FRAMEWORK FOR A TASK-BASED APPROACH TO
THE TEACHING OF XHOSA AS A SECOND
LANGUAGE FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT PURPOSES

BY

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Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
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Study leader: Prof. M.W. Visser

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.
SUMMARY

The purpose of this study is to apply contemporary theories about language and language learning in a South African and Western Cape context in order to address the specific needs of isiXhosa second language learners in local government.

This study explores the use of communication tasks for vocational language teaching. It aims at providing a sound theoretical foundation of second language learning principles that support a task-based approach to language teaching for specific purposes. The perspectives of a broad range of theories that view the learner as autonomous and a social individual are regarded. Second language learning is assumed to rely on some degree of access to Universal Grammar and an innate ability to acquire language. It is argued that controlled and purposeful learner-learner interaction provides the learner with the most opportunities to negotiate meaning and to develop effective communication.

The role of instruction in second language acquisition is explored. A greater interface between second language acquisition theory and pedagogy is motivated and classroom research is regarded to form a platform for more open dialogue between the two fields. The study addresses practical issues regarding learner participation, error treatment, learning strategies and culture studies. A discussion of task types, examples of tasks and criteria for task development has the potential to inform and guide second language teachers and programme developers.

In order to motivate the use of tasks in second language teaching for specific purposes, theoretical perspectives of the instructional task are reviewed and the properties of communication tasks and referential communication tasks are described. Learning tasks which focus on form and provide learning strategies and cross-cultural awareness are assumed to play a supportive role in the task-based syllabus.
Finally, a task-design that addresses the needs of the municipal worker is presented and provides a framework for developing task-based second language teaching programmes for local government workers. A range of target tasks are described and analyzed according to the principles and properties of communication tasks and possible move-structures and language structures are listed for consideration for learning tasks.
OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie studie is om huidige teorieë omtrent taal en taalleer in 'n Suid-Afrikaanse en Wes-Kaapse konteks toe te pas ten einde die spesifieke behoeftes van leerders van isiXhosa tweede taal in plaaslike regeringsinstansies aan te spreek.

Die studie ondersoek die gebruik van kommunikasie-take in beroepsgerigte taalonderrig. Dit stel ten doel die daarstelling van 'n deeglike fondasie van beginsels van tweedetaalverwerwing wat 'n taakgebasseerde benadering tot taalonderrig vir spesifieke doelstellings steun. Die perspektiewe van 'n wye verskeidenheid van teorieë wat die leerder as outonoom en as 'n sosiale individu beskou word in ag geneem. Tweedetaalverwerwing word beskou as afhanklik van 'n mate van toegang tot Universele Grammatika en 'n aangebore vermoeë om taal aan te leer. Daar word geredeneer dat beheerde en doelgerigte leerder-leerder interaksie die meeste geleenthede bied vir onderhandeling van betekenis en die ontwikkeling van effektiewe kommunikasie-vaardighede.

Die rol van onderrig in tweedetaalverwerwing word ondersoek. 'n Hegter interaksie tussen tweedetaalverwerwingsteorie en onderrig word gemotiveer en klaskamer-navorsing word beskou as 'n platform vir meer vrye-dialoog tussen die twee velde. Die studie spreek praktiese kwessies aan, soos leerder-deelname, hantering van foute, leerstrategieë en kultuurstudies. 'n Bespreking van taaktipes, voorbeeldte van take en kriteria vir taakontwikkeling kan moontlik van praktiese waarde wees vir tweedetaalonderwysers en programontwikkelaars.

Ten einde die gebruik van take in tweedetaalonderrig vir spesifieke doeleindes te motiveer, word die teoretiese perspektiewe ten opsigte van die instruksionele taak hersien en die eienskappe van kommunikasie-take en verwysingskommunikasie-take beskryf. Leertake wat op vorm fokus en wat
leerstrategieë en kruiskulturele bewustheid voorsien, word beskou as ondersteunend in 'n taakgebaseerde sillabus.

Ten laaste word 'n taakontwerp voorgestel wat die behoeftes van die munisipale werker aanspreek en wat 'n raamwerk voorsien vir die ontwikkeling van taakgebaseerde onderrigprogramme vir plaaslike regeringswerkers. 'n Reeks teikentake word beskryf en geanaliseer volgens die beginsels en eienskappe van kommunikasie-take en moontlike struktuur-skuiwe en taalstrukture word gelys om vir leertake oorweeg te word.
ISISHWANKATELO

Injongo zolu fundo kukucela iingcingane zelo xesha malunga nolwimi nokufunda kolwimi kwindawo eyandulelayo nelandelwayo encwadini yaseMzantsi Afrika neyaseNtshona Koloni ukwenzela ithumele iiumfuno ezizizo zabafundi besiXhosa esilulwimi lesibini kuRhulumente wale-ndawo.


Inxaxheba yemfundiso ekufumaneni ulwimi lwesibini iphonongiwe. Indawo phakathi kwesixhobo ezininzi apho kukho intsebenziswa yezi zinto zimbini zinkulu phakathi kwengcingane yokufumana ulwimi lwesibini nenzululwazi ngokufundisa iphembelelewe nophando eklasini lukhathalelewe ekwenzeni iqonga incoko yababini evulelekileyo engaphezulu phakathi kweendawo ezim benzini. Ufundo lwenza intetho kwimicimi eyenziwa ngenkathalo yenxaxheba yomfundi, ukuseteyenzwa kwempazamo, ubuchule bokulwa ufundonofundo Iwezithethe namasiko. Ingxoxo yeentlobo zemisebenzi, imizekelo yemisebenzi nenqobo yemveliso yomsebenzi inokubakho ukuxelela nokukhokela abafundisi-ntsapho belwimi lwesibini nabaveliseni benkubo.
Ukwenzela kuphenjelelwe usetyenziso lwemisebenzi ekufundiseni ulwimi lwesibini lwenjongo ezizezona-zona, imibono yengcingane yomsebenzi wemfundvo ikhunjulwe kwaye iiimpawu zemisebenzi yothungelwano nemisebenzi yothungelwano inxulumene zichaziwe. Ulwazi oluphangaleleyo lwemisebenzi olugqalisa kubume nolubonelela ubuchule bokulwa ulwazi oluphangaleleyo nokuqonda umthwalo wezithethe namasiko othathwe njengenyaniso ekudlaleni inxaxheba exhasayo ezisekelwe emsebenzini woqingqo Iwezifundo zesiseko.

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1.1 PURPOSE OF STUDY

The phenomenon that multilingualism is gaining importance as a skill worldwide is noted by Grenfell (2000), who observes that to converse in modern languages with fellow Europeans has become a professional requirement. The developments in information and communication technology have changed the face of communicative competence and the world has become a much smaller place. Grenfell explains that the revolution in information exchange has reshaped the way we think about language as the medium for establishing relationships and communication with the far corners of the world.

The right to use the language of a person’s choice is acknowledged by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (clause 30), where eleven official languages are recognized. The Western Cape’s language policy aims at promoting multilingualism and to promote equal constitutional status and usage of the official languages of the province. The Constitution of the Western Cape recognizes the equal status of the official languages Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa for the purposes of provincial government, and gave effect to this object in the Western Cape Provincial Languages Act, 1998 (Act 13 of 1998).

The need for multilingualism and vocational language teaching programmes has not been adequately addressed especially with regard to the local languages that were neglected in the past. There are very little resources for language practitioners or teachers who have to address the very specific communicative needs of professionals in South Africa. Local government employs a variety of professionals with seemingly distinct communicative needs. The aim of this
study is to analyze those needs as regard to basic isiXhosa communication with the public and within the municipality, in order to provide a framework for developing beginners’ isiXhosa language programmes for the specific purposes of municipal workers.

1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As this study presupposes a framework for task-based second language teaching for specific purposes, the theoretical approaches regarding three relevant issues are noted: second language (L2) learning; task-based teaching; and teaching language for specific purposes.

Firstly, the field of second language acquisition (SLA) was, according to Mitchell and Myles (1998), seen as an adjunct to the field of general language acquisition till the “Chomskyan Revolution” and the birth of error analysis, initiated by Corder in the mid 1960’s. Mitchell and Myles refer to Selinker’s definition of the term interlanguage to describe the language learner’s dynamic system of language. Mitchell and Myles consider second language learning to refer to any level of acquisition of a language that is not the learner’s first language. They describe the control that the learner has over the target language (TL) as to account for the level of development.

The Universal Grammar (UG) theory of Naom Chomsky has been very influential in the field of second language acquisition; but, as Mitchell and Myles explains, it is not primarily a theory of second language learning and is only relevant in as far as SLA researchers present evidence of L2 learners having access to UG or parts of it. According to Mitchell and Myles the UG approach views the learner as autonomous with an innate language faculty in the brain. UG is conceptualized within a modular view of the human mind, and Mitchell and Myles point out that the way in which it might interact with other modules has been the focus of much interest. Mitchell and Myles state that the principle aim of UG
theory is to feed the general understanding of human language. Implications of UG theory for L2 teaching regard input and parameter-setting, consciousness-raising activities, or as Cook (1994) refers to Morgan’s description of clues to syntax phrase structures, and acquisition of vocabulary with lexical entries.

According to Mitchell and Myles (1998), Krashen’s Input Hypothesis claims that language learners move along the developmental continuum by receiving comprehensible input. Although Krashen’s claim is criticized for being vague and imprecise, Mitchell and Myles point out that it gave rise to theories by Sharwood Smith, Schmidt and others arguing the degree of attention, consciousness-raising and focus on form, which is required for L2 input to become incorporated into the learner’s developing system, i.e. to become L2 intake. Sharwood Smith (1993) refers to corrective feedback as negative input enhancement. According to Mitchell and Myles, Long’s Interaction Hypothesis is an extension of Krashen’s Input Hypothesis and regards conversational management and tactics, performed during face-to-face oral tasks, negotiating meaning. Allwright and Bailey (1991) explain Long’s Model of the relationship between type of conversational task and language acquisition, and the primacy of interaction to insure comprehensible input.

The second issue regards a task-based approach to second language learning and teaching. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) state that the theoretical perspective which supports the use of communication tasks entails that language is best learned and taught through interaction of learners and their interlocutors, especially when they negotiate toward mutual comprehension of meaning. According to Pica, Kanagy and Falodun learners obtain comprehension by requesting help from their interlocutor about unclear or unfamiliar input and obtain interlocutor feedback on their own interlanguage comprehensibility.

Pica, Kanagy and Falodun argue that communication tasks elicit response to input through modification and manipulation of learners’ interlanguage ability.
According to Allwright and Bailey it is the work required negotiating interaction that promotes language acquisition, rather than comprehensible input which is the intended outcome of negotiations. Yule (1997) emphasizes that in referential communication studies a distinction is made between negotiation of meaning, which is concerned with the intended meaning of the speaker, and negotiation of communicative outcome, which is concerned with resolving referential conflicts. Yule explains that referential conflicts are created when participants' points of reference or perspectives are distinct. Referential communication tasks promote verbal explicitness about what is already known to the sender but not to the receiver.

Learner autonomy in second language learning and focus on the individual learner arises according to Grenfell (2000), because of the general conclusion of applied linguistic research: namely, that learners develop at their own individual rate and follow a broadly predictable sequence. Grenfell maintains that second language learning needs to incorporate more learning to learn, i.e. learning strategies. In his discussion of task-based syllabus design Breen (1987) asserts that the focus is not only on knowledge of language behaviour and language learning. He maintains that the task-based syllabus is defined in terms of two major task types: communication tasks and learning tasks. The latter incorporates metalanguage, i.e. language about language. Little (2000) emphasizes that in formal learning contexts learners take their first steps towards autonomy when they accept responsibility for their own learning.

The third issue regards language teaching for specific purposes. As Thorogood (2000) points out, the challenge here lies in determining the range and scope of tasks. Thorogood states that current vocational language programmes address circumscribed vocational needs, but do not give the linguistic grounding for real communication. When dealing with professions, one deals with expertise. Wieden (1998) states that vocational language teaching deals with domain specific language that represents domain specific knowledge. Arguably
resources for language teaching programmes for specific purposes are hard to come by and there is a growing need in this field.

1.3 ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

Chapters two and three provide a thorough review of the theoretical issues that were raised in section 1.2. Chapter four illustrates the application of these principles in the specific purpose course design for isiXhosa second language learning and teaching.

In chapter two a review of the major theoretical issues regarding second language acquisition (SLA), which supports task-based methodology, is provided. In section 2.1 the relevant theoretical notions are introduced and the notions of theory and approach are shown to be interrelated in as far as an approach manifests a theoretical rationale in practice. The relationship between theory and practice is investigated in section 2.2. Theory originates from research, and research is practiced within different approaches to SLA. A discussion of different kinds of research, different approaches to research, and different usage of terminology within research traditions, provides insight into current literature and theory. The relationship between SLA research and pedagogy is also shown to be interrelated. Sharwood Smith (1993), along with other researchers, realizes the importance of this relationship and pleads for closer co-operation between second language (L2) teachers and researchers. The contributions that SLA research and pedagogy have made towards each other's fields confirm the need for co-operation and more open dialogue between these two disciplines. Gass (1995) refers to Schachter's view of the classroom as the place where theory and practice interact. Allwright and Bailey (1991) emphasize the growing need for classroom research. A discussion of Allwright and Bailey's definitions of the principles and processes involved in classroom research provides a background view for teachers to become involved in action
research themselves, as to gain understanding of and make contributions to the field of SLA.

In section 2.3 the relevant SLA theories and approaches are discussed in detail. Firstly the basic concepts and underlying theories to the main approaches, which support a task-based methodology, are identified and defined. Current theories that describe underlying, abstract constraints on language rules and make predictions about the course of L2 development, like Pienemann’s Processability Theory and the Autonomous Induction Theory, are explained. The importance of metaknowledge and its role in L2 teaching and learning is noted.

A description of Universal Grammar (UG) with its abstract principles and parameters, its role in L2 learning, and the implications of the UG theory for L2 teaching illustrate its relevance in assuming a task-based approach to specific purpose course design for isiXhosa second language teaching. Mitchell and Myles (1998) describe Chomsky’s discussion of “Plato’s Problem”, which motivated the UG approach that explains how language learners can acquire infinite language possibilities with finite language input.

Krashen’s Input Theory inspired a large body of research, which was based on a cognitive perspective of SLA that was in accordance to the UG tradition. The theories and empirical findings on comprehensible input and intake, marked input, consciousness-raising and input enhancement, as well as negative input enhancement to treat learners’ errors, are noted in section 2.3.3.1 and illustrate the extensiveness and distinctness of the research that followed in the tradition of Krashen’s cognitive perspective on SLA.

According to Mitchell and Myles, Long’s Interaction Hypothesis reacted on Krashen’s Input Hypothesis and suggests that modified interaction attempt to make input comprehensible. Investigating Long’s Hypothesis, SLA researchers proposed a relationship between enhanced comprehension and conversational
modifications, participation or engagement, receptivity, intercultural conversations, learner-learner interaction, and task type and task conditions. The procedure for input to become part of or to change the learner's existing developmental linguistic system is investigated at the hand of processing theories. Carroll (1999) explains the human cognitive ability to process information as restricted, and automatic processing takes time to establish. VanPatten (1996) emphasizes attention as an essential condition for learning and he describes the process of detecting information as interfering with information processing.

An approach of focus on form in second language (L2) teaching and learning is based on theories of consciousness-raising and information detection. Arguments for and against focus on form illustrate different approaches that manifests in the methodology and syllabus content. Long and Robinson (1998) compare focus on form to focus on meaning and describe a focus on form syllabus that is analytic and rooted in Long's interactive approach.

In chapter three the principles and properties of task-based second language teaching and learning are investigated. Firstly, in section 3.2 the concept of communicative tasks for language learning is described. An analysis of different task types, with examples of tasks following, illustrates the concept. A focus on form approach to L2 teaching and learning is adopted in structure-based communicative tasks. The properties of tasks that focus on form are defined and Loschky and Bley-Vroman's (1993) criteria for developing structure-based communication tasks are noted for task design. Finally an analysis of Yule's (1997) discussion on referential communication tasks and examples of such tasks offer a different perspective on the use of tasks in the second language teaching and learning context. In section 3.3 a pedagogical view of the use of tasks is provided through thorough reference to the theoretical rationale for task-based teaching and a brief discussion of the task-based syllabus. Long and
Crookes (1993) suggest a six phase design programme for task-based teaching and note problems with task selection and grading and sequencing of tasks.

In section 3.4 contemporary views on language teaching for specific purposes provide general principles for specific purpose course design. Grenfell (2000) describes a change in the way language is viewed and explains that as an assertive instrument for control of the world, language should be taught differently. A new approach to language learning is suggested and it is one that views the learner as independent and autonomous. Grenfell suggests cognitive and metacognitive strategies that allow learners to take responsibility for their own learning. A different perspective on authentic and appropriate language for second language (L2) learning and teaching is defined by Seidlhofer and Widdowson (1998), who emphasize that relevance is established locally. The role of the L2 teacher in effective learning is noted in, what Breen (1987) might call “a more wholistic” approach to SLA. Grossman (1998) emphasizes the importance of cross-cultural awareness for communicative competence and suggests how it can be taught. A short discussion of language policy that accommodates a contemporary view of language and multilingualism is relevant for the South African context.

Language teaching for specific purposes or vocational language teaching is noted to have an important role in modern societies. The views of mainly Thorogood (2000) and Wieden (1998) provide a basis for specific purpose course design. Wieden states that within professions there is expertise or domain specific knowledge which is associated with domain specific language. He argues that although the knowledge and language are mostly acquired together and part of this knowledge is implicit, much of the expertise has to be made explicit and communicated. Kukovec (1998) identifies sources for the linguist to acquire the domain specific language knowledge and emphasizes the role of a learners’ needs analysis for course design.
In chapter four a framework for a task design for the specific purposes of local
government workers is presented. This is the result of a study that was
conducted at Overstrand Municipality in the Western Cape to identify the
learners’ specific communication needs. The learner population and learner
context for the study are described in section 4.2 as to define the scope and
range of the task design. In section 4.3 the target tasks that were identified by
the study are described and presented in dialogue form. These target tasks are
analyzed according to Pica, Kanagy and Falodun’s (1993) task typology and
suggestions are made in reference to the grading of certain task in accordance
with Yule’s (1997) principles for referential communication tasks. An analysis of
the move-structures and essential language structures, as they are presented in
the authentic task dialogues, could assist the course designer in identifying
possible learning tasks. In section 4.4 the importance of promoting self-
responsibility for learning amongst language learners is emphasized and
motivated.

In chapter five the conclusions of the study are presented and possible
implications and suggestions for future studies are noted.
CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL ISSUES IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the 1970's there has been a growing interest in research of second language acquisition (SLA). A broad range of approaches exists and because of many different issues studied, the field of second language (L2) research is characterized by a diversity of focus areas. Various other terms have been used for some areas of research on L2 learning, including psycholinguistics and interlanguage studies. There is a general acceptance in the literature of the value of research on SLA for teaching and a growing urgency to link SLA theory and research with pedagogical issues. Applied linguistics is a field of study that relates the theory to the practice of language pedagogy. Teachers are urged to be critical in making enlightened choices of teaching practices for their specific classroom and cultural environment. Gass (1995) refers to Schachter's study on the classroom as the place where theory and practice interact; pedagogical issues therefore by implication motivate research and teachers should have the necessary skills to be researchers themselves.

In order to gain a better understanding of the broad field of SLA it is necessary to examine the properties of relevant theories. First, some brief considerations of relevant notions are in order. A theory is defined as a set of claims that makes predictions about a phenomenon that can be investigated. Research tests theories and helps to develop emerging theories. An approach to L2 learning or L2 teaching methodology is a theoretical rationale that underlies the behaviour or actions which constitute the SLA process. An informed approach is based on a global understanding of all linguistic and SLA related theories and is a dynamic composite of energies. In this chapter a review is given of the basic concepts
and the most pertinent theories for a task-based approach to second language (L2) learning and teaching.

The linguistic approaches of Universal Grammar, and views on Input and Interaction support arguments for an analytic, task-based syllabus for second language teaching, including second language teaching for specific purposes. These approaches provide the key principles for L2 learning and teaching. Because of the extensive research that has been conducted in both these linguistic approaches, as well as modifications in the theoretical explanations, it is necessary to introduce the central issues which allow for a better understanding of the differences between these and other theories and of continuous developments in the field.

Although L2 learners have greater cognitive abilities, the acquisition process is restricted by their limited processing abilities. The notion of input is borrowed from information-processing studies, but input processing has only recently become the focus of SLA research. Krashen’s Input Theory does not explain the process of language learning or how mere exposure to comprehensible input promotes learning. In an attempt to make Krashen’s hypotheses more accessible for SLA, research was conducted that lead to the development of processing models. Mitchell and Myles (1998) describe the information processing models that were developed by Pienemann, McLaughlin and Anderson. Pienemann (1998) later developed a processability theory. These models are input based as opposed to output based.

Focus on form is an approach that was motivated by Long’s Interaction Hypothesis, which as Allwright and Bailey (1991) explain, holds that SLA cannot be attributed to either an innate ability or the influence SLA environment. Focus on form refers to how focal attention resources are applied to enhance specific aspects of the input. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) refer to studies which show that focus on form advances the final level of acquisition and can diminish the occurrence of fossilization in SLA. As Murphy (1993) points out, task-based
syllabi consider focus on form to serve as a catalyst for language learning and therefore it is important to describe the properties of this approach.

The aim of this chapter is to provide a systematic perspective of the central issues underlying the use of tasks in second language learning and teaching. This perspective rests on a sound theoretical foundation, which serves as point of departure for the research undertaken for Specific Purpose Course Design for isiXhosa second language teaching.

2.2 LANGUAGE LEARNING: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE

2.2.1 Second language learning theory: approach and research

The key question that second language research tries to answer relates to how people learn new languages. As Eckman (1995) observes, the process through which knowledge and skill are gained in a language, which is not the learner's mother tongue, is no simple matter and there is still not a single widely accepted theory of SLA. The study of the language performance of any kind of L2 learner can form a basis for expectations and predictions about the external and internal mechanisms that drive and inhibit L2 language development in general; but has to be considered mostly as a basis for evaluating what happens in practice.

Braidi (1999) explores the questions that SLA research have up to date been concerned with, such as which structures L2 learners acquire with more or less ease or difficulty; explanations of how and why grammatical development proceeds in the manner it does; and investigations of the bigger picture which accommodates all these findings. Three major approaches to SLA that have led to current studies are contrastive analysis, error analysis, and Interlanguage (IL) analysis. While contrastive analysis was originally based on the contrast between surface structures of the native language and the target language, current approaches compare and contrast the underlying, abstract constraints on
language rules in order to make predictions about the course of L2 development. Task-based research studies relating to what L2 speakers have to say and how they say it, involve communicative tasks. Yule (1997) distinguishes between casual communication and referential communication. Yule advances that from a research perspective, casual communication entails too many uncontrolled variables. Referential communication research is about purposeful communication. Yule explains that the researcher elicits a range of structured discourses by using different task types (e.g. descriptions, instructions, directions, and narrative accounts), in order to form a profile of the range of a speaker’s ability.

When the L2 teacher asks how L2 research contributes to their understanding of SLA and how knowledge of SLA can aid their competence or development, they are often confronted with a broad range of approaches and diverse usage of terminology. L2 researchers have different perspectives in examining L2 grammatical development and accordingly ask different types of questions about SLA. Although distinguishing different approaches in SLA research and theory provides a better understanding, in reality, different approaches are often not so easy to classify and often research studies may implicate more than one approach. In other cases, research studies take the same theoretical approach, but focus on different aspects of the acquisition process.

Research concerned with the phenomena of SLA of grammar in particular has its foundations in theoretical linguistics and is generally either executed in the generative tradition, or has assumed a functional approach. Braidi (1999) points out that researchers like Chomsky, who in the generative tradition adopted a specific structural view of grammatical development, distinguish between knowledge of language, grammatical competence, and actual use of language, or performance. This differentiation forms the basis of the generative approach to linguistics and research focuses on grammatical competence. Researchers, who have adopted a generative approach, have investigated L2 learners’
development of competence at the level of syntax. Researchers, who take a functional approach, reject the importance of distinguishing between competence and performance and argue that grammatical form cannot be understood without considering its function. They investigate how and why certain structures perform the functions they do. Functional approaches analyze the functions that language fulfills within discourse and which grammatical structures encode these functions.

A fundamental difference in approach to SLA research is the relationship in which it stands with practical application. In this regard, one could argue that since language is rule-governed, linguists should determine those rules and describe them systematically in order for pedagogy to present them. On the other hand it is often argued that linguists should only provide descriptions to language pedagogy. Braidi (1999) defines the term “grammar rules” with different meanings for linguists who work within different linguistic approaches. Within the tradition of generative grammar, there are rules derived from generative linguistic theory, in other words, the rules exhibited through language in use. These “rules” are acquired through primary linguistic data (i.e. any utterances of the L2 learner’s environment); while other learned linguistic data form part of the learner’s competence and are not available in actual communication performance. Within the generative grammar approach, rules are syntactically represented with co-indexed traces of the different elements' original positions. A second kind of rule is referred to as native-speaker competence rules, which is the result of those rules demonstrated by a native speaker’s judgements of which sentences are grammatical and which do not belong to the native language (i.e. ungrammatical). Pedagogical rules are those rules that are found in textbooks and are explicitly learned. Metalanguage is used to explain linguistic and applied linguistic rules. Lastly, interlanguage (IL) competence rules can be distinguished during L2 learners' performance on production tasks. IL is considered to be rule-governed, although dynamic and variable, it is considered to be systematic with common developmental
sequences. In contrast to the competence-based generative approach, functional approaches to language refer to the context while using encoding mechanisms to identify rules that are discourse based. The major difference between IL encoding rules and IL competence rules lies in the form-function theory that learners develop certain grammatical forms to fulfill their communicative needs.

Researchers also adopt different measurements to determine when language, or a specific language structure, is acquired. Braidi (1999) maintains that some SLA researchers adopt the first language (L1) convention in considering a structure to be acquired when it occurs three times in a row in an *obligatory context* at a rate of 90%. This view could be problematic in the sense that in certain languages, such as isiXhosa, certain structures are *non-obligatory* unless in contexts of emphasis, as illustrated in the following examples:

(i) Umfazi uyachola amaphepha esitratweni.
   (Woman Sub.agr.-pres.-pick papers in-street.)
   (The woman *is* picking up papers in the street.)

(ii) Umfazi uwachola amaphepha esitratweni.
    (Woman Sub.agr.-Obj.agr.-pick papers in-street.)
    (The woman picks up the papers.)

Both the morphemes in bold print (i.e. the present tense morpheme –*ya*- and the object agreement morpheme –*wa*-, respectively) in the examples above are non-obligatory unless to indicate some form of emphasis. The question is whether it is possible to determine the obligatory context for emphasis even if discourse is taken into account.

Researchers such as Pienemann and Clahsen used an alternative measurement to determine the acquisition of a structure. At the point at which a structure emerges in the learner’s IL it is considered to be acquired. Braidi (1999) explains
that Pienemann describes different stages of IL development with reference to certain morphemes, which emerge in conformity to the rule that characterizes each given stage. (Later Pienemann (1998) explains his findings according to his processibility theory.) A functional approach to such measurements would be to investigate not only all the possible contexts where a structure occurs, but also to consider the functions for which it is used in those contexts. Other researchers use a native speakers control group with which to compare the performance of an experimental L2 learners group. When the L2 learners' performance does not differ significantly from the native speakers' performance, the language involved would be statistically determined as having been acquired by the L2 group.

Researchers focus on different aspects of language development, each of which is determined by different underlying assumptions guiding their research. In longitudinal studies one subject's or group's development is investigated over a period of time and it is possible to determine the order in which they acquire structures. Alternatively, cross-sectional studies of different learners at a single point in time could determine the level of accuracy with which learners use a structure only at that given time. However executed, and whatever the approach that motivates the researcher's perspective, the goal of SLA research is to explain how a linguistic system develops in a L2 learner. Pedagogy must reflect an understanding of theory of SLA and pedagogical principles should be firmly based on theory and research. Sharwood Smith (1993) points out that if theories were applied without restraint to language teaching practice, the results "might be worse than simply applying common sense and the fruits of practical experience."

VanPatten (1996) observes that some researchers argue the point differently and claim that SLA research is only as important as the pedagogical issues that motivate it. Language and language learning are central to many aspects of life. Language and IL analysis may be of relevance to many kinds of applied and non-
applied research studies – research should reflect this interdisciplinary character of language and language learning. VanPatten argues that if any value is to be placed on L2 instruction, then it is in the mutual interest of both the field of SLA and pedagogy that researchers and teachers understand the goals and needs of the other’s field and work together. This can be achieved through dialogue between different kinds of researchers and practitioners, as well as through teachers getting involved in classroom research.

2.2.2 The relationship between research and pedagogy

The intimate relationship between theory, research and practice has been acknowledged for as long as language has been considered a science. SLA theory, although a relatively new science, has established itself as an area of study distinct from linguistic theory. L2 pedagogy has also evolved in recent years and developed as a distinct science. Flynn and Martohardjono (1995) maintain that the progress in both these areas has been marked by an increasing dichotomy between them. This is unfortunate, because as Flynn and Martohardjono explain, an examination of developments in both these fields is necessary for a comprehensive understanding of L2 learning. Interaction between these areas would be mutually benefiting.

Sharwood Smith (1993) notes that there are signs of interface between the new research area of theory and experimentation on L2 learning on the one hand and the practical world of language teaching on the other. Applied linguistics is a field of study that attempts to function as an interface for SLA and L2 pedagogy. The question of which SLA theory to consider and more importantly, why, is one that every L2 learner or teacher is confronted with. Gass (1995) refers to Freeman’s observation that there are four components to teaching: knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness. Gass identifies the component of *knowledge* as knowledge of the structure of language and knowledge about how people acquire it. L2 learners often insist on formal explanations and explicit rules, they want to
monitor and understand their development. This need is according to Gass, a reflection of a general problem-solving strategy in situations that impose some sense of order, as well as a psychological need for security.

L2 research still has many questions to answer on the learning of syntax, for one, and if language teaching is to be acknowledge as a science that is rule-governed, then the practice is where the answers should be coming from. Braidi (1999) describes L2 teachers’ questions around acquisition of syntax as centering on mainly the following issues: the acquisition order of structural forms that reflects their level of ease or difficulty; the form-function relationship of structural forms; and possible instructional methods that would increase the success rate of SLA. Besides research aiming at enhancing an understanding of the SLA process, there is a growing need for applied research, which would identify and assess the outcomes of psycholinguistically relevant instructional design features such as a focus on form. Such research could, according to Braidi, focus on comprehension tasks and determine the sequence in which learners process different kinds of linguistic units and the frequency or saliency of linguistic (or interactional) modifications that brings about intake. Research that investigates the options of pedagogic production tasks and the effects thereof on the quantity and linguistic complexity of learners’ IL production is also relevant for instructional design features. L2 learners could benefit from applied research which investigates cognitive psychology as applied to IL studies. For instance, Sharwood Smith (1994) proposes investigating how to work out new concepts expressible in L2 but not in L1; or as Halmari’s (1993) research investigates the conventions of turn-taking in conversations that are different for the target language culture than for the native language culture. Such general knowledge and skill-building processes are important to adult L2 learners and L2 teachers alike.

SLA research and theory have already made great contribution to L2 pedagogy. Larsen-Freeman (1995) reviews research findings of Wagner-Gough, Andersen
and Huebner, to mention but a few, which have proven that linguistic structures are not acquired without considering their functions and that the meaning or meanings (more than one semantic use) will be obscured when structure is taught outside of discourse context. Studies of learners’ IL development by researchers show that IL’s are rule-governed and systematic, although erroneous by target language standards. From a pedagogical standpoint, such studies explain phenomena like over-generalization, backsliding or the so-called U-shaped behavior and omission of certain forms. Odlin (1994) refers to Coppetiers’ study of near-native speakers who lived in France. His findings suggest that instructed adult SLA would more often minimize fossilization in comparison with untutored learners. Odlin points out Ellis’ research on this topic, which proposes that instructed L2 learners outperform naturalistic learners. Odlin also refers to Pienemann’s studies, which explain the interdependence of the acquisition of structures and show that certain structures are highly resistant to instruction, especially when learners are not ready to use these structures. The value of instruction is clearly motivated by these studies and L2 teachers are guided on how to assist their learners in exploring the target language system independently. SLA theory has given a different perspective to the pedagogical process, where learning is the central process with learners and teachers working together in a partnership. The importance of creating opportunities for authentic language use where learners can express their own meanings and where all errors in language use are not viewed as mistakes, are but a view significant contributions of SLA theory to L2 pedagogy that are referred to in later sections. Larsen-Freeman (1995) summarizes the contribution of SLA theory to pedagogy as enabling teachers firstly to be more efficient and more effectively make decisions in the classroom; secondly, to cultivate positive attitudes towards language learning amongst their students; and finally SLA theory can comfort teachers.

L2 pedagogy also has much to contribute to SLA theory. As Larsen-Freeman explains L2 teachers know that classroom interaction is complex and
unpredictable because it is conditional. Larsen-Freeman notes that L2 teachers know, although no current theory can explain it, that learners differ in terms of the rate of acquisition and their ultimate attainment of a L2. Larsen-Freeman (1995) also asserts that teaching practices have proven that successful learning takes place for some learners, no matter what method is employed (Stevick's riddle). Research cannot account for the fact that learning takes place even when it is not visible. SLA is a multidimensional phenomenon. Gass (1995) refers to Schachter's description of the classroom as the place where theory and practice interact. Allwright and Bailey (1991) maintain that teachers should not only know about SLA, but they have to become involved with research themselves. Gass (1995) asserts that teaching is by nature a constant process of experimentation and therefore teachers are by necessity fulltime researchers. Gass makes a distinction between the goal of SLA theory as identifying what are the minimal circumstances necessary for SLA to take place, while pedagogy is concerned with effective learning. Because of the different views that teachers and linguists hold teachers can and must contribute to SLA theory. Classroom research does not only allow teachers to contribute to the field of SLA, but also encourages teachers to be more critical about their own behaviour and that of the learners.

2.2.3 Classroom research

Flynn and Martohardjono (1995) discuss language teachers and researchers who have attempted to understand SLA theory and are left frustrated when linguistic theory changes or proves to be of little relevance for their practice. Gass (1995) refers to Schachter's definition of SLA models as attempting to describe which factors in L2 learners' SLA environment and what behaviour promote the acquisition process. L2 teachers want to know how they have to manage their classrooms in order to maximize their students' L2 learning. Schachter claims that SLA models have to make predictions about learners' IL development, which is consistent with what teachers observe in the intermediate
stages of their learners. Finally, Schachter emphasizes that teachers also expect SLA theory to give some explanations of why SLA is not universally successful.

SLA theory is based on what is observed when L2 learners are in a SLA environment. Language classrooms are the logical place to test and accept or reject and modify SLA hypotheses. Gass (1995) asserts that rather than have a circumscribed role, teachers should get involved with research themselves. The classroom has always been an experimental laboratory and experience has taught teachers what no theory has manage to explain. It is in everyone’s best interest, especially that of L2 learners, that teachers should expand their awareness of the SLA processes and enhance their attitudes towards the field. Gass emphasizes that the dialogue between researchers and teachers is very important to ensure that they are aware of each other’s goals and needs. They must interact to develop appropriate teaching and testing materials. Teachers should understand the basis of particular hypotheses, as well as have the basic skills, not only to oversee research studies in their classrooms, but also to conduct their own studies.

Classroom research, as a field of study, has attracted more and more interest. According to Allwright and Bailey (1991) the more researchers have investigated the processes of teaching and learning as they occur in the classroom, the more they realize how complex these processes are, and the more respect they gain for the work that teachers do. Allwright and Bailey argue that classroom research is a dynamic area of investigation and has major relevance for syllabus design, materials development, testing, and teacher education. An important development in classroom research was the emergence of discourse analysis. Allwright and Bailey emphasize that although making transcripts is a very time-consuming process, it provides a detailed account of the linguistic interaction in classrooms, which can be explored fruitfully for many different purposes. Teachers are aware of the gap that exists between their planning and teaching, and the actual learning that occurs in classrooms. The classroom with its
interaction is a multidimensional phenomenon and it is never easy to record or explain what happens there. Allwright and Bailey (1991) explain that L2 language classrooms add more complexity to dealing with research, because language is both what is being taught and the means by which it is taught. Thus, they propose that classroom research is not always about finding answers, but often rather about exploring possibilities. Allwright and Bailey advances the view that the value of classroom research for L2 teaching and learning lies in the claim that in order to promote learning, it is not necessary to employ the "latest method"; what is important is a fuller understanding of the language classroom and what goes on there.

According to Allwright and Bailey the process of classroom research consists of two parts: firstly, getting well informed about the issue a researcher wants to investigate, and secondly, collecting and analyzing the data. The first part includes becoming updated with the literature and any previous research on the topic. This would direct procedures for the proposed classroom research. Data collection involves compiling a record of what happened in the classroom. Such a record can be developed directly through observation or by conducting a survey. In either case, it is imperative to decide in advance on appropriate categories for investigation. Through direct observation the researcher notes what happens in the classroom under those headings. Allwright and Bailey argue that the presence of the researcher, or the presence of any recording device, interferes with the authenticity of the observed group's behaviour. In addition, there are many aspects of classroom processes that are not observable. When conducting a survey, on the other hand, there is also the risk that questions are not answered truthfully and it is important to consider the wording of the questions very carefully. Two options to using a questionnaire for conducting a survey, is either to study some form of self-report (for example the learners' diaries) or to use test results or test data to show whether the particular categories that are investigated are important in relation to effective learning.
Allwright and Bailey provide examples of the type of issues that have been studied in classroom research, including how teachers respond to learners' errors, how interaction occurs in classrooms, the type of linguistic input provided in classroom settings and the feelings of teachers and learners at various points during or after a lesson. In deciding on what to investigate, it is important to understand what are the different factors involved in classroom L2 learning. Although planned aspects to classroom interaction like the syllabus, teaching methods and the atmosphere are introduced, the true outcomes of the language lesson lie in the provided input, the opportunities for practice and the learners' receptivity to language learning. These are according to Allwright and Bailey, the key issues that teachers themselves can explore, by conducting their own research, to get a better understanding of what is happening in their classrooms.

After identifying what to investigate, the researcher has to evaluate his or her choice of approach. According to Allwright and Bailey this is important to consider, because an approach to research determines the findings. It is important that researchers base their approach on a well-informed opinion about what is most likely to contribute to the sort of understanding they want from their investigations. Allwright and Bailey note that the instrument for measurement and the degree of control that is chosen, decide the kind of invention and selectivity involved in the study and ultimately determines the results. Quantitative data collection could be a transcript of a lesson, which would allow the researcher to count the frequency of occurrence of certain linguistic structures or behaviour. Qualitative data collection would include texts, like learners' diaries, which reveal opinions and perceptions that the researcher would analyze and judge. Although quantification has an appeal to objectivity, it is not always suited for the kind of research issue. Allwright and Bailey explain that when approaching any research dealing with whatever matter relating to language use, it is important to consider the cultural mix of the classroom members and the culture-specific rules about speaking out or not speaking out in a group. Allwright and Bailey refer to Krashen's philosophy about classroom
participation which maintain that learners will speak when they are ready to and that the decision should be left up to them. They observe research which suggests that learners’ level of verbal interaction in the classroom is related to their own ideas about how they learn best. Diary studies, which give a first person’s account of the language learning (or teaching) experience, provide insight into such matters that are not observable in a very reliable way. They assert that the researcher has to be aware of how the choice of measurement determines data collection and data analysis.

According to Allwright and Bailey there are two general approaches to classroom research: experimental research, which aims at investigating a situation without changing it, and action research, which deliberately sets out to bring about change. The former claims that research results are valid for all similar situations, whereas the latter is looking for local solutions to local problems. Allwright and Bailey suggest that it is the latter, action research, which teachers are most likely to employ. The researcher (teacher) gets directly involved with the process of learning and by intervening applies maximum control. Allwright and Bailey note that the instrument of measurement, being observation, minimizes the selectivity of data collected. SLA research has, because of its very nature, problems with reliability, internal validity and generalisability. The reliability of research depends on the consistency of the research procedures and internal validity could only be achieved if outcomes are ascribed to the controlled factors of the research study. According to Allwright and Bailey SLA researchers acknowledge the fact that it is very difficult to control the exact methods of teaching employed by teachers 100% of the time, as well as the environmental factors contributing to learning. Teachers can also attest that learners do not learn from the well-worked out lessons, but that they learn from whatever becomes of those lessons in the classrooms. Considering the unique nature of every classroom and every lesson, Allwright and Bailey note that it is understandable that to generalize the outcomes of a sample (i.e. the group studied) for the population (all L2 learners) would be hopeful, in the least.
2.3 SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORIES AND APPROACHES

2.3.1 The basic concepts and important theories

Although SLA theory uses many principles and concepts of linguistic theory, the two disciplines are considered distinct. Constructs such as Interlanguage, native language interference, parameter resetting and affective filter are considered as part of L2 theory and not as part of linguistic theory.

Braidi (1999) refers to Selinker’s definition of the construct Interlanguage as “a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner’s attempted production of a target language (TL) norm.” Selinker contributed the development of L2 learners’ IL to the following processes: L1 transfer, transfer of learned knowledge, L2 learning strategies, L2 communication strategies, and overgeneralization of TL linguistic material. SLA theorists analyze IL data. The contribution of IL studies to the field of SLA theory is evident throughout the literature and reference is often made to it. Interlanguage is L2 learners’ language. It exhibits systematic development of learners’ linguistic systems. IL is a dynamic system that is formed through a series of interlocking system. Although IL variation occurs it is observed to be rule-governed. IL studies identified developmental sequences and acquisition orders of TL structures.

Crosslinguistic influence (CLI) is an important SLA phenomenon. It has also been referred to as language transfer, but language transfer generally refers to L1 transfer to the TL. Sharwood Smith (1996) explains that CLI can also occur in “reverse direction” – from TL to L1, and includes L1 transfer to TL when it is correct to do so. Sharwood Smith takes a popular position in explaining CLI, which is White’s argument that Universal Grammar (UG) is available to the L2
learner indirectly via the L1 and learners therefore assume L1 parameter settings “unless evidence turns up to disconfirm this assumption”. Sharwood Smith (1996) describes different hypotheses which explain CLI. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis explains almost all errors during L2 development as resulting from L1 interference. The Interlanguage Hypothesis sees the developing L2 as a language operating within its own rules, some of which might reflect L1 rules. The Creative Construction Hypothesis explains any L1 influence that appears (except for minor influences like accent), as due to reasons which do not form part of the mechanisms that drive L2 development. Sharwood Smith refers to Eckman’s popular theory, which is called the Markedness Differential Hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, a move from marked L1 to unmarked L2 is easy, whereas a move from unmarked L1 to marked L2 is difficult and therefore leads to CLI.

When the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis failed to explain many errors that occur in the L2 learner’s developing linguistic system, researchers shifted their approach to SLA research from contrastive analysis to error analysis. An error can be defined in terms of deviance from the “correct” native speaker norm or TL model in the production of a linguistic form. Allwright and Bailey (1991) explain that in the language classroom any behaviour signaled by the teacher as needing improvement, would be considered an error. Allwright and Bailey refer to Chaudron’s explanation of this notion as depending on the immediate context of the utterance in question, as well as on an understanding of the content of the lesson, the intent of the teacher or the student, and expected prior knowledge of the learner. Sharwood Smith (1993) explains that knowledge is a system that the learner can only build through exposure to input, and therefore an error cannot be described as due to a lack of knowledge, but rather as the result of a “different knowledge”. He considers it as important not to see the learner as the creator of rules, nor as internalizing rules, but he views the learner as using input, by internalizing examples, to fill out, tune, or reset an already existing set of
linguistic principles and parameters. Sharwood Smith calls this the "systematic errors of IL".

Allwright and Bailey (1991) point out different types of errors. **Overgeneralisation** is a common phenomenon amongst L1 and L2 learners alike. It occurs when learners produce ungrammatical utterances, which they have never heard in the SLA environment, but which they have derived from a learned rule. For instance, an isiXhosa L2 learner, who has learned that the possessive pronoun is "umama wam", would initially overgeneralise the rule to all other nouns, like "inja wam" instead of the grammatically correct form: "inja yam". Native adults have been observed to also make performance errors. Allwright and Bailey describe an overgeneralisation as a momentary lapse or "slip of the tongue", which occurs when two words are similar in structure or semantically related and therefore "filed" together in the psycholinguistic filing system and consequently retrieved inaccurately. Such a mistake does not reflect a gap in the speaker's actual competence and is usually self-corrected when the substitution is observed. If learners have the linguistic knowledge to detect and correct an error, then have the **strategic competence** to deal with linguistic difficulties. Allwright and Bailey explain one way in which learners deal with a gap in their linguistic ability and refers to what Tarone calls "word coinage". **Word coinage** is a communication strategy by which a L2 learner creates a word that sounds as if it could or should be a word in the TL. Another concept that is often used in the context of learners' errors is "fossilization". Allwright and Bailey explain fossilization in terms of the metaphor of "hypothesis testing". L2 learners try a new form — "they pose and test a hypothesis". Afterwards they get positive (comprehension signals) or negative feedback (blank looks or requests for clarification) from interlocutors. The idea is that learning takes place, and incorrect forms become internalized or fossilized, unless learners receive negative evidence when they use a non-native form. Allwright and Bailey refer to Schmidt and Frota's description of the **auto-input hypothesis** and suggest that an erroneous form
serves as input to the person who uttered it, and even to other learners who are present.

*Universal Grammar* (UG) theory, of which one of the earlier versions is known as *Governing and Binding Theory*, developed by Chomsky and others, and its later version, the *Minimalist Programme*, posits a universal linguistic competence, the principles, and a system of parameters that is responsible for linguistic variation. These principles and parameters interact with each other. Principles do not have to be learnt. Not all languages employ all the principles, e.g. isiXhosa, which does not use movement to form questions, and therefore does not employ arguments so far about structural-dependency. Braidi (1999) explains that language learning involves *parameter setting*, e.g. English and Afrikaans are non-pro-drop, where as isiXhosa is a pro-drop language and therefore does not need sentence subjects. When Afrikaans native speakers learn isiXhosa L2, the pro-drop parameter has to be set or reset. The availability of UG for SLA has three possibilities: no access for SLA to UG; direct access and indirect access via the L1. Cook (1994) points out that there is a lot of controversy between these alternatives.

Mitchell and Myles (1998) describe *Krashen’s Input Theory* as based on UG in that it relies on a human’s innate ability to acquire a language. According to Mitchell and Myles the Input Hypothesis in its most developed form claims that a language learner only needs to be exposed to *comprehensible input* (i+1) to promote learning. Allwright and Bailey (1991) refer to Schmidt and Frota who advance that the learner will then “notice the gap” between his or her own linguistic hypotheses and that of the TL. Allwright and Bailey note that Krashen argues that it is not necessary for the learner to consciously notice the gap. Mitchell and Myles (1998) refer to Schmidt’s distinction between *noticing*, which he defines as attending to a stimulus, and *understanding* along with *awareness*, which he associates with the recognition of specific knowledge. Learning involves *hypothesis testing* and adjustment of the learner’s developing linguistic
system. Determining *optimal input* and stimulating *noticing* are issues that lead to a lot of debates. Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggest that one way of looking at the question of appropriate input is to ask how much of what is presented is actually available to be used by the learner – that is considering the notion of *intake*. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) refer to Krashen's *Monitor Model* which distinguishes between *learned* and *acquired* knowledge. With his *non-interface position*, Krashen claims that learning cannot be acquisition. This dichotomy is expressed in his Monitor Model, where learned knowledge (or explicit knowledge) only acts as a monitor in certain "monitorable" tasks and is unusable for communicative tasks. According to Sharwood Smith (1988) learned knowledge cannot be transferred to acquired knowledge, but, input stimulates the learner's acquisition device to (re-)construct the target rule. Sharwood Smith refers to Krashen's suggestion that only some learners can profit from learned knowledge, and only after a certain age (usually puberty), and also that learned knowledge is only accessible given time and focus on form. Sharwood Smith concludes that whatever the underlying processes in L2 learning, spontaneous performance and fluency is only attained through practice, in other words *automaticity* will be achieved through performance in the TL.

Pienemann's *Processability Theory* provides a comprehensible theoretical context for his *Teachability Hypothesis*. Pienemann (1998) predicts that stages of acquisition cannot be skipped through formal instruction and that, on the other hand, instruction will be beneficial if it focused on structures from the following stage of acquisition. Pienemann proposes that *learnability* or *teachability* is further constrained by the architecture or human language processing. In other words, language acquisition includes the acquisition of the procedural skills necessary for the processing of the language. The acquisition of language processing procedures is activated according to hierarchy, where each lower level is a prerequisite for the functioning of the higher level. Pienemann hypothesizes that procedures will be acquired in their implicational sequence as follows: firstly, word or lemma access; then, category procedure, followed by
phrasal procedure, S-procedure and finally, sub-clause procedure (if applicable). In isiXhosa this hierarchy of processing procedures and routines advanced by Pienemann can be illustrated by the following examples:

1. "words", e.g. *intombi* (noun "girl")
2. lexical morphemes, i.e. *in + tombi* (class 9 noun)
3. phrasal information exchange: *intombi intle* (noun relative "the girl is nice")
4. inter-phrasal information exchange: *Ndiyayithanda intombi entle.* (sentence object clause "I like her, the girl is nice.")
5. main and sub clause: *Ndiyayithanda intombi eya edolophini.* (main sentence with relative subordinate clause "I like her, the girl who is going to town.")

Carroll (1999) proposes the *Autonomous Induction Theory* and hypothesizes that the mind encodes information in a variety of *autonomous representational formats* and that there is no central executive which co-ordinates information. This theory rejects parameter-(re)setting, general problem-solving and a non-structural cognitive architecture. Carroll proposes a chain of representations, "languages of the mind", which analyze speech signals automatically from the "lowest" level, closest to the properties of the stimulus, "up" to a conceptual representation. Carroll suggests that there are two types of processors involved: a correspondence processor, which maps from one autonomous level to the next, and an integrative processor, which constructs representation at each level of analysis. All operations relevant to the processing of a signal and parsing procedures are not equipped for a language. According to Carroll learning causes adjustments in the parsing operations so that transfer processes can occur the level of acoustic-phonetic processing levels.

According to Sharwood Smith (1993) *metalanguage* is associated with the adjective *metalinguistic* and refers to ways in which language is seen as an object of conscious attention. Sharwood Smith explains that with metalanguage
metaknowledge, which is the explicit rules and principles of a linguistic system, can be organized and reflected upon. In other words, when a linguist or language teacher talks about the formal properties of a language (or IL), they will use metalanguage, for example:

“All verbs take the subject concord of the sentence subject.”

Sharwood Smith argues that metalinguistic awareness is the awareness of language as an object and appears spontaneously even in children who know nothing of the formal properties of language but exploit language by creating rhymes and linguistic jokes (word play). This proves that although they are not conscious of it, children are already aware of the metalinguistic properties that exist in language. Although language is considered as rule-governed behaviour, it is a matter of debate whether metaknowledge or focus on form in L2 teaching promotes SLA. Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1997) describe a general shift to direct approaches in L2 teaching. As pointed out before, Murphy (1994) suggests that task-based syllabi consider focus on form to be a catalyst for L2 learning.

2.3.2 Universal Grammar

2.3.2.1 The role of Universal Grammar in second language learning

At the end of the 1950s Chomsky criticized the Behaviourists’ cognitive learning theories for not acknowledging the complexities and abstractness that occur within language creativity. For example, children transfer and apply language rules to expressions, which they have never been introduced to. According to Mitchell and Myles (1998) Chomsky refers to the phenomenon of children acquiring language within a limited time and with limited language exposure (input) as “Plato’s Problem”. Children are also generally corrected on the semantic truthfulness of what they say, rather than on the grammatical correctness of their expressions. Universal Grammar is a theory of cognition and a generative approach to language learning. In the Chomskyan framework, UG
underlies the structural regularities that occur in all human languages, UG principles can account for all the variation in morphology and syntax in languages. Chomsky extended his initial UG theories to what he called the *minimalist programme*. Mitchell and Myles refer to Chomsky's Minimalist Programme as even more abstract and important. According to Mitchell and Myles, Chomsky suggested that parameters are not necessarily attached to specific principles, nor do they occur in structural grammar, but the lexicon propose specific functional categories within which these parameters occur. Lexical categories (content words) are part of an open class, while functional categories (grammar words) only consist of determiners, complimentizers and grammatical morphemes. Therefore, Chomsky argues that learners only have to learn the lexicon of a language, as that is the only difference between languages. Cook (1994) asserts that not all the generative work concurs with Chomskyan formulations. The basic concept though, is that language is knowledge stored in the mind. UG is only concerned with basic aspects of grammar.

Mitchell and Myles (1998) state that the role that UG plays in L2 learning has four possibilities. In the *no-access model*, L2 learners acquire L2 grammar without using the UG in their minds. It is true that L2 learners know less of their L2 than their L1, but little research has shown that learners know less of core UG. There has been no clear evidence that L2 learners do not confirm to the principles and parameters; but they rather seem to be confined by the same UG as L1 learners. According to the *direct-access model* L2 learners acquire the TL consulting UG in exactly the same way that L1 learners do: they set values for parameters according to the L2 evidence they encounter in the SLA environment. Arguments against the direct-access model argue that there has to be other factors than UG involved, because L2 learners' knowledge is not as complete as that of L1 learners; furthermore, although all L1 are acquired with equal ease, some languages are clearly more difficult for L2 learners than others; and finally, whereas all L1 learners acquire full native competence, L2 learners become fossilized at some point. An *indirect-access model* propose that L2 learners have
access to UG through their L1 knowledge, which means that the parameters are set for the L1 instead of their original state. When one argues the availability of UG for L2 learning, one has to consider that L2 learners are cognitively mature and already know at least one other language, and also they have different motivations for learning the TL – that is not as a natural reaction to the basic human need to communicate. The partial-access model hypothesizes that some submodules of UG are more or less accessible to the L2 learner. The modular view of the human mind has attracted much interest. Mitchell and Myles present evidence to support this view. The concept of a language faculty which is not limited to intelligence, is supported by studies of children with cognitive deficits who develop language normally. Mitchell and Myles also refer to other studies of cases where individuals are affected by cognitive deficits, such as Williams Syndrome or by Broca's Aphasia, which causes impaired speech production, and Wernick's Aphasia that affects speech comprehension; indicate that specific areas of the brain are associated with language acquisition and in particular responsible for specific aspects of speech. Cook (1994) suggests that access to UG might depend upon the learner's age, because children's minds develop over time. Cook proposes a growth model where different UG principles and parameters are activated at definite stages of development. L2 learners' grammars have proved to be neither similar to their L1 grammars nor that of the TL. This seems to suggest that at least not all aspects of UG are accessed via the L1. Also, some principles and parameters seem to be more difficult to reset than others. There are still many contradictory facts about the SLA process.

Cook (1994) argues that two or more languages can form a single system in the mind: such a state of the mind she refers to as wholistic multicompetence. Cook (1996) formulates a UG model for language acquisition: input leads to instantiation of UG principles, the setting of values for UG parameters and accumulation of vocabulary which constitute grammars of one or more languages. The overall implications of an UG model for language teaching, as summarized by Cook (1994), are that UG is concerned with the "core area" of
language acquisition and it is a reminder of the cognitive nature of language. This means that much of language acquisition can be taken for granted and does not have to be taught; furthermore that L2 learning is the creation of language knowledge in the mind, as well as the creation of the ability to interact with other people. There is a further implication, as stated by Cook: the UG model suggests that teachers pay attention to the nature of language input presented to the learners, especially teaching syntactic aspects of vocabulary acquisition. Cook (1996) makes a case for multilingualism and commiserates with monolinguals about the impoverishment of their linguistic experience. She states that L1 acquisition is not a superior form that others depend on, and that the L1 monolingual is not the norm for the L2 standard to measure failure against. She coins the term “multi-competence” to describe the language knowledge of the L2 learner.

The interest in the application of UG to SLA was in part due to the formulation of specific principles and parameters that could be tested empirically and that explained cross-linguistic variation. Braidi (1999) explains that UG allows researchers to make very specific predictions for SLA. They can predict the acquisition of related structures, or, based on the markedness of the L1 and L2 parameter settings, they can determine the possibility of transfer of different grammatical structures. UG also allow for predictions about the relationship between different kinds of input (the structures that trigger parameter resetting) and SLA.

2.3.2.2 Universal Grammar principles and properties

The notion of Universal Grammar (UG) refers to the innate component that enables language acquisition. Braidi (1999) describes UG as consisting of an abstract set of principles and parameters which define the core aspects of all natural languages. Because it is abstract, it can be generalized to a variety of grammatical structures. Braidi (1999) states that language-specific structures,
which have resulted from historical changes or borrowing, are not governed by UG principles and parameters, but form part of the peripheral grammar of individual languages. Flynn and Martohardjono (1995) describe UG principles that form a universal computational system, as *linguistic competence*. The system of parameters accounts for linguistic variation and is associated with the lexicon of a language. Braidi (1999) explains that complexity arises because of the great number of principles and parameters that exists, and because they are complex in nature and interrelate. Principles and parameters also interact with each other.

Braidi (1999) differentiates the different components of grammar at different levels that UG represents: the Lexicon, the Phonetic Form, the Logical Form, the Deep Structure and the Surface Structure. Starting with the Lexicon, the sentence structure is organized according to restrictions on lexical categories at a Deep Structure level. The sentence structure is then transformed, if necessary, by language specific movement rule to form the Surface Structure. Braidi notes that the final form of the sentence is controlled by phonetic and logical constraints of the language.

Another UG representation of languages is known as the X-bar Theory. A hierarchical phrase structure is formed by the phrasal components of a language. The X-bar Theory determines the word order relations in noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, and prepositional phrases. Braidi describes each phrase as consisting of a head, which comprises the lowest level; a complement, which together with the head form the next higher level; and a specifier, which is represented along with the head and complement at the highest level. The X-bar Theory also applies to functional categories, such as tense, agreement, modal and progressive features. Functional categories, i.e. categories that express relations between parts of a sentence, interact with other parameters in UG, for example in isiXhosa the characteristics of agreement are related to the pro-drop parameter.
According to the X-bar Theory languages can be classified as head-first or head-last languages. Braidi (1999) classifies languages depending on the branching direction of the phrase-structure trees. For example English and Afrikaans are head-first languages or right-branching languages, because the phrase-structure trees branch towards the right with verbal complements following the verb. IsiXhosa allows for head-first and head-last phrase-structures. According to Braidi the Binding Theory specifies the syntactical structures within which nominal constructions can refer to each other. In isiXhosa the relative must co-refer through an agreement morpheme to an antecedent, which appears within its immediate clause, to result in a grammatical sentence. The syntactic function of the antecedent is different for different languages – this is referred to as the Proper Antecedent Parameter. For isiXhosa the syntactic function of the relative antecedent can be the subject or direct object of the language, as illustrated by the following examples:

(i) Indoda ifuna ithuba ihalika ayiphethe umsebenzi.
(The man wants the rake that the worker is carrying.)

(ii) Indoda ifuna umsebenzi oyiphethe ihalika.
(The man wants the worker who is carrying the rake.)

Although English and Afrikaans are both set similarly for this parameter, there are other natural languages that do not allow for the antecedent to fulfill certain syntactic functions.

The Verb Movement Parameter results in the different inflectional markings of verbs as a result of changes in the word order at Surface Structure level. Active and passive sentence constructions allow for different morphological inflections. In isiXhosa sentence object agreement with the verb is compulsory if the object moves from its original position after the verb, as the following examples illustrate:
Braidi (1999) describes UG principles and parameters as a binary system where a language has a plus (+) or minus (-) setting for a given parameter. A good example of this is the pro-drop parameter. A negative setting for the pro-drop parameter results in a non-pro-drop language, like English. A positive parameter setting results in a pro-drop language, like isiXhosa, which would exhibit inflectional markings for person and number on the verb. Braidi describes subjacency as a UG principle that constrains movement according to the allowed distance that the extracted element can move, and the type of structures out of which an element may be extracted. The parametric differences between languages are determined by the types of boundaries that count as barriers for movement in every language. The number of syntactic boundaries that are crossed determines the grammaticality. The boundaries of different types of syntactic structures include clause boundaries (inflectional phrases), complementizer boundaries (the complementizer that in English and a clause), noun-phrase boundaries, and prepositional-phrase boundaries.

In order for a given parameter to be set, it has to be triggered by some structural feature in the input. Braidi (1999) points out that although it is accepted that positive evidence alone is sufficient for triggering the setting of UG parameters in the case of L1 acquisition, this is not assumed for SLA. Cook (1994) argues that if L2 learners have indirect access via the L1 to UG, then the parameters are set for the L1. If the L2 has a mixed parameter (e.g. the head-parameter in isiXhosa), where as the first language only allows for a plus or a minus setting, then it is obvious that positive input would not be sufficient to trigger the change.
in parameter setting, but negative evidence (correction) would be the only way to enhance this difference. It could also be predicted that if the L1 parameter setting is unmarked as compared to a marked L2 parameter setting, then the L2 parameter would be reset with greater ease than if the L2 parameter setting was marked and the L1’s was unmarked. Cook (1994) states that if L2 learners have direct access to UG, then there is one of two possibilities: firstly, one can assume that the original position of the parameter setting is neutral and that L2 learners learn all languages with the same ease or difficulty; secondly, one would assume that the original parameter setting is unmarked, then it will follow that a TL with a marked parameter setting will be acquired with more difficulty and that the parameter would have to be reset for such a language. Because of the complex and abstract nature of UG principles and parameters, it is clear that input that is provided by the SLA environment is not sufficient, but is arguably seen as impoverished. The role of UG in the classroom is indispensable, but the influence of explicit instruction and negative input parameter setting is a controversial issue.

2.3.2.3 Implications of Universal Grammar for second language teaching

According to Braidi (1999) UG research findings seem to reflect that L2 acquisition has access to UG. UG provides a blueprint for language acquisition. Cook (1994) advances that if the no-access model is wrong, then there is no need for teachers to state knowledge that is automatically part of the human mind. Language teachers are concerned with the kind of input that generates UG access. The UG theory focuses on the analysis of syntax, although Braidi (1999) points out that phonology, morphology and the lexicon have also been addressed. Braidi notes that the object of study is limited to the sentence and the sentence structure, and L2 teachers may consider this a narrow view of the learning process. The L2 learner as an individual and a social being is not considered. Nevertheless, as Mitchell and Myles (1998) conclude, UG is a highly
sophisticated tool for linguistic analysis and it contributes richly to our general understanding of human language.

The type of evidence or input is more crucial in L2 learning than for L1 learning. The language classroom should be an environment for providing optimal evidence for SLA. Cook (1994) observes that whereas L1 learning only needs positive evidence, L2 learning needs a variety of types of evidence. Whilst a systematic presentation of the evidence for parameter setting could be considered useful, others consider explicit instruction a potential block for UG-access. According to Felix and Weigl (1991) L2 learners resort to a general problem-solver system when they are confronted with explicit instruction in classrooms. They claim that their study seems to prove that learning a language exclusively through classroom instruction – that is conventional language teaching – systematically blocks access to UG. Felix and Weigl present evidence that the English L2 learners applied what they knew of grammaticality according to their German L1, and the more advanced learners hesitated to make generalizations beyond what they were explicitly taught in the classroom. In another study Braidi (1999) shows that the verb-movement parameter was not reset after a short (two-week), intense input flood of positive evidence alone, but that explicit instruction combined with negative input showed some beneficial effects. Cook (1994) argues that teaching can be most effective if it builds a mental dictionary in the student’s mind. UG theory promotes minimizing teaching of syntax and maximizing vocabulary teaching. Cook refers to Morgan who demonstrates that learners benefit from consciousness raising in the form of “bracketing” and claims that certain aspects of syntax may be unlearnable without clear clues to its phrase structure.

Braidi (1999) suggests that a model, which predicts the relationship of structures but allows for development over time is perhaps the correct approach. This would oppose an instantaneous parameter setting approach. L2 learners’ limited processing capacity might be a factor to consider here. UG access might also
depend upon the learner's age. If one accepts a growth model, then it is presumable that a principle or parameter, which is not yet available in the L1, would not be available in the L2. On the other hand, the Critical Period Hypothesis claims that the availability of UG and the ability to learn language in a natural fashion, end after about the early teens. Although there is no real evidence to prove this, it is evident that UG is more accessible in younger learners.

According to Mitchell and Myles (1998) UG contributes to SLA as a descriptive tool and explains facts about language learning through empirical testing. According to Flynn and Martohardjono (1995) UG identifies the areas of language learning that present more difficulty to the L2 learner and that are more likely to benefit from additional pedagogical support. These areas are mainly the grammatical structures affected by differential parameter settings in the L1 and the L2, or by markedness, and aspects of the lexicon and vocabulary, which is language specific.

2.3.3 Cognitive perspectives on second language learning

2.3.3.1 Krashen's Input Theory

Krashen's Input Hypothesis has inspired an empirical strand, which is based on a cognitive perspective of second language learning. Some cognitive theorists ascribe most or all of the processes of L2 learning to general learning mechanisms; however, the cognitive perspective that is relevant here is in accordance to the UG tradition. The learner is viewed as an autonomous language processor. Language data, which is available in the environment, is considered a source of input that can be processed in order to restructure internal hypotheses about target language (TL) structures. According to Gass and Varonis (1985) Krashen's Input Theory asserts that SLA is promoted when L2 learners are exposed to TL data which they are able to access, but which is of
a more advanced state than their current stage of IL. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) refer to Krashen's claim that comprehensible input \((i+1)\) is better for SLA than a mixture of unmodified comprehensible and incomprehensible input, which is naturally available in the TL speech community. Krashen clearly values language instruction as the means by which language is made comprehensible \((i+1)\) to the language learner.

These theoretical claims have led to a large body of research, examining how language instruction can make input comprehensible and what kind of linguistic or conversational adjustments lead to comprehension. Long (1985) considers the studies by the likes of Blau and Chaudron, and concludes that modified sentences – where the natural, complex sentence structures are retained with explicit and redundant surface clues (e.g. pronouns), and the repetition of nouns and phrases – facilitate comprehension the most. Gass and Varonis (1985) refer to Long's experiments that provided evidence of a causal relationship between global foreigner talk (FT) adjustments to spoken discourse and comprehension in SLA. Long came to the conclusion that input, which is not comprehensible to the learner, is not useful for acquisition. Long studied learners' interaction with each other and viewed this interaction as primary input for triggering language learning mechanisms. He argued that if learners' interaction is controlled and modified into negotiation of meaning, then this would ensure that the input is optimal for the learners' level of acquisition.

Ciccone (1995) refers to Bacon and Finneman who emphasize the importance of authentic materials as a source of TL input. They note that authentic oral and written input has cognitive and affective value for the L2 learner and provides a context wherein the learner can relate form to meaning (decoding). The affective value lies in the motivation that such material provides, as well as the exposure to the target culture that is provided. Basically all languages are learned through understanding messages (decoding) and comprehensible input makes it possible for learners with developing abilities. Ciccone explains that it is the role of
teachers to provide learners with authentic, comprehensible input and the necessary skills to "manipulate and ultimate" decoding of meaningful language. Ciccone carries on to discuss the usefulness of authentic video material and stresses the importance of preparing the learners before introducing such materials to them. Input can only become comprehensible if the learners are interested, and if there is not a coherent system of meaning then they will not pay attention. In this regard it is somewhat disturbing to consider the findings of a study referred to by Allwright and Bailey (1991) that Cohen and Hosenfeld conducted, which assessed that on average there are only 50% of the learners in a class who are attending to the content of a lesson at a given time. When choosing authentic, but comprehensible input, the L2 teacher has to deal with the difficulty of grading the tasks. Jordens (1996) claims, "We cannot know what input is relevant to i+1". Ciccone (1995) supports this notion and notes that existing knowledge and previous experiences must be activated by the choice of input. The importance of conducting a learners' needs analysis and the assessment of the learners' level(s) of acquisition for grading tasks is clearly implicated by this approach.

Chaudron (1985) describes the intake of input forms as the process whereby the phonological, lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic features of the TL are perceived, understood and assimilated into the learners' developing grammar. Sharwood Smith (1993) uses the term "input" to refer to potentially processible language data that are made available to the language learner. The part of the input that is actually processed – the processed input – and turned into knowledge, he calls "intake". Intake is dependent on the characteristics of the input and on the learner's competence. Carroll (1999) defines input in measurable terms of the objective properties of the signal that the learner is exposed to. She compares input to Corder's explanation of intake – a mental representation – and concludes that there must be some initial processing of the stimulus array or signal that selects the information for intake. Carroll explains this initial processing in terms of her Autonomous Inductive Theory.
Zoble (1988) develops a range of proposals relating to the input-intake relationship. He argues for marked input as a solution to the "projection problem", as he calls it. Zoble's projection problem states that the language data universe is infinite, whereas input is only a sample of this and therefore finite, and the final state grammar of a learner is infinite again. In experimental studies he conducted with French-speaking English L2 learners, he investigated the control of third person possessive determiners. He found that the semantic domain of human, and the gender-marked form of her, is more difficult for learners to acquire than the non-human and the his-form of the possessive pronoun. He described the easier, more frequent and more general non-human and his-forms as unmarked, while the human and her-forms were marked, because it proved to be specific and restricted. Zoble's experiments showed that there is a relationship between related parameters and markedness. They also provided a solution for his projection problem: the groups that received intensive marked input performed better in marked and unmarked forms. The conclusion is that UG and markedness allow limited input to project and infinite final state grammar.

Sharwood Smith (1985) argues that the input-intake relationship in language acquisition is not a simple one, and he proposes the Conspiracy Principles. He claims that there is not a simple explanation for how input becomes intake, but that there is always more than one cause. He suggests that L1 interference causes a delaying effect and leads to "special overgeneralization". As alternative explanation he offers the Creative Construction Hypothesis, which looks at developmental errors as systematic deviances in the IL. A second alternative is the Cross Linguistic Hypothesis, which incorporates the recruitment of other tongue knowledge with the notion of creative construction. Sharwood Smith suggests that all the listed factors of these hypotheses may interact to form a very complex, cumulative effect and that knowledge is a system which the language learner builds up through exposure to the TL. Sharwood Smith (1993) distinguishes between intuitive knowledge that is inaccessible for conscious
introspection, and metalanguage, which does involve introspection. He maintains that these two knowledge systems are distinct, and not on different ends of the same continuum. Acquiring either intuitive or metaknowledge, and acquiring control over that knowledge – that is full receptive or productive control – could be illustrated on one continuum. By controlling knowledge, he means being able to use the knowledge for different purposes. The more control there is, the less time or freedom from distraction is needed to manipulate the knowledge, and the more processing space is available for attending to less controlled input. The main point that Sharwood Smith (1993) makes is that there is more than one kind of knowledge that require different types of processing. According to Sharwood Smith a language learner can have different degrees of knowledge and different degrees of control in either mode. To illustrate this point, a talented speaker with no schooling in the formal properties of language, serves as an example of an intuitive knowledge system with a high degree of control and a metaknowledge system that is not acquired.

The input-intake relationship can only be determined by investigating learners' interlanguage output in comparison to the presented input. The so-called U-shaped phenomenon demonstrates that the learner is not a passive absorber of input. Liceras (1985) defines input as the sum of presented L2 data and all other language translations that are presented to the learners. She considers learners' cognitive capacities as their attained linguistic knowledge of all languages, including their metalinguistic abilities and reflections on markedness. According to Liceras, interlanguage output is as the result of a learner's non-native grammar, comprehension mechanisms and additional factors, like social and pragmatic factors. She argues that only the non-native grammar component reflects the learner's competence derived from intake. This is reflective of a model of grammar that consists of knowledge of language and the underlying UG principles. The grammar is incorporated in a model of language use, which outlines the character and functioning of the models of speech production and perception. When language rules are distorted by overgeneralization or by
penetration of L1, L2 or alien rules, it is referred to as permeability. Liceras (1985) refers to Arditty and Perdue who state that permeability does not only occur in L2, but also in L1. They claim that characteristics of IL, such as backsliding and fossilization, are not a reflection of a learner's language competence; but rather a result of the interaction of grammars and sociological factors. Liceras concludes that this kind of IL variation reflects which parameters are fixed in a variety of ways, or not fixed at all and therefore resulting in a learner's variable intuitions. Liceras argues that according to the learner's intuition, the type of parametric variation, which is favoured by different performance mechanisms for a certain task, will be consistently reflected in the IL output. According to Liceras, in order to determine a learner's competence it is necessary to differentiate between the variable intuitions of the learner's permeable grammar, and the specific task-bounded parametric variations.

Mitchell and Myles (1998) refer to a controversial report by Swain, which claims that input does not ensure the processing of new grammars. Swain's report argues that no quantity of comprehensible input could be enough to fully acquire the TL (at least in terms of grammatical competence), but that comprehensible output is a necessary mechanism of SLA. Swain's Output Hypothesis maintains that language production would force learners to notice that gap in their IL grammars and to form new hypotheses. Larsen-Freeman (1985) notes that studies, which are concerned with input and its link to output, have presumed that input quantities and maximum opportunity to use the TL result in the greatest proficiency. There seems to be a positive correlation between the frequency of input of forms and the order in which they are produced as part of the output. Such claims are challenged by studies on markedness and learnability of linguistic forms.

Language has a particular dimension which is similar to an acquired skill, but the question is whether it can be learned? Cook (1994) refers to Chomsky's controversial claim that it is only the lexicon of a language that has to be learned.
Mitchell and Myles (1998) refer to Krashen's Monitor Model, which distinguishes between learned and acquired knowledge, and claims that learned knowledge is not usable for communicative tasks. Sharwood Smith (1988) differentiates between explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge: the former refers to conscious, analytic awareness and the latter to an intuitive feeling. In his writing Sharwood Smith argues in favour of the value of promoting conscious awareness of language structure. Fotos (1993) refer to the term "conscious raising" as Rutherford and Sharwood Smith use it to refer to increased learner awareness of particular linguistic features. According to Fotos consciousness raising activities are form-focused and inductive. The assumption is that the learner’s mental state is altered by the input. Mitchell and Myles (1998) note that Krashen allows for learned knowledge to be accessed given enough time and focus on form. Sharwood Smith (1988) concludes that whatever the underlying processes in L2 learning, spontaneous performance and fluency in language production is only attained through practice – in other words through performance in the TL.

Although well-documented and greatly valued, Krashen's Monitor Model would certainly be viewed with an amount of criticism by all teachers who know, from their experience in classrooms, that learners benefit from the input and instruction they receive. Jordens (1996) refers to Ellis' argument that formal instruction could influence the speed at which language learning takes place and contributes to the success of development, but, that the "natural route" of SLA could not be altered. SLA research found that the acquisition process has its own rules that regulate it. Jordens has recorded some general learning principles that have been identified: the uniqueness principles (one form represents one meaning); continuity (constituents that belong together are placed together); and, canonical word order that is constituted by the main clause word order. These learning principles function within analytic principles of processing, such as (i) generalization, which is characteristic of any learning situation and depends on input and evidence presented; (ii) clustering, which has to do with the notion of parameterization, and implies that certain properties of the target
language (TL) are acquired more or less simultaneously; and (iii) prerequisite knowledge, which is related to the condition of clustering and implies that there are different stages of acquisition, where the previous stage is required for the acquisition or "learnability" of the following stage. Jordens (1996) explains that the conditions of clustering and prerequisite knowledge have to do with the level of abstraction of the linguistic structures.

According to Long and Robinson (1998) the notion of formal instruction is used to refer to different kinds of classroom activities: activities that focus on input processing; activities that focus on consciousness raising; and activities which focus on form. Long and Robinson explain that activities focusing on the processing of input involve the learners being confronted by language materials that are selected either on the basis of the criteria of meaning or that of form. Long and Robinson consider focusing on either meaning or form as too single-minded. Input processing, as described by Jordens (1996), is the "exploitation" of formally selected materials in a situation where learners only have to respond and at no point are they expected to produce the target form. Rutherford (1988) suggests incorporating grammar teaching into a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) syllabus, where communication is established as an immediate goal in the instructional plan. He suggests linking certain favoured syntactic forms with the semantic categories of "location", "experiencer", "agent", "benefactive" and "instrument". Rutherford further notes the importance of the Teachability Hypothesis in grammatical instruction of structure. He also recommends that discourse should be encoded into grammar for different purposes and in morphological studies, with special caution taken regarding L1 transfer.

Sharwood Smith (1993) explains that input enhancement is how certain features of language input become salient to learners. It involves aspects of the input being manipulated. Positive input enhancement makes correct forms more salient, and negative input enhancement indicates that the given forms are incorrect. Sharwood Smith (1993) refers to studies conducted by Tomasello and
Herron, which proof that negative input enhancement is vital for hypothesis testing in SLA. The positive results attained by these studies were largely due to the fact that learners were not simply told what was incorrect, through input they received from their teachers; but that they were also producing their own examples. Once again output, in this case serving as self-generated input, is noted as an important mechanism for learning.

Jordens (1996) refers to all activities ranging from input processing to form-focused instruction as positive formal input. He performed experimental studies and concluded that form-focussed activities, which consisted of explicit rule teaching and practice, only enabled learners to perform a task that they have been instructed in. On the other hand, the input processing activities he employed, which consisted of a presentation and explanation of linguistic features, followed by encoding, meaning testing activities, had more encouraging results. The learners who took part in the input processing activities performed better in decoding, as well as encoding. Jordens concluded that form-focussed teaching only teaches learners about language (learned competence), where as meaning focussed input processing teaches language learners of language (acquired competence). Jordens agrees with Krashen that L2 learners' development is only determined by their acquired competence.

Positive (formal) input is not sufficient to show learners what is not possible in the TL – explicit negative evidence or correction can compensate and indicate to learners if there is a gap in there IL grammars. Fotos (1993) uses the term "input enhancement" to describe corrective feedback as a specific form of conscious raising. Jordens (1996) notes that White supports the notion that learners need negative evidence, and states that comprehensible input "does not get rid of overgeneralizations". Mitchell and Myles (1998) refer to White's research studies to show that long-term learning does not occur where learners only receive positive evidence in the form of formal instruction in the correct forms of the TL. Allwright and Bailey (1991) refer to Schmidt and Frota's hypothesis that
hypothesis that corrective feedback provides evidence of the TLi+1, and makes learners aware of the gap in their own language form i. From the results of two experimental studies by Tomasello and Herron, Jordens (1996) deduces that learning situations where teachers provide corrective feedback facilitate learning. Jordens refers to Tomasello and Herron's conclusion that L2 learning is essentially a process of cognitive comparison and hypothesis testing. According to Jordens, Tomasello and Herron maintain that corrective feedback enables learners to engage more actively in hypothesis testing, which in turn focuses the learners' attention on the relevant features of the structures involved. Jordens agrees with Tomasello and Herron, but notes that negative evidence is only effective when applied to rules of convention and the lexicon. He explains that syntax and morphology have linguistic constraints on development (as recorded in Pienemann's Teachability Hypothesis).

Allwright and Bailey (1991) argue that learners' errors have to be addressed, but that treating learners' errors presents some questions, such as: which errors have to be corrected, who should correct a learner's errors, when is the best time to correct an error, and how does one go about providing this negative evidence? Allwright and Bailey discuss Long's Flow Chart for decision-making regarding such questions. The first question that Long's Flow Chart deals with is whether or not the teacher notices the learner's error. This depends on many factors, including whether or not the learner has already been introduced to the form or function implicated by the error. The term "error gravity" is used to refer to the perceived seriousness of an error. Another factor to consider is whether correcting the error is within the learner's ability. This is decided according to the learner's development in terms of the IL continuum (and Pienemann's Teachability Hypothesis). According to Allwright and Bailey, Cathcart and Olsen found in their research study that learners want more correction than what is typically offered by their teachers. The second question that Long's Flow Chart deals with is when to correct or treat an error. Immediate treatment is certainly disruptive and could have negative affective feedback, which might eventually
inhibit the learner. Delaying feedback unfortunately makes the feedback less effective. According to Allwright and Bailey, Fanselow suggests variety in treatment. Allwright and Bailey argue that corrective feedback has to be provided at the “optimum moment”, when the learner is most open to notice the gap. Pienemann’s concept of learnability would be a good measure for the best timing to provide corrective feedback for a specific structure. Long’s Flow Chart provides three choices in deciding which treatment to provide: to inform the learner that an error has been made; to inform the learner of the location of the error; and, to inform the learner of the identity of the error. Allwright and Bailey suggest that a certain amount of demanding cognitive work (such as when learners correct themselves) may help to focus the learner’s attention on both the form and meaning of the language. The most common source of corrective feedback in classrooms is definitely treatment provided by the teacher. Long’s Flow Chart also suggests allowance for self-correction and peer correction. Allwright and Bailey maintain that a teacher’s long term goal for their learners should be self-correction or self-repair. Considering Krashen’s Monitor Model, they recommend that enough time and opportunity should be allowed for self-repair, whether it is self- or other-initiated. When other-repair is encouraged, then it must be executed with a tone of mutual support, as to not inhibit learners’ openness to treatment. Allwright and Bailey note Vigil and Oller’s suggestion that learners should be provided with clear cognitive information about their errors, accompanied with positive and encouraging, affective feedback.

2.3.3.2 Interaction

The relationship between conversation, or face-to-face interaction, and SLA is generally accepted by researchers; but Allwright and Bailey (1991) explain that there seems to be some controversy about where to place the emphasis. Krashen emphasizes comprehensible input as being responsible for promoting SLA, and describes the role of interaction as merely encouraging continuous input. Long’s Model of the relationship between the type of conversational task
and language acquisition, emphasizes conversation, which is *negotiated interaction*, and its role in making input comprehensible. It is the work involved in negotiating meaning that results in acquisition. According to Allwright and Bailey, Stevick represents negotiated interaction as an "investment" towards comprehensible input, as well as towards language acquisition. Mitchell and Myles (1998) note that Swain emphasizes the importance of comprehensible output; implying that producing output during conversation, which is comprehensible to the interlocutor, is needed to gain grammatical competence.

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991) Krashen's concept of *comprehensible input* is problematic for more than one reason. Allwright and Bailey highlight two issues: firstly, it is not to say that incomprehensible input is of no value to the language learner; and secondly, it is not obvious how mere exposure to comprehensible input promotes language development. Krashen's hypotheses lead to considerable research in Foreign Talk Discourse (FTD) during the 1970's and 1980's. Mitchell and Myles (1998) explain that when a native speaker (NS) and a non-native speaker's (NNS) - that is FTD - discourse is compared to the discourse amongst native speakers, it is noted that the FTD is systematically modified in terms of simplified language, although the grammar remains unchanged. Mitchell and Myles maintain that these research studies described FTD, but did not offer any explanation as to the implications of FTD for SLA.

According to Mitchell and Myles Long's *Interaction Hypothesis* was a reaction on Krashen's hypotheses and attempted to develop a more systematic approach for application to L2 learning. Gass and Varonis (1985) refer to Long's distinction between modified input and modified interaction, where modified interaction refers to the modifications that occur during a conversation in order to make input comprehensible. According to Gass and Varonis, Long hypothesized that linguistically modified conversations promote better comprehension of input; that comprehensible input promotes L2 language learning; and therefore he
concludes that linguistically modified conversations promote L2 language learning. Mitchell and Myles (1998) refer to Long’s studies which illustrate that there are few linguistic modifications in FTD, but note remarkable modifications in conversations in terms of conversational management and language functions performed. In order to overcome communication difficulties, NS and NNS pairs would use tactics like repetitions, confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests. The following conversation, conducted in isiXhosa, serves as illustration:

USIVUYILE: Ndifuna itikiti lokuya eMonti.
(I want a ticket to East London.)
UMARIA: Ulifuna lona elokuya eMonti? (confirmation check)
(You want the one to East London?)
USIVUYILE: Ewe, nditsho. EMonti, uyabona? (comprehension check)
(Yes, I said so. To East London, you see?)
UMARIA: Ndiyaqonda, kodwa laa bhasi sele'sukile, se’mkile! (semantic self repetition)
(I understand, but that bus has already gone, it’s left already!)
(What did you say? My bus has left me, where’s it? Isn’t it here?)
UMARIA: Uxolo, Bhuti, ibhasi yakho ikushiyile (exact other repetition)
Ndiyavelana nawe.
(Sorry, Brother, your bus has left you behind. I sympathize with you.)

According to Allwright and Bailey, Long concluded that collaborated efforts to establish communication between NS and NNS, or more fluent and less fluent speakers, promotes L2 learning. Negotiation of meaning ensures that input is L2i+1 and not L2i+3, for example. Interactional modifications, such as typically addressed to NNS or L2 learners, by NS, are also referred to as foreigner talk (FT). FT is systematically modified and typically tends to be slower paced, more
clearly enunciated, topically often restricted to the here and the now, and syntactically less complex than NS-NS interactions.

Mitchell and Myles (1998) refer to studies conducted by researchers, like Pica, Loschky, and Gass and Varonis, that investigate the relationship between conversational modifications and gotten enhanced comprehension. In their studies they make use of control groups, who are not allowed to ask for any explanations during description, instruction or problem-solving tests. These groups generally make use of modified and simplified texts. The experimental groups are allowed to ask for explanations and achieve better results in all the tests, while they display better comprehension, than the control groups. Mitchell and Myles describe Pica's study, where learners give each other instructions about how to complete a landscape with coloured cutouts, and it is noticed that learners especially request the repetition of content words. Mitchell and Myles relate the underlying processes of interaction during explanations to important elements of learning, namely noticing, input enhancement and attention. Activities that give learners the opportunity to interact with each other and negotiate meaning develop these skills, which ensure better comprehension during communication, and promote SLA.

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991) the concept of participation has to do with how learners make use of communication practice opportunities during conversations. Allwright and Bailey maintain that not all participation has to be observable. Engagement or involvement, for instance, could be an internal, mental phenomenon – attention. In this regard, one might recall the study performed by Cohen, which Allwright and Bailey (1991) described, which determined that only 50% of the class participate by attending to the content of the lesson, at a given time. Allwright and Bailey explain that participation patterns are generally recorded in terms of turn distribution, presence or absence of bidding for a speaking opportunity, direct or indirect nominations made to another for a speech turn, and, verbal or non-verbal cues for participation.
Allwright and Bailey (1991) refer to a study conducted by Seliger, where there appeared to be a high correlation between the so-called, “high input generators” (learners who initiate and sustain conversation) and language proficiency. According to Allwright and Bailey, Van Patten suggests that interaction is determined by the learner’s IL development, with different expectations for participation at different levels of development. On the other hand, Allwright and Bailey report a case, where an adult learner (pseudonym “Igor”) dominated the classroom interaction because of his topically faulty utterances that caused the teacher to work extra hard to determine what he was trying to say. Allwright and Bailey refer to Krashen’s opinion that learners should not be forced to speak in the TL, but that they would speak when they are ready to, and that the learner should make that decision. According to Allwright and Bailey, Sato suggests a relationship between cultural traits and interaction patterns, which indicates a tendency towards cultural stereotyping of turn-taking behaviour in heterogeneous classrooms.

The notion of intercultural conversation and cultural conventions concerning discourse patterns is important in L2 teaching and learning. Halmari (1993) explores the differences in discourse organization, which was based on a study of business telephone conversations between Finns and Anglo-Americans. She concluded that differences in discourse conventions of interlocutors, resulting from varying cultural backgrounds, could lead to misunderstandings and negative stereotyping. Halmari refers to Scollon and Scollon, who addressed the subtle differences in length of pausing or cultural expectations about when talking is appropriate and when not. Halmari observes that the Finns’ opening episodes were characterised by lengthy, often humorous, non-topical conversations, and that they avoided overlapping of speech. The English speakers wanted to get to business quickly, and therefore emphasized the business episode of the conversation. The English speakers also tended to have a greater tolerance for overlapping speech, initiating overlapping speech more frequently in the middle of the interlocutor’s speech. Halmari explains that this culturally acquired
knowledge is what Hymes calls “communicative competence”. Baileystok (1988) refers to Macnamara (as regards contextualized L2 learning), noting the importance of a child first having to understand the world around him or her, as to be able to rely exclusively on “other knowledge”, in order to acquire the L1. According to Rutherford, Hatch argues that humans first learn how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed. William Rutherford (1988) emphasizes that a parallel has to be considered between grammar and discourse. He comes to the conclusion that presentation of syntax should derive, wherever possible, from the organization of discourse.

In a study by Pica and Doughty (1985), where interaction in small group activities was compared to interaction during teacher-fronted activities, it was shown that non-native speakers (NNSs) engaged in genuine communication and were more involved in negotiation for meaning during small group NNS-NNS interaction. They found that more input was directed towards individuals in the groups, whereas conversational modifications in teacher-fronted lessons were not necessarily relevant to learner’s comprehension level (i+1). They also discovered that modified interactions, such as completions and corrections, were more frequent during group interactions. They concluded that individual language learners appeared to have more opportunities to use the TL and engage in modified interaction in groups, than in teacher-fronted activities. Allwright and Bailey (1991) investigated “teacher talk”, and found that during the average language lesson, between ½ and ¾ of the talking that takes place is performed by teachers: this leaves the learners with very little opportunity to communicate in the TL. Allwright and Bailey point out that, although teacher-talk is considered a valuable source of input, research has proven that actual engagement in negotiation for meaning correlates positively with SLA. Allwright and Bailey refer to Long’s study that compares the amount and types of TL structures that learners used when they worked in pairs (or dyads) to when they interacted during lockstep lessons. (Lockstep lessons are segments of classroom interaction in which all the learners and the teacher interact together.)
According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), Long found that dyads produced more modified interaction, compared to lockstep. Despite Allwright and Bailey's concern about Schmidt and Frota's auto-input hypothesis during small group or pair work, Pica and Doughty (1985) found in their studies that learners' productions are equally ungrammatical (or grammatical), whether they participate in NNS-NNS discourse or in NNS-NS discourse. Pica and Doughty argue that in teacher-fronted lessons, the learners have less opportunity for practice, hypothesis testing and negotiation of meaning.

The type of task that L2 learners face also affects their interaction patterns. Gass and Varonis (1985) distinguish between two types of interaction: interaction that involves the giving of information from only one participant to another – this is called one-way tasks; and interaction where both participants have information that must be shared in order to complete the task – this is called two-way tasks. The kind of task determines the kind of negotiations and modifications that the speaker engages in. In one-way tasks the receiver of the information asks more questions, whereas the informant confirms, corrects, repeats and describes. In a two-way task both participants take part in the same modifications, but they share more information than in a one-way task and therefore they need less negotiations. Task familiarity also affects negotiations. When the roles are changed and the one-way task is repeated, then there are fewer negotiations. The participants are also more familiar with each other and don't have to work as hard to understand each other. Task difficulty is influenced by the amount of required information that the participants are provided with – the more information provided the easier the task. On the other hand, the more optional information provided, the more distractions the participants are confronted with, and the more difficult the task. One can predict that the more difficult the task, the more negotiations the participants would need to engage in. Task outcomes are also affected according to the medium that input is presented in, whether linguistic, graphic or object-manipulation. The task is more difficult if
the required output has to be presented in a different medium than what the input is provided in.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) define the term “receptivity” in SLA, as an openness to learning, to the new language, the new culture that the TL presents, to fellow learners, the teacher and the teaching methods, to the teaching materials and the course content. Receptivity correlates positively with task- and interlocutor familiarity, and receptivity is a prerequisite for attention. Allwright and Bailey (1991) consider anxiety as an important factor in SLA. They distinguish between debilitating anxiety, which impedes SLA, and facilitating anxiety, which is a positive force that can even drive learners to perform better than they normally would. Anxiety is an accepted feature in language learning, but it is important to manipulate anxiety to be facilitative for learning. Allwright and Bailey asserts that the notion of self-esteem relates to language classroom phenomena of competitiveness and anxiety. Good self-esteem correlates directly with motivation and effective learning. Where learning means interaction, it always involves a risk for the learner’s self-esteem and a good self-esteem is more likely to take the risk.

2.3.3.1 INPUT PROCESSING THEORIES

The notion of input is borrowed from information-processing studies, which implies a processor and an end product. Input processing models suppose cognitive processors that derive intake from input. Sharwood Smith (1993) uses the term “register” and explains that input may be registered or not. In other words, input may be processed for meaning without changing the existing developmental linguistic system – without becoming intake for acquisition. According to Carrol (1999), McLaughlin suggests that intake provides evidence for learning when restructuring causes stored knowledge (i.e. the internal representations) to be changed by what is being acquired. Carrol states that learning implies automatization: the automatic, rapid access of representations
that are deployed by parsing and production procedures. According to Lalleman (1996), McLaughlin explains that automatic processing means activation of certain nodes in the memory. This activation is initially controlled, but becomes automatic through the consistent mapping of the same input to the same pattern of activation over many trials.

The human cognitive ability to process information is restricted; but when less attention is needed for automatized tasks, there is more attention for new tasks. Carroll (1999) describes this process as time consuming, because learners have to detect "cues" or stimuli to perception in the signal. She challenges Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, according to which noticing the features of a language is a prerequisite to acquiring them. Carroll states that this hypothesis regards attention as a kind of selection function that the learner can control. Long is referred to by Carroll as explaining that attention is both necessary and sufficient for extracting items from linguistic input and storing them in long-term memory. Carroll opposes this view and states that signal detection is regulated by a learner's knowledge system (especially of interest to Carroll is phonological knowledge), and therefore separate of intention. Carroll refers to the "wall of noise" experience that every one who has been confronted by a foreign language has experienced. She also explains L1, within the L2-as-noise experience, as leading to identification within the stimulus array, and refers to this experience as a "slip of the ear". She concludes that input cannot lead to learning without processing. The procedure of input to processing requires a change in the representational format, which can then be interpreted by a particular processor. Speech processing is impossible if the current set of parsing procedures is unable to analyse an item: this leads to learning. Carroll proposes that learning takes place when parsing procedures are adjusted through the principles and parameters of UG with their triggers, familiarity-seeking mechanisms, generalization-seeking mechanisms, inferences drawn from negative evidence, and inferences drawn from the negotiation of meaning during interaction.
VanPatten (1996) argues that language learners' cognition is equipped with processors that selectively attend to incoming data and bring specific stimuli into their focal attention, while other input might merely be perceived. He considers attention to be an essential condition for learning – whether L1 or L2 learning – and he argues against any effortless or subconscious learning. As for adult L2 learners, VanPatten prescribes attention to form. Grammar instruction changes the way learners attend to input data – focus on form.

The human cognitive resources are limited and language comprehension involves computations in working memory, which consumes a great deal of attentional resources. VanPatten discusses the work of Just and Carpenter who explain that when the task demands exceed the available resources, then both storage and computational functions are degraded. According to VanPatten the important question for SLA is how L2 learners allocate attention resources while processing data input. VanPatten describes detecting as the process by which a particular stimulus or piece of data is selected and registered in the working memory. Detected information uses maximum attentional resources and interferes with the processing of other information.

VanPatten identifies a few principles and sub-principles for input processing and L2 instruction. The first processing principle states that language learners process input for meaning before they process the input data for form. This means that learners give priority to any forms that they can identify the meaning of. A sub-principle of this first principle claims that explicit processing of content lexical items is of primary importance in especially the early stages of SLA. Learners show preference to processing items for meaning rather than grammatical info. An example in isiXhosa for expressing the past tense, could be the lexical item izolo ("yesterday"), which would be easier to process than the suffixes -e or -ile, which indicates a past tense verb. A second sub-principle states that when learners process grammatical form, they first process structural features that are more "meaningful". For instance, in isiXhosa the verb affix –ya-
indicates a long form of the present tense that could implicate emphasis or a continuous tense. On the other hand, the verb affix \(-sa-\) carries the meaning of "still", which would contribute more specifically to the meaning of an utterance, and therefore would demand processing preference above \(-ya-\). The second major processing principle that VanPatten (1996) identifies explains that learners will only process form, which is not meaningful or of little communicative value, when they can process the rest of the input with the least effort or attention. Their attention resources must be available for detecting structural features that have little or no communicative value, for example the subjunctive form of the verb in isiXhosa. VanPatten identified a third processing principle: the "first noun strategy". According to this principle, language learners always assign the role of agent to the first noun of an utterance. This strategy will be ignored if contradicting lexical semantics are identified in the TL input. Learners become sensitive to cues that indicate role assignment (e.g. subject-verb agreement) during the course of their language development. These cues are not apparent to the learners during the early stages of SLA and develop relatively slowly.

According to VanPatten, input processing provides intake for further cognitive processing. Frequency in the input and semantic complexity of a form is relevant for the long-term storage of form-meaning mappings. Once stored, it is the function of the developing system of mental representations to accept or reject the mappings and restructure current hypotheses about the TL grammar accordingly. VanPatten distinguishes factors that contribute to the perceptual saliency of input data, including syllabicity, stress, word beginnings and word endings, and beginning and final position in a sentence or utterence. VanPatten concludes his argument by noting that adult L2 learners can be taught to detect cues for meaning in the input, in order to enhance perceptual saliency of structural features. Focus on form would make attention resources available for processing unknown items in the input data.
2.3.4 Focus on form

2.3.4.1 Arguments against focus on form

Mitchell and Myles (1998) refer to Krashen’s Monitor Model, which takes a clear position against the usefulness of formal knowledge, and according to Krashen language acquisition results only because of comprehensible input – that is with a focus on meaning. In the past language teaching emphasized rote-learning of rules and vocabulary out of context. Such methods of consciousness-raising have been criticized along with the more general consideration of whether or not to draw the learner’s attention, at all, to structural regularities in the target language (TL).

Krashen’s Monitor Model is not the only hypothesis that argues against the value of learned knowledge for communicative tasks. Other arguments against focus on form include Sharwood Smith’s (1993) differentiation between explicit and implicit knowledge, which supports Krashen’s non-interface notion, and his distinction between intuitive knowledge and metaknowledge. To create metaknowledge, metalanguage is needed. Metalanguage refers to ways in which language is seen as an object of conscious attention. According to Sharwood Smith, Karmiloff-Smith views metalinguistic awareness as an "optional final step", and qualitatively different from previous steps in the acquisition of linguistic competence.

Felix and Wiegl (1991) examined the relationship between the learning situation of L2 learners and UG access. They concluded that learning a L2 exclusively through classroom instruction seems to be a situation that is most obstructive to the use of UG information. They speculate that the human mind is equipped with at least two distinct cognitive systems: the language-specific system and the problem-solver system. The classroom environment appeals predominantly to the problem-solving cognitive capacities, which will block the operation of the
language-specific system. They found that learners who received formal instruction determined their judgements predominantly with reference to the corresponding L1 structure (L1 transfer) and were hesitant to make generalizations beyond what they had been taught explicitly in the classroom. They state that for true acquisition to take place UG is indispensable and that conventional language teaching seems to systematically block access to UG.

2.3.4.2 Arguments for focus on form

Teachers who taught a second language to teenagers or adults, will agree with Sharwood Smith (1988) that it is very difficult to deny them explicit information about the TL, because, their intellectual maturity and their previous teaching-learning experiences demand explanations.

There have been many research studies conducted to compare the progress of naturalistic learners to that of learners receiving formal instruction. In a review of research on the effect of instruction on L2 development, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) concluded that L2 instruction does not seem to alter the acquisition sequences permanently and, secondly, the possible positive effects of L2 instruction are on the rate at which learners acquire the TL and on their ultimate level of attainment.

Cook (1994) refers to Coppetiers' study on the SLA of near-native speakers of French who had lived in France for many years. Coppetiers concluded that instructed SLA will more often minimize fossilization in comparison with untutored acquisition. According to Cook, Hulstijn and Hulstijn did research on word-order patterns used by adult learners of Dutch. Hulstijn and Hulstijn's results support the view that "consciousness-raising" activities can succeed in changing interlanguage competence: even when the learner did not successfully acquire the metaknowledge, the intuitive knowledge was effected. In an experimental study, Williams and Evans (1998) show that focus on form is useful. They point
out that every form may be ideally suited to different degrees and kinds of focus on form.

According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), Pica distinguishes three acquisition contexts: naturalistic contexts, instructed contexts, and a combination of classroom instruction contexts plus natural exposure in the TL environment. After experimental studies with native speakers of Spanish learning English L2, he concluded that although there were basic similarities in SLA regarding acquisition order, regardless of the context, the combination group performed best. Learners had benefitted most from instruction in structures where the relationship between form and function was most transparent ("easy grammar" in Krashen’s terms). He noted that instruction triggered overuse of the forms of focus, and inhibited ungrammatical constructions. This last point is also evident in typical patterns fossilized pidgin-like language use amongst naturalistic learners.

2.3.4.3 The content of the focus-on-form syllabus

If it is accepted that language instruction and focus on form benefit SLA, then one has to consider what to teach. As mentioned, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) argue that Pica suggests teaching "easy grammar". Communicative approaches, such as used in immersion programmes, suggest that teaching vocabulary is essential for the acquisition process. Grammarians have long been aware of the relationship between grammar instruction and vocabulary, as well as discourse. According to Cook (1994), Little argues for a combined teaching of grammar and vocabulary. Cook (1994) refers to Yip who concluded, after his study in consciousness-raising activities, that the learners showed improvement in distinguishing between ungrammatical and grammatical uses. They were given guidance in attending to the differing syntactic and semantic characteristics of ergative and passive constructions beforehand. Williams and Evans (1998) describe Harley's likely TL structures for teaching: those that differ in non-
obvious ways from the L1 (e.g. the stylistic movement in L2 Xhosa for L1 English); forms which are not salient because they are irregular or infrequent in the input (e.g. certain deficient verbs in L2 Xhosa); structures that are not important for successful communication (e.g. the long present tense -ya- in L2 Xhosa); and structures that are likely to be misinterpreted or misanalysed by learners (e.g. the applicative suffix -ela for L2 Xhosa).

Cook (1994) refers to Pienemann’s work on the acquisition of German that showed that learners resist instruction in some grammatical structures, before they are ready. This hypothesis of learner-readiness or learnability, correlates with naturalistic acquisition sequences of structures. According to Cook, where there are no documented developmental stages for structures of the TL, Pienemann only stresses the importance of noting the individual learner's readiness. In reply to Pienemann’s teachability hypothesis, situations represent themselves where certain forms or structures are needed before they are “learnable”. Williams and Evans (1998) hypothesize that if a form already occurs in the learner’s interlanguage, though non-targetlike, then it is “teachable”; but, if it is a rare form (and there is a need for use thereof), then the input could lead to use thereof, but non-targetlike use should be accepted until it is “learnable”.

Bailystok (1988) describes the psycholinguistic dimensions of L2 proficiency and distinguishes between analysed and non-analysed knowledge, and automatic and non-automatic dimensions. She considers these to be separate and analysed and automatic dimensions to be marked. The analysed dimension (representing an awareness of structure) and the automatic dimension become more distinguished as language proficiency increases. Both L1 and L2 learners enter the system in the unmarked dimensions and have to move along the continua towards the marked dimensions. A fluent speaker’s ability could be completely automatic, but not analysed; whereas a formal L2 learner could have complete analysed ability but poor or non-automatic knowledge. Bailystok considers the type of language task to increase in difficulty, as it becomes more
abstract and less context embedded. The learner is able to rely more on other knowledge when attempting tasks that are related to concrete situations. She describes other knowledge as including L1 (and possibly L3 or L4) language knowledge, conceptual knowