages were discussed. Focus on form in a Task-based CALL methodology was discussed in Section 4.9 of Chapter 4.

The final step in the design procedure involves the creation of CALL and other learning and teaching materials. In Step 7 all the information obtained during the previous six steps is brought together in order to create materials that will be ideally suited to the learners' specific needs and optimally effective in terms of teaching and learning in the specific instructional environment for which the materials are being prepared.

The design stage is followed by the implementation of the materials and procedures that have been developed. In line with the design-based approach advocated in this study, the implementation stage will be followed by the evaluation of the course and the subsequent analysis of information obtained during the evaluation stage. The results of the analysis will then be used to redesign whatever aspects of the course have been identified as being in need of adaptation.

5.4 Exemplification of DBR for CALL LSP for isiXhosa second language for teachers

This section will aim to provide an exemplification of the design process established and discussed in the previous section. It will be shown how the information obtained from the four types of analysis (Step 3) of the tasks used for this study can be used to grade and sequence tasks (Step 4) and to facilitate focus on form (Step 5). The tasks analysed in Section 5.2.4 were listed in random order and analysed in terms of their generic move structure, cognitive complexity, syntactic complexity and for salient language structures. In this section a summary of the cognitive complexity dimensions for each task will be given, as well as a summary of the overall cognitive complexity of the tasks. This will be followed by an exemplification of how the task dimensions and the information obtained from the syntactic complexity analysis and through the identification of the salient language structures of the tasks used in this study can be used to grade and sequence tasks.

Table 5.3 below provides a summary of the task features for each of the sixteen tasks in this study analysed in terms of their cognitive complexity. It was explained in Section 5.2.1 of this chapter how the task dimensions are grouped according to resource directing (or developmental) dimensions and resource depleting/dispersing (or performative) dimensions. Robinson's (2005) model was further discussed in terms of how different combinations of the two sets of task dimensions can be used to classify tasks into the four quadrants of Robinson's framework. In Table 5.3 below the task features are listed in terms of their +/- classifications and in the right-hand column the quadrant classification is indicated.

Considering that Robinson (2007:22) considers cognitive complexity as the basis according to which tasks should be sequenced, the tasks used in this study can be graded and sequenced according to their classification into the different quadrants (right-hand column). Tasks classified as falling into Quadrant 1 are considered easier

Task nr	Resource directing / development dimensions	Resource depleting (dispersing)/ performative dimensions	Quadrant
1	+few elements - no reasoning +here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	1
2	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
3	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
4	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
5	+few elements - no reasoning +here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	1
6	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
7	- few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
8	+few elements +no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	1
9	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
10	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
11	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
12	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
13	- few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
14	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
15	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
16	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4

Table 5.3 Summary of task dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis

than tasks in the other quadrants because Quadrant 1 tasks display low levels of performative as well as developmental complexity. According to Table 5.3 all the features of Task 1 correspond with the Quadrant 1 features of Robinson's framework, except for [-no reasoning] and [-single task]. Task 1 would therefore be considered for placement at the beginning of a course when compared with tasks that display more complex cognitive features (Quadrants 2, 3 and 4).

Quadrant	Task Features	Task Nr
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> +few elements +no reasoning +here-and-now +planning +prior knowledge +single task 	<p>low developmental complexity</p> <p>low performative complexity</p> <p>1, 5, 8</p>
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> +few elements +no reasoning +here-and-now -planning -prior knowledge -single task 	<p>low developmental complexity</p> <p>high performative complexity</p>
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -few elements -no reasoning -here-and-now +planning +prior knowledge +single task 	<p>high developmental complexity</p> <p>low performative complexity</p> <p>2, 4, 6, 7, 10, 14, 15</p>
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -few elements -no reasoning -here-and-now -planning -prior knowledge -single task 	<p>high developmental complexity</p> <p>high performative complexity</p> <p>3, 9, 11, 12, 13, 16</p>

Table 5.4
Summary of results of cognitive complexity analyses of tasks used in this study

Table 5.4 above gives a summary of the results of the cognitive complexity analyses done in Section 5.2.4 of this chapter. The right-hand column of this table indicates how the different tasks, based on their cognitive complexity, are placed in the different quadrants. None of the tasks analysed for this study displayed dimensions associated with quadrant 2 tasks. A possible explanation for this could be the fact that for the purposes of this study it was assumed that for all the tasks planning time would be provided prior to task performance, therefore resulting in a [+prior knowledge] classification. Furthermore, the fact that most of the tasks used for this

study are relatively general as far as content knowledge is concerned has resulted in a classification of [+prior knowledge] for many of the tasks. Both [+planning] and [+prior knowledge] are task features associated with low performative complexity, and as such are features that will not contribute to tasks being classified as Quadrant 2 tasks, but rather as Quadrant 1 tasks.

According to Robinson's framework the sixteen tasks can be graded and sequenced in terms of the quadrant rating allocated to the tasks. The tasks that can be considered for placement at the beginning of a course would be tasks 1, 5 and 8, followed by the Quadrant 3 tasks, after which the Quadrant 4 tasks (displaying the most cognitive complexity) would follow. In order to sequence the sixteen tasks to provide a gradual increase in cognitive complexity, some of the dimensions of tasks in Quadrant 1 or in Quadrant 3 could be adjusted in order to increase or reduce their complexity. In doing so, a more gradual increase in cognitive complexity from Quadrant 1 tasks to Quadrant 3 tasks can be achieved. For example, Task 8 could be made more complex by adjusting its resource dispersing features: by not giving participants planning time and adjusting the task content so that learners will not have or receive adequate prior knowledge, the features of Task 8 will be adjusted sufficiently for it to be classified as a Quadrant 2 task.

In order to grade and sequence tasks that fall within the same quadrant, the task features of the individual tasks have to be compared. Table 5.5 indicates that the Quadrant 1 tasks in this study all have the same resource depleting dimensions. The resource directing features of tasks 1 and 5 are identical, while those of task 8 are slightly different. Robinson's framework does not distinguish between the individual resource directing (or depleting) features in terms of grading and sequencing, i.e. all task features carry an equal weighting. The grading and sequencing of tasks is determined by the number of features that are allocated a [+] or [-] rating. For internal sequencing (of tasks within the same quadrant) the relative syntactic complexity of individual tasks could be compared as well as factors such as how familiar learners are with the language structures and vocabulary of the tasks.

Task nr	Task features		Quadrant
	Resource directing / development dimensions	Resource depleting (dispersing)/ performative dimensions	
1	+few elements - no reasoning +here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	1
5	+few elements - no reasoning +here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	1
8	+few elements +no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	1

Table 5.5 Dimensions of Quadrant 1 tasks

Table 5.6 below indicates that with the exception of Task 7 all the Quadrant 3 tasks have identical features. Task 7 displays the same features as the other tasks, but was rated as also having [-few elements]. This task therefore has one more [-] rating than the other Quadrant 3 tasks, which indicates that Task 7 will provide learners with more resource directing complexity than the other Quadrant 3 tasks. As such this task would be placed last of the Quadrant 3 tasks.

Task nr	Task features		Quadrant
	Resource directing / development dimensions	Resource depleting (dispersing)/ performative dimensions	
2	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
4	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
6	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
7	- few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
10	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
14	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3
15	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning +prior knowledge - single task	3

Table 5.6 Dimensions of Quadrant 3 tasks

The Quadrant 4 tasks (see Table 5.7 below) all display the same task features, except for Task 13. In addition to the features displayed by the other tasks, Task 13 was analysed as having [-few elements]. This additional resource directing feature makes this task more cognitively complex than the other Quadrant 4 tasks in this study. In terms of grading and sequencing this has the implication that Task 13 will be the most challenging task and that it should therefore be placed after all the other tasks.

Task nr	Task features		Quadrant
	Resource directing / development dimensions	Resource depleting (dispersing)/ performative dimensions	
3	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
9	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
11	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
12	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
13	- few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4
16	+few elements - no reasoning - here-and-now	+planning - prior knowledge - single task	4

Table 5.7 Dimensions of Quadrant 4 tasks

When viewing the cognitive complexity of the tasks analysed for this study holistically, an obvious place to start manipulating the cognitive complexity would be with the feature [+ planning]. For the purposes of this study it was assumed that students would be given planning time and therefore all the tasks were allocated a [+] rating for planning. By reducing or doing away with planning time the resource dispersing dimension of the tasks could be increased, resulting in greater performative complexity. In a similar way the other 5 task features could also be adjusted in order to manipulate the overall cognitive complexity rating of the individual tasks with the aim of manipulating the grading and sequencing of the tasks in order to best cater for the needs of a specific group of learners.

To create pedagogic tasks from target tasks (Step 5 in the proposed design process) the other types of information obtained during the analysis of the authentic or semi-authentic target tasks (Step 3) can be utilized in addition to the cognitive complexity analysis as was discussed above. In terms of Robinson's (2005) framework, the cognitive complexity features of tasks are the primary source of information for decisions about task grading and sequencing. In addition to features relating to task complexity, the course designer should also use information about the generic move structure, syntactic complexity of the task and the salient features that have been identified. In what follows three tasks, each from different quadrants, will be compared in terms of their generic move structure, their syntactic complexity and the salient language structures that were identified for each.

Task 1 was classified as a Quadrant 1 task. In terms of its generic move structure this task contains many examples of moves that require less complex language, e.g. [Greeting], [Asking about well being], [Stating well being] and [Expressing gratitude]. Moves such as these contain mostly monoclausal sentences. Only two examples of reasoning are found in this task: in sentences 9 and 28 ([Stating reason for proposed meeting]). Sentence 9 consists of an indicative mood main clause followed by a subjunctive mood complement clause. Sentence 28 is slightly more complex, containing a perfectum past tense main clause, an infinitive complement clause, which is followed by three subjunctive mood clauses. Task 1 furthermore contains relatively few complex sentences, most of which are present tense indicative mood sentences. No relative clauses are found in this task, which serves as further indication of its low level of syntactic complexity. Further evidence for placing this task at the beginning of a learning programme is found in the salient language structures that were identified for this task. The structures identified were mostly structures that are relatively easy to acquire and that typically feature in beginners level isiXhosa second language courses. Some examples are: the future tense, the perfectum past tense, the subjunctive mood and also the infinitive mood. All this information serves as support for placing this task in Quadrant 1, and therefore for placing it closer to the beginning of a learning programme.

Task 7 was classified as being a Quadrant 3 task in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework. This task contains many examples of generic moves that require the use of complex, multi-clausal sentences. Moves such as [Providing information], [Providing information about actions taken] and [Making suggestions] necessitate the use of syntactically complex sentences. Sentence 33, for example, features the move [Making suggestions], and consists of a relative complement clause, followed by the main clause as well as an indicative mood complement clause. A similar example is found in Sentence 38. This sentence also features the generic move [Making suggestions]. It consists of two main clauses, one in the imperative mood and the other in the subjunctive mood, and two complement clauses, one of which is a relative mood clause. When studying the overall syntactic complexity of this task, it is clear that this task displays many more examples of complex sentences than Task 1 discussed above. It is also evident from Section 5.2.4.7.2 above that in Task 7 there are also more examples of sentences that contain 2 and more than 2 complement clauses than is found in Task 1. An overview of the salient language structures identified for Task 7 also serves as evidence that this task is more challenging than Task 1. Not only was a greater number of salient language structures identified, but the Task 7 structures are also generally more complex than those identified for Task 1. In order to use generic moves such as [Stating opinion] and [Requesting information], learners will have to make use of a variety of complex constructions. As was indicated in Section 2.4.7.3 above, stating opinion requires the use of for instance the clause **–cinga ukuba** ("think that") followed by a variety of different construction types. Similarly, the move [Requesting Information] requires the use of **ingaba** ("perhaps"), which also takes a number of complement types. Therefore, when comparing Task 7 with Task 1 in terms of the generic moves, the syntactic complexity and also the salient language structures involved, it is evident that Task 7 is much more challenging, both in terms of the variety and the complex nature of the constructions required to perform this task successfully.

Task 13 displays features that are typical of tasks in Quadrant 4 of Robinson's (2005) framework. As was indicated earlier in this section, Task 13 displays high levels of cognitive complexity as it contains many elements, it requires of participants to

reason and to refer to objects and events that take place elsewhere and in a time other than the present. It was also indicated that learner no prior knowledge is given and that participants will be expected to perform multiple tasks. Finally, for the purposes of this study it was assumed that participants would be given planning time prior to task performance. This task therefore cognitively makes great demands of participants. Similarly, in terms of the language required to perform this task great demands are made of participants. Generic moves such as [Providing detail], [Providing clarification] and [Explanation of facts] require of learners to use complex language structures. Moves of this nature are not "generic", in the sense that they cannot be transferred to other tasks. These moves require subject specific knowledge which would not be relevant in many other tasks. Also in terms of syntactic complexity Task 13 will be demanding for participants. As is evident from the speech unit analysis done in Section 5.2.4.13.2 above, Task 13 consists of many highly complex sentences, including many sentences that contain 2 or more complement clauses. Examples of such sentences are: sentence 13 (two main clauses and two passive complement clauses), sentence 46 (a main clause and three complement clauses), sentence 65 (a main clause and four complement clauses, including the situative mood, the subjunctive mood, the indicative mood, as well as a relative complement clause) and sentence 66 (a main clause followed by three complement clauses: one in the subjunctive mood, one in the infinitive, as well as a relative complement clause). The overall complexity of this task is further highlighted by the variety and the level of complexity of the salient language structures that were identified (Section 5.2.4.13.3 above). The salient language features for this task include the following: use of the hortative mood ([Making suggestions]), use of the relative ([Stating necessity]), use of the subjunctive mood ([Stating necessity]), use of the imperative mood ([Giving instructions]) and use of the consecutive mood ([Indicating successive actions]). This task displays greater complexity in terms of sentence structure and a greater variety of constructions that are needed for successful task completion than is the case for Task 1 and Task 7 discussed above, and should therefore be sequenced for use after these two tasks.

The syntactic complexity and the salient language structures displayed in specific generic moves can also be analysed and compared for purposes of grading and sequencing when designing pedagogic tasks (Step 5) from real-world target tasks. This type of analysis and comparison makes it possible for the course designer to study the broad characteristics of different communication segments.

Generic moves such as [Greeting], [Enquiring about well being] and [Stating well-being], as found in the first couple of lines of almost all sixteen tasks in this study, typically consist of short, monoclausal sentences. These clauses are also formulaic in nature and as such would be easily acquired. Generic moves of this kind could be grouped together when designing a pedagogic task and would be placed at the beginning of a course.

Numerous examples of the generic move [Giving instructions] are found in the tasks analysed for this study. In the salient language structures selected for each task various constructions that can be employed to give instructions were identified. Numerous examples of the imperative mood, the hortative mood and the potential – **nga-** were found. As will be illustrated in the examples that follow, sentences containing these 3 kinds of constructions are often monoclausal, or consist of a main clause and one complement clause. Examples of the imperative mood are found in sentences such as the following:

Task 4 (sentence 53): **Phulaphulani ngoku ...** ("Now listen all of you ...");

Task 9 (sentence 3): **Nonke phumani!** ("All of you go outside!");

Task 11 (sentence 9): **... qalisa ukuthetha.** ("... start talking.");

Task 13 (sentence 5): **Yiza ndibone.** ("Come let me see.").

Sentences containing examples of the hortative mood include the following:

Task 6 (sentence 41): **Masiqaleni.** ("Let us get started.");

Task 10 (sentence 26): **Ngoku wonke umntu, makabuyele emsebenzini wakhe.** ("Now, everyone let's get back to work.");

Task 15 (sentence 11): **Yiza, masihlale apha, Lungi.** (Come, let us sit here, Lungi.)

Examples of the potential –**nga-** can be found in the following sentences:

Task 4 (sentence 13): **Ungabeka ubhaka ...** ("You can put your bag...");

Task 4 (sentence 56): **Ungahlala apha ...** ("You can sit here ...");

Task 5 (sentence 14): **Ungabhala izivakalisi ezimbini ...** ("You can write two sentences ...");

Task 5 (sentence 16): **Ungasebenzisa indawo esemantla ...** ("You can use the space below ...").

These examples (and numerous others identified in the sixteen tasks) illustrate that the constructions used for the move [Giving Instructions] appear in sentences with relatively non-complex structures. More complex examples of [Giving Instructions] were found in sentences containing **ncedani** followed by the subjunctive mood, **-cela** followed by the subjunctive and also **kufuneka** followed by the subjunctive. These constructions are illustrated in sentences such as the following:

Task 4 (sentence 63): **Ncedani niyenze kwangoku niyigqibe phambi kokuba intsimbi yesidlo ibethe, ukuze sibe nakho ukumakisha.**

("Please finish that so that we can mark it before the bell rings for break.);

Task 15 (sentence 9): **Ndicela uhlale emva ekugqibeleni kweklasi ...** ("I ask/please stay behind at the end of the class ...");

Task 13 (sentence 67): **Kule meko kufuneka ufunde ingxelo yekhadi lesikweliti kakuhle...** ("In this case you must read the credit card statement carefully ...").

The last three examples clearly contain more complex language, including the use of more complement clauses. Given their more complex nature, these types of constructions would be sequenced to follow after the less complex examples mentioned above, e.g. the use of the imperative, the hortative and the potential – **nga-**.

Another generic move found in many of the tasks used for this study is [Stating intention]. Sentences used to realise this move contain the future tense and a variety of other constructions. The examples below illustrate how intention can be stated:

Task 6 (sentence 22): **...ndiza kuninika into** ("...I will give you something");

Task 7 (sentence 35): **Siza kuthetha nomakhulu ukuba ancedisane noNomvula...** ("We will talk to the grandmother that she helps Nomvula...");

Task 15 (sentence 93): **Ndiya kuzama ukucinga into ...** ("I will try to think of something ...").

The use of the future tense is a relatively non-complex construction in isiXhosa, however stating intent requires the use of a variety of other construction types in complement clauses, making this potentially a relatively complex generic move for learners to master.

[Stating opinion] is another example of a generic move found in a large number of the tasks analysed for this study. This move is most often realised through using **-cinga ukuba** ("think that"), which takes a variety of complement types. Some examples of sentences in which the move [Stating opinion] is realised are given below:

Task 3 (sentence 41): **Ndiyacinga ukuba ixesha lesidlo sangokuhlwa lixesha elimnandi kakhulu kowam umzi.** ("I think supertime has become a favourite time of the day in our house.");

Task 7 (sentence 36): **Ndicinga ukuba yingcamango entle leyo.** ("I think that is a very good idea.");

Task 7 (sentence 37): **Ndicinga ukuba kufuneka nithethe noNomvula ...** ("I think it is necessary that you talk to Nomvula ...");

Task 7 (sentence 40): **Ndiyacinga ukuba iya kumakha ...** ("I also think it will help ...");

Task 14 (sentence 11): **Besicinga ukuba yonke into ihamba kakuhle.** ("We thought everything was going alright.");

Task 14 (sentence 29): **Ndicinga ukuba kweli inqanaba kufuneka uZukiswa simfundise isiNgesi kangangoko sinako.** ("I think at this stage we need to expose Zukiswa to as much English as we possibly can.");

Task 14 (sentence 52): **Ndicinga ukuba iya kuba nzima into yokuba uthethe isiNgesi ...** ("I think it will be difficult to speak English ...").

Because of the wide variety of complement clause types that can follow after **-cinga ukuba** ("think that") the move [Stating opinion] can potentially be quite complex for

learners to master. Given the many potential complement types [Stating opinion] would be sequenced later in a learning programme.

[Reassuring learners/parents] is an important move for student teachers to acquire. The examples of this move found in the tasks used for this study mostly consist of one or two clauses each and are therefore relatively non-complex. The following sentences provide information about the type of constructions that can be used for reassuring learners and/or parents:

Task 4 (sentence 11): **Ungabi neentloni.** ("Don't be shy.")

Task 4 (sentence 20): **Sukuba neentloni.** ("Don't be shy.")

Task 9 (sentence 61): **Kufanekile nyhani ukuba ungazikhathazi.** ("You really don't have to worry.")

Task 9 (sentence 86): **Uyeke ukuzikhathaza.** ("Stop worrying.")

Task 14 (sentence 73): **Akukho mfuneko yokuba uzikhathaze ngo-Zukiswa.** ("You don't have to worry about Zukiswa.")

Given that this move requires relatively non-complex sentence construction it could be sequenced for use earlier in a course.

A generic move that can be used in virtually every communication situation is [Requesting information]. The examples given below illustrate that a number of constructions can be used to request information and also that a variety of construction function as complement clauses in sentences employed to request information. Two of the most generally used ways to request information are **ingaba** ("perhaps") and the use of various interrogatives, as will be shown in the examples that follow:

Task 3 (sentences 79 and 86): **Ingaba kukho eminye imibuzo?** ("Are there any questions?")

Task 7 (sentence 6): **Ingaba yintoni undonakele kumntwana wam.** ("Perhaps it is what that is affecting my child.")

Task 7 (sentence 14): **Ingaba lixesha elingakanani le nto iqhubeka?** ("Perhaps for how long has this been going on?")

Task 8 (sentence 16): **Ingaba umama wakho uyasebenza naye, Nomaza?** ("Perhaps your mother also works, Nomaza?")

Task 8 (sentence 19): **Ingaba unabo abantakwenu noodade wenu?** ("Perhaps you have brothers and sisters?")

Task 8 (sentence 21): **Ingaba ukwesi sikolo?** ("Perhaps he is in this school?")

Task 11 (sentence 1): **Yintoni undonakele?** ("What is upsetting you?")

Task 11 (sentence 2): **Kutheni ulila nje?** ("Why are you crying?")

Task 11 (sentence 13): **Kutheni ucinga njalo?** ("Why do you think so?")

Task 11 (sentence 14): **Kwenzeka ntoni?** ("What happened?")

The examples above illustrate that the sentences using interrogatives are all monoclausal, whereas the sentences using **ingaba** are multiclausal and therefore more complex. When designing pedagogic tasks the use of interrogatives could therefore be sequenced for inclusion earlier than the more complex sentence types featuring **ingaba**.

The above exemplification of how syntactic complexity information together with information about salient language features can be used collectively to inform the design process illustrates the amount of detail that can be used in conjunction with information about the cognitive complexity of tasks (as analysed in terms of Robinson's (2005) framework) to grade and sequence tasks. This information is crucial for the grading and sequencing of tasks, which will make it possible to provide learners with language at a level that is optimal for successful second language acquisition, as has been argued earlier in this chapter. The information obtained in the process of grading and sequencing tasks (Step 4 in the proposed design procedure) informs the design of pedagogic tasks (Step 5). Step 6 in the design procedure, Determining classroom procedures and activities, will in turn be influenced by the decisions taken in Step 5 about how focus on form and input enhancement are to be accommodated in the learning material. Only once all of these steps have been completed can the actual creation of CALL and other materials be undertaken (Step 7). CALL design, therefore, is inextricably linked to syllabus design. CALL design and materials development cannot be undertaken without full

cognisance of the information obtained during the various steps of the design process.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter has aimed to show how CALL design is embedded within the whole curriculum design process. It was demonstrated how discourse analysis can be used to analyse dialogues in order to identify the communicative purpose and the generic moves employed to realise the communicative purpose.

Furthermore it was shown how analysing tasks for their cognitive complexity can inform decisions about the grading and sequencing of tasks. It was explained that according to Skehan (2003) and Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005 and 2007) the grading and sequencing of tasks is of vital importance for providing learners with language at the correct level. Providing learners with tasks that gradually increase in complexity in terms of resource directing variables will create opportunities for learners to focus on the accuracy and complexity of their output. Increased attention to accuracy and complexity will cause learners to notice more structures in the input provided, which will lead to greater uptake of forms targeted by means of focus on form activities in the pre-task, during-task and post-task phases of a task-based approach to second language teaching and learning (Robinson, 2007).

This chapter has also demonstrated how identifying speech units and identifying salient language structures that occur in the generic moves that have been identified for the different dialogues used in this study, can be used in addition to information about the cognitive complexity of the dialogues. It was shown that information about the syntactic complexity of sentences and the salient language structures used in different generic moves can be used to provide further information for decisions about the grading and sequencing of tasks.

The procedure for LSP CALL design adopted in Section 5.3 above makes it clear that the incorporation of CALL into a second language curriculum should be informed by

the whole design process. It was shown in the previous section that all the information obtained from the various types of analysis (Step 3) informs decisions about the grading and sequencing of tasks (Step 4). It was also shown that the information from Step 3 and Step 4 is needed to make decisions about focus on form and input enhancement in the process of designing pedagogic tasks (Step 5). It was explained in the previous section that the creation of CALL materials (i.e. courseware) in Step 7 of the design process should only be undertaken once general classroom procedures and activities (Step 6) have been decided on. CALL design undertaken in terms of the proposed procedure will therefore accommodate decisions about focus on form and the grading and sequencing of tasks in order to provide learning material that will be optimally suited to learners' specific needs. The proposed procedure will therefore make it possible to provide learners with sufficient opportunities to focus on form, and in so doing to create optimal conditions for second language acquisition. Furthermore, because the proposed design procedure places the design stage within a broader design-based approach to research, the design procedure is seen as part of a continuous cycle of design, implementation, evaluation, analysis and redesign. This cycle will ensure the creation of learning programmes that are optimally suited to learners' specific language needs.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This study has attempted to explore the key issues involved in the design of a task-based specific purposes curriculum, with specific reference to the use of multimedia design to include focus on form for the learning and teaching of isiXhosa as a second language. This chapter will consolidate the different theoretical issues that were investigated in this study and the design procedure that was proposed in Section 5.3. Finally, some considerations will be given regarding the value of this study and about possible applications in other professional situations.

In Chapter 3 a framework for the evaluation and comparison of LSP courses proposed by Basturkmen (2006) was reviewed. It was argued in Chapter 3 that this framework also offers valuable insights in terms of second language course design for specific purposes. Basturkmen's framework guides the comparison of existing courses and decisions about the design of new second language courses in terms of theoretical beliefs or perspectives about how language should be analysed and presented, about how learning takes place and about how second language teaching should be undertaken. In what follows the findings of the research and the different analyses undertaken in this study will be reviewed in terms of Basturkmen's framework.

6.1 Theories about language

The first element of Basturkmen's framework deals with the researcher or course designer's ideas about how language should be investigated for presentation to learners. Basturkmen proposes that language can either be viewed as a system that needs to be taught and acquired, or it can be studied in terms of its uses. When investigating language in terms of systems, the course designer can attempt to determine the critically important grammatical constructions and the core vocabulary of a language, and also to identify certain generic text patterns. Basturkmen (2006)

argues that approaching course design from the point of view of language as a system will result in the design of structural syllabuses with the emphasis on teaching learners grammatical structures that are considered to form the core of the language in general, as opposed to in a specific context. Basturkmen states that this view of language will result in general language courses rather than in specific purposes courses.

On the other hand, when not considering language in terms of systems but rather in terms of its uses, Basturkmen (2006) proposes that language can be analysed in terms of speech acts, genres, social interaction and lexico-semantic mappings. The identification of speech acts makes it possible to study the intentions of individual speakers, while analysing language in terms of genre, on the other hand, will give an indication of how language is used in a specific discourse community. Studying language in terms of social interaction will place the emphasis on language used to establish and maintain good relations with others. The identification of lexico-semantic mappings will produce information about how the users of a specific discourse community use certain words or phrases to convey meanings that are specific to that particular community, i.e. discipline specific meanings.

Basturkmen (2006:80) states that the above two ways of language description are often combined in the design of a specific purposes course, with one of the two types of description dominating. This was also the case in this study on isiXhosa for student teachers. Because of the need for an isiXhosa specific purposes course for student teachers stated as the motivation for this study, describing language as a system only would clearly not have resulted in the design of the desired course type. Analysing language in terms of systems alone would over-emphasize the role of grammar in a course. On the grounds of the literature review conducted in Chapters 2 and 3 it was concluded that second language teaching is more effective if a syllabus is designed around language tasks, rather than linguistic structures. It was also shown in Chapter 2 that attention to language structures should be dealt with by means of one of the many variations of form-focused instruction, i.e. with grammar receiving more or less overt attention in instruction. It was stated in Chapter 2 that

focus on form and focus on forms are not polar opposites, and that issues such as the differences in the structures of the first and second languages that are involved would help determine the exact nature of the attention to linguistic form that would be most appropriate. Because the linguistic structure of isiXhosa differs greatly from that of English and Afrikaans, a course designed for student teachers would have to include more overt attention to linguistic form, especially for beginner learners. A variety of types of focus on form were reviewed in Chapter 2, and in Chapter 3 the possibilities for incorporating focus on form into a task-based approach to second language teaching were discussed. In Chapter 5 it was concluded that the grading and sequencing of pedagogic tasks is considered crucial to language acquisition. It was stated that according to Skehan (2003) and Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005 and 2007) providing learners with tasks that gradually increase in complexity in terms of resource directing variables will create opportunities for learners to focus on the accuracy and complexity of their output. If learners are in this way forced to pay increased attention to accuracy and complexity, it will result in learners noticing more structures in the input provided, which will lead to greater uptake of forms targeted by means of focus on form activities. Different options for using computers to enhance input with the aim of encouraging noticing, and eventually uptake and acquisition, of isiXhosa were discussed in Chapter 4. In Section 4.6 of Chapter 4 input enhancement and focus on form in CALL was reviewed. Input salience, input modification and input elaboration were discussed as options available to the teacher or course designer to increase the possibility that learners will notice and eventually acquire targeted linguistic forms of isiXhosa.

It is evident from the analyses of the isiXhosa dialogues conducted in Chapter 5 that the second view proposed by Basturkmen has played the dominant role in the design model proposed in this study. The dialogues selected for use in this study were analysed in terms of the speech acts used by the different speakers. The speech acts were expressed as generic moves indicated throughout the dialogues. The generic moves were identified to also determine the overall communicative purposes of the participants in the dialogues. Social interaction was also considered important for the purposes of language description in this study. Establishing and maintaining

good relations with isiXhosa speaking learners and parents is the single biggest motivating factor for the student teachers whose need of a specific purposes course formed the motivation for this study. This is reflected in the inclusion of many examples of generic moves such as [Reassuring learner], [Expressing gratitude], [Indicating willingness to assist in future], [Expressing satisfaction with current behaviour], [Expressing delight] and [Expressing concern]. Being able to use these generic moves in the target language will clearly make it possible for the student teachers to establish and maintain good relations with learners and parents.

The importance in this study of describing language in terms of its uses is further manifested in the fact that the identification of salient language structures for each of the sixteen dialogues analysed in this study was undertaken using the generic moves identified for the different tasks as organising principle. Using the generic moves to organise the selection of salient language structures will ensure that meaning and form are not separated and that the pedagogic tasks designed around the selected forms will closely resemble the real-world tasks the learners are being prepared for. It was illustrated in Section 5.4 of Chapter 5 that a variety of constructions in isiXhosa that are used to realise a single generic move can be selected from a number of different real-world tasks for the purpose of designing pedagogic tasks.

6.2 Theories about learning

The second theoretical perspective in Basturkmen's framework that was taken into consideration in this study deals with theories of language learning. The first option she proposes involves theories about the ideal conditions for language learning. Basturkmen distinguishes between theories of acculturation and theories about input and interaction. Acculturation is a social condition for learning and involves preparing learners socially and/or psycholinguistically for the target situations they are preparing to enter (Basturkmen, 2006). This condition for learning was not addressed in this study because the target situation that student teachers will be prepared for, i.e. the classroom and school situation, is not unknown to student

teachers, having been learners at schools themselves and because of regular practice teaching sessions done in schools throughout the students' training period.

The second learning condition Basturkmen proposes as important for language learning is that of input and interaction. Different theories of second language learning were discussed in Chapter 2. It is a standard premise of communicative language teaching that learners need to be exposed to language use and that opportunities have to be created for learners to interact in the target language. A task-based approach to second language teaching, reviewed in Chapter 3, is believed to provide learners with sufficient opportunities for interaction. In Chapter 5 it was shown how pedagogic tasks can be designed for use within a task-based approach to teaching a specific purposes course.

In addition to input and opportunities for interaction Basturkmen (2006) also proposes that the different processes involved in second language learning should be investigated. Basturkmen distinguishes between intramental and intermental (or social) processes. In addition to interaction in the target language, intramental processing is also necessary for second language acquisition to take place. It was discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 that in addition to opportunities for interaction, learners' attention also needs to be focused on the formal aspects of language in order for them to process this information internally. A central concern of this study has been to investigate ways in which learners could be made aware of linguistic forms in input. It was stated that raising learners' consciousness of certain forms in the input will lead them to notice these forms. If learners consciously notice forms in the input they receive the likelihood increases that they will start using these forms in their own output – a process known as uptake, which serves as indication that acquisition has taken place. Numerous types of focus on form activities were reviewed in Chapter 2. In Chapter 2 aspects of focus on form activities that target learners' implicit knowledge as well as their explicit knowledge were reviewed. It was concluded that gaining explicit (or declarative) knowledge about a linguistic construction could help facilitate the acquisition of implicit (or procedural) knowledge of that construction (Ellis, 2002b). In Chapter 4 the possibilities for input

enhancement by means of computer were discussed. The process of how salient language forms can be identified for use in input enhancement activities was illustrated in Chapter 5 of this study. A demonstration was given of how salient language structures can be identified by analysing the generic moves identified in language that is typical of the community of language users that learners are being prepared to enter.

Regarding the social or intermental processes involved in second language learning, Basturkmen (2006) states that language learning could be viewed firstly as taking place through the process of learning subject-related content (where the focus of the teaching will be on the subject matter learners have to master) or, secondly, as a social activity. The first approach, acquiring a second language by means of learning subject content through the second language, was not considered in this study. The specific language needs that were identified by Foundation Phase and Intermediate & Senior Phase teachers from a number of Cape Town schools were quite broad and not related to a specific subject field. Using the teaching of subject content as a learning theory was therefore not an option for consideration in this study. The second view, that language learning is a social endeavour, has its roots in social constructivist theory as originally proposed by Vygotsky (Basturkmen, 2006:105). This theory was also not considered for use in this study because this study investigated possibilities for the design of a specific purposes isiXhosa course for beginner and lower intermediate learners. Beginner and lower intermediate learners would not be able to support one another sufficiently in the target language to the extent that scaffolding takes place – particularly in a situation such as that researched in this study where the learners' first language differs structurally so considerably from the target language.

6.3 Theories about teaching

The final set of theoretical perspectives that Basturkmen (2006) advances for the evaluation of specific purposes courses relate to theories of teaching. She distinguishes between teaching methodologies and teaching objectives.

Basturkmen's discussion of teaching methodologies was reviewed in Section 3.3.5 of Chapter 3. It was stated that two input-based and two output-based teaching strategies are available.

The first input-based strategy is Predominantly Input, which entails that providing learners with sufficient input will be sufficient for them to acquire the target language. This is in essence Krashen's Input Hypothesis, as was reviewed in Chapter 2. It was stated in Chapter 2 that Krashen's theory that input alone will lead to successful second language acquisition has been widely criticized and replaced by other theories that include reference to the role of output and attention to formal aspects of language - hence the focus in this study on ways to incorporate attention to linguistic form as part of the teaching strategy.

Basturkmen's second input-based teaching strategy, Input to Output, also emphasizes the role of input, but with the inclusion of attention to linguistic form, specifically explicit knowledge of preselected language items. In an Input to Output teaching strategy learners are presented with input and then expected to practice certain preselected language items. Given the context of this study (beginner and lower intermediate level learners who are learning a language that is typologically vastly different from their first language) it has been argued that focus on form (in one or more of its many varieties) is considered to be a viable option in terms of teaching strategy.

The two output-based strategies proposed by Basturkmen (2006) are Predominantly Output and Output to Input. Teaching according to the Predominantly Output strategy involves letting learners perform tasks, during which they will be forced to negotiate meaning, which is believed to be a prerequisite for acquisition to take place. It was pointed out in Section 3.3.5 that this teaching strategy was not adopted for investigation in the present study because this strategy requires a relatively high level of proficiency from learners. The second output-based strategy, Output to Input, entails that learners receive input after having performed a task. The rationale is that language input in the form of feedback about learners' earlier

performance of a task would enable learners to improve a second performance of the same task or of a similar task. As was the case with Predominantly Output, this second output-based strategy also requires a relatively high level of proficiency from learners, hence making it unsuitable for use in this study.

As was stated in the concluding paragraph of Section 3.3.5, the four macro teaching strategies discussed above represent the whole range of possible teaching strategies. It was also argued that circumstances will determine which strategy would be best for a specific situation. The four strategies should not be seen as four distinct strategies, but rather as points along a continuum of macro teaching strategies ranging from input based to output based. Different combinations of two or more of the four strategies could be used in the design of specific purposes courses.

In Chapter 3 task-based language teaching and learning was reviewed. It was argued that this approach is viewed in current literature as the most viable option for second language teaching. This served as motivation for the adoption of a task-based approach in the design procedure proposed in Chapter 5. The proposed design procedure illustrates that attention to linguistic form is considered important – for this reason a syntactic complexity analysis was included as part of the analysis stage (Stage 3), together with the identification of salient language structures. The information obtained during this stage of the design procedure is intended for use together with the information obtained during the cognitive complexity analysis and the discourse analysis in order to grade and sequence tasks (Step 4). The information about linguistic form will again be used for the design of pedagogic tasks (Step 5), which includes decisions about focus on form and input enhancement activities. Decisions about the exact methodology (one or more of Basturkmen's four macro strategies mentioned above) will also influence Step 6 of the design procedure, which entails determining classroom procedures and activities. The exact nature of the procedures and activities will obviously be determined by decisions about the macro strategies that are adopted. The nature of the CALL and other learning materials created during Step 7 will also be influenced by decisions taken about the broader teaching strategy. The creation of CALL materials (Step 7) and

decisions about how these materials are to be incorporated to form part of the overall classroom procedures and activities (Step 6) form the final steps in the design process. The significance of placing CALL in the final stage of the design process is that CALL material can only be created once all the theoretical options reflected in the design process have been considered. Specifically, the CALL courseware designed in Step 7 should reflect the linguistic content that was identified in Step 3 for the purposes of focus on form, and it should reflect decisions about the role that attention to linguistic form should play in classroom methodology (i.e. the variety of focus on form). Using CALL in second language teaching therefore requires an *integrated* theory of second language acquisition. This view is supported by Egbert, Chao and Hanson Smith (1999) who argue that even though using CALL requires the use of technology, the principles of language development remain the same as when teaching without using technology.

The last set of theoretical decisions advanced by Basturkmen for the review of existing or the design of new LSP courses relates to teaching objectives. The following five teaching objectives were reviewed in Section 3.3.6 of Chapter 3: (a) teaching to reveal subject-specific language use; (b) teaching to train target performance behaviours/ competencies; (c) teaching to develop underlying competencies; (d) teaching to foster strategic competence; and (e) teaching to develop critical awareness. It was stated in Section 3.3.6 that more than one of these objectives could inform decisions about the design of a single course. Elements of a number of these objectives informed the design procedure proposed in Chapter 5 of this study. Each of these will be discussed below.

Regarding objective (a), teaching to reveal subject specific-knowledge, Basturkmen (2006:134) states that teaching with this objective could include illustrating to learners language features that are typical of the type of texts found in the target situation. The discourse analysis suggested in Step 3 of the design procedure, together with information from the syntactic complexity analysis and as well as the salient language structures identified will provide the teacher with the information needed to reveal subject-specific language. In the case of an LSP course for student

teachers who want to communicate with learners and their parents, as was the focus of this study, the needs analysis revealed no specific subject needs to be targeted, but rather that the language needs were more general. This objective will therefore not play the dominant role in the design of a course for the situation investigated in this study.

The design procedure proposed in Chapter 5 for isiXhosa will also accommodate objective (b) above, i.e. teaching to train target performance behaviours/competencies. According to Basturkmen (2006:135) teaching with this objective could include teaching learners formulaic expressions and speech acts common to the target situation, and also some form of language focus. The analysis of authentic or semi-authentic texts proposed in Step 3 of the design procedure will provide the teacher with the linguistic information needed to undertake teaching with this objective. It was illustrated in Section 5.4 of Chapter 5 how the identification of generic moves and of the salient language structures found in these generic moves can contribute to course design in terms of the identification of expressions and speech acts that are common to the target situation. The dialogues analysed for this study indicated that generic moves such as [Requesting information], [Providing information], [Reassuring learner/parent], [Disciplining learners], [Giving instructions], [Motivating learners] and [Stating importance] appeared frequently. Generic moves such as these could be used to identify expressions that student teachers are likely to need in the target situation, and could be used to train student teachers with the objective of equipping them with target performance competencies in isiXhosa.

Objective (c), teaching to develop underlying competencies, will not be adopted as an objective for an LSP course for student teachers. The competencies that are typical of the teaching and classroom situation will be taught to student teachers in other subjects of their training programme.

Teaching to foster strategic competence, objective (d), will be beneficial for the student teachers around whose needs this study has evolved. Basturkmen

(2006:139) states that teaching with the objective of equipping learners with strategic competence entails, in addition to aiming to equip learners with general competence in the second language, also making learners explicitly aware of linguistic features that could be useful in the target situation. This objective would be of particular value to student teachers learning isiXhosa because the structure of their first language differs so much from that of isiXhosa. The different analyses proposed in Step 3 of the design procedure will provide the teacher with information about which language structures could be of particular use to learners. Information about such structures could be conveyed during focus on form activities that are more overt in nature. In Section 5.4 of Chapter 5 it was illustrated how the results of the analyses of isiXhosa dialogues conducted for this study can be used to inform decisions about the selection of linguistic features that are likely to be useful to teachers in the classroom situation. It was shown how a generic move such as [Giving Instructions], which is likely to be very useful to teachers, can be used to obtain linguistic information from a number of different real-world tasks. This information could then be used to give student teachers strategic competence that will be useful to them in the teaching situation where they will work with isiXhosa first language learners.

The final teaching objective proposed by Basturkmen (2006:141), i.e. teaching to develop critical awareness, involves teaching learners to be aware of the demands and norms of the target situation and bringing learners to understand that it might be possible for them to negotiate with members of the target situation in order to affect changes to accommodate them as second language speakers and newcomers to the target situation. This objective could possibly play a minor role in the overall objective for an LSP course for student teachers. Being able to comment about the fact that one is a second language speaker, asking for assistance and commenting on one's limited ability in a second language are functions that are often included in beginner courses. Student teachers could be taught these functions as part of an LSP course.

6.4 Concluding remarks and value of the study

The above review of different theoretical aspects of an LSP course indicates that the design procedure proposed in this study is general enough to accommodate a range of theoretical options available to second language teachers and LSP CALL course designers. A variety of different combinations of theoretical perspectives are possible when using the proposed design procedure. The fact that the procedure is embedded within a design-based approach to research will ensure that teachers and designers can monitor the effectiveness of the implementation of the theoretical perspectives they have chosen on a continuous basis by means of the cycle of design, implementation, evaluation, analysis and redesign.

Although this study focused on the design of an LSP CALL course for student teachers learning isiXhosa, with particular emphasis on the inclusion of focus on form, the findings of this study and particularly the proposed procedure for the design of LSP CALL within a design-based approach to research can be used in a variety of other settings. In a multilingual country such as South Africa there is a great demand for specific purposes courses for various different professional fields and in various different target languages. The findings of this study can inform the design of such courses in fields as diverse as medicine, law, business, the tourism and hospitality industry, social work, the police and civil service in general.

REFERENCES

- Basturkmen, H. 2006. *Ideas and Options in English for Specific Purposes*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Basturkmen, H., S. Loewen and R. Ellis. 2002. Metalanguage in Focus on Form in the Communicative Classroom. *Language Awareness*, Vol. 11(1):1-13.
- Beatty, K. 2003. *Teaching and Researching Computer-assisted Language Learning*. London: Longman.
- Belcher, D. 2006. English for Specific Purposes: Teaching to perceived needs and imagined futures in the world of work, study and everyday life. *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 40(1):133-156.
- Chalhoub-Deville, M. 2001. Task-based assessments: Characteristics and validity evidence. In Bygate, M., P. Skehan and M. Swain (eds.). *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing* (pp. 210-228). Harlow: Longman.
- Chanier, T. 1996. Learning a Second Language for Specific Purposes within a Hypermedia framework. *CALL*, Vol. 9(1):3-43.
- Chapelle, C.A. 2003. *English Language Learning and Technology: Lectures on applied linguistics in the age of information and communication technology*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Chapelle, C.A. 2005a. Computer-assisted Language Learning. In Hinkel, E. (ed.). *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning* (pp.743-756). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Chapelle, C.A. 2005b. Interactionist SLA Theory in CALL Research. In Egbert, J.L. and Petrie, G.M. (eds.) *CALL Research Perspectives* (pp.53-64). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- DeKeyser, R.M. 1998. Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In Doughty, C. and J. Williams (eds.). *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition* (pp.42-63). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- DeKeyser, R.M. 2001. Automaticity and automatization. In Robinson, P. (ed.). *Cognition and Second Language Instruction* (pp.125-151). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Doughty, C. 2001. Cognitive underpinnings of Focus on Form. In Robinson, P. (ed.). *Cognition and Second Language Instruction* (pp.206-257). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Doughty, C. and M. Long. 2003. Optimal Psycholinguistic Environments for Distance Foreign Language Learning. *Language Learning and Technology*. Vol. 7(3):50-80.
- Doughty, C. and J. Williams. 1998. *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dudley-Evans, T. 1997. Five Questions for LSP Teacher Training. In Howard, R. and G. Brown (eds.). *Teacher Education for Language for Specific Purposes* (pp. 58-67). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Dudley-Evans, T. and M.J. St John. 1998. *Developments in ESP: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

-
- Egbert, J.L. 2005. Conducting Research on CALL. In Egbert, J.L. and G.M. Petrie (eds.) *CALL Research Perspectives* (pp.3-8). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Egbert, J., C-C. Chao, and E. Hanson-Smith. 1999. Computer-Enhanced Language Learning Environments: An Overview. In Egbert, J. and E. Smith (eds.) *CALL environments: Research, practice and critical issues* (pp. 1-13). Alexandria, V.A.: TESOL.
- Ellis, R. 2001. Introduction: Investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning*, Vol. 51, Supplement 1:1-46.
- Ellis, R. 2002a. Does Form-focused Instruction affect the acquisition of implicit knowledge? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. Vol. 24: 223-236.
- Ellis, R. 2002b. Grammar Teaching – Practice or Consciousness-Raising? In Richards, J.C. and W.A. Renandya (eds.) *Methodology in language teaching: an anthology of current practice* (pp.167-174). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. 2003a. Designing a Task-based Syllabus. *Regional Language Centre Journal*. Vol. 34(1):64-81.
- Ellis, R. 2003b. *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. 2005. Planning and task-based performance. In Ellis, R. (ed.) *Planning and Task Performance in a Second Language* (pp. 3-36). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

- Ellis, R. 2008. Investigating grammatical difficulty in second language learning: Implications for second language acquisition research and language testing. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 18(1):1-22.
- Ellis, R., H. Basturkmen and S. Loewen. 2001. Learner Uptake in Communicative ESL Lessons. *Language Learning*. Vol. 51(2):281-318.
- Ellis, R., H. Basturkmen and S. Loewen. 2002. Doing focus-on-form. *System*. Vol. 30:419-432.
- Foster, P., A. Tonkyn and G. Wigglesworth. 2000. Measuring Spoken Language: A Unit for All Reasons. *Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 21(3):354-375.
- Fotos, S. 1993. Consciousness raising and noticing through focus on form: Grammar task performance versus formal instruction: *Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 14(4):385-407.
- Grove, C. 1999. Focus on form in the communicative classroom: An output-centered model of instruction for oral skills development. *Hispania*. Vol. 82:817-829.
- Hubbard, P. 1996. Elements of CALL Methodology: Development, Evaluation, and Implementation. In Pennington, M.C. (ed.) *The Power of CALL* (pp. 15-32). Houston, TX: Athelstan.
- Huh, K. and W. Hu. 2005. Criteria for Effective CALL Research. In Egbert, J.L. and G.M. Petrie (eds.) *CALL Research Perspectives* (pp. 9-24). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Klapper, J. and J. Rees. 2003. Reviewing the case for explicit grammar instruction in the university foreign language learning context. *Language Teaching Research*. Vol. 7(3): 285-314.

-
- Lee, J.F. 2000. *Tasks and Communicating in Language Classrooms*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Lee, L. 2008. Focus-on-form through collaborative scaffolding in expert-to-novice online interaction. *Language Learning & Technology*. Vol. 12(3):53-72.
- Levy, M. 1997. *Computer-Assisted Language Learning: Context and Conceptualization*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Levy, M. and P. Hubbard. 2005. Why call CALL "CALL"?. *CALL*. Vol. 18(3):143-149.
- Levy, M and G. Stockwell. 2006. *CALL Dimensions: Options and issues in computer-assisted language learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Long, M.H. and G. Crookes. 1993. Units of Analysis in Syllabus Design: The Case for Task. In Crookes, G. and S. Gass (eds.). *Tasks in a Pedagogical Context: Integrating Theory and Practice* (pp.9-54). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Long, M.H. and P. Robinson. 1998. Focus on Form: Theory, Research and Practice. In Doughty, C. and J. Williams (eds.). *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 15-41). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Macaro, E. and L. Masterman. 2006. Does intensive explicit grammar instruction make all the difference? *Language Teaching Research*. Vol. 10(3):297-327.
- McDonough, J. and C. Shaw. 2003. *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

- McLaughlin, B. 1987. *Theories of Second-Language Learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Mochizuki, N. and L. Ortega. 2008. Balancing communication and grammar in beginning-level foreign language classrooms: A study of guided planning and relativization. *Language Teaching Research*. Vol. 12(1):11-37.
- Norris, J.M. and L. Ortega. 2001. Does type of instruction make a difference? Substantive findings from a meta-analytic review. *Language Learning*. Vol. 51(1):157-213.
- Norris, J.M. and L. Ortega. 2000. Effectiveness of L2 Instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-Analysis. *Language Learning*. Vol. 50(3): 417-528.
- Nunan, D. 1989. *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. 2004. *Task-based Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ortega, L. 1999. Planning and Focus on Form in L2 Oral Performance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. Vol. 21:109-148.
- Ortega, L. 2005. What do learners plan?: Learner-driven attention to form during pre-task planning. In Ellis, R. (ed.) *Planning and Task Performance in a Second Language* (pp. 77-110). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Pica, T., R. Kanagy and J. Falodun. 1993. Choosing and using communication tasks for second language instruction and research. In Crookes, G. and S. Gass (eds.). *Tasks and Language Learning: Integrating theory and practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

- Richards, J.C. 2002. Addressing the Grammar Gap in Task Work. In Richards, J.C. and W.A. Renandya (eds.). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (pp.153-166). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Robinson, P. 1996. *Consciousness, Rules, and Instructed Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Robinson, P. 2001a. Task complexity, cognitive resources, and syllabus design: a triadic framework for examining task influences on SLA. In: Robinson, P. (ed.). *Cognition and Second Language Instruction* (pp.287-318). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Robinson, P. 2001b. Task Complexity, Task Difficulty, and Task Production: Exploring interactions in a componential framework. *Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 22(1):27-57.
- Robinson, P. 2003. Attention and Memory during SLA. In: Doughty, C. and Long, M. (eds.). *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp.631-678). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Robinson, P. 2005. Cognitive complexity and task sequencing: Studies in a componential framework for second language task design. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*. Vol. 43(1):1-32.
- Robinson, P. 2007. Criteria for classifying and sequencing of pedagogic tasks." In Garcia-Mayo, M. del P. (ed.) *Investigating Tasks in Formal Language Learning* (pp.7-26). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Rott, S. 2007. The Effect of Frequency of Input-Enhancements on Word Learning and Text Comprehension. *Language Learning*. Vol. 57(2):165-199.

- Sheen, R. 2002. "Focus on form" and "focus on forms". *ELT Journal*. Vol. 52(3):303-305.
- Skehan, P. 1996. A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 17(1):38-62.
- Skehan, P. 2001. Tasks and language performance assessment. In Bygate, M., P. Skehan and M. Swain (eds.). *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing*. Harlow: Longman.
- Skehan, P. 2003. Focus on Form, Tasks, and Technology. *CALL*. Vol. 16(5):391-411.
- South Africa. Western Cape Education Department. 2002. Language Policy. http://wced.wcape.gov.za/documents/lang_policy [15 September 2008]
- South Africa. Western Cape Education Department. n.d. WCED Language in Education Transformation Plan. Cape Town: Western Cape Education Department.
- Tudor, I. 1997. LSP or Language Education?. In Howard, R. and G. Brown (eds.). *Teacher Education for Language for Specific Purposes*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Warschauer, M. 2005. Sociocultural Perspectives on CALL. In Egbert, J.L. and Petrie, G.M. (eds.) *CALL Research Perspectives* (pp.41-52). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- WCED *see* South Africa. Western Cape Education Department.
- Williams, J. 2001a. Learner-generated attention to form. *Language Learning*. Vol. 51(3). Supplement 1. pp 303-346.

-
- Williams, J. 2001b. The effectiveness of spontaneous attention to form. *System*. Vol. 29: 325–340.
- West, R. 1997. Needs Analysis: State of the Art. In Howard, R. and G. Brown (eds.). *Teacher Education for Language for Specific Purposes*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Yang, Y. 2005. Situated Learning as a framework for CALL Research. In Egbert, J.L. and G.M. Petrie (eds.) *CALL Research Perspectives* (pp.155-168). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Yutdhana, S. 2005. Design-Based Research in CALL. In Egbert, J.L. and G.M. Petrie (eds.) *CALL Research Perspectives* (pp. 169-178). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dear Educator

XHOSA LANGUAGE NEEDS OF EDUCATORS

I am currently conducting research about the **language needs of non-Xhosa speaking educators** who have isiXhosa speaking learners in their class.

Although the medium of instruction in such classrooms is usually English, from time to time educators feel the need to communicate with their isiXhosa speaking learners in their home language.

The **aim of my research** is to determine what it is that educators want to communicate to their learners through the medium of Xhosa, so that these language needs can be incorporated into the Faculty's isiXhosa syllabus. The design of a **specific purpose Xhosa syllabus** will enable the Faculty to equip its students with the language they will need when they become educators.

Please take a few minutes to **indicate on the attached page** what it is that you think you would like to talk about with your isiXhosa speaking learners in their home language.

Please hand the completed form back to the student teacher.

Thank you for your time and your contribution.

Kind regards

André Steenkamp
Lecturer

16 March 2005

ISIXHOSA LANGUAGE NEEDS QUESTIONNAIRE

Name of educator: _____ (optional)

School: _____ (optional)

If you could speak isiXhosa, what would you talk to your learners about in their home language? / If you can speak isiXhosa, what do you talk to your learners about in their home language?

1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	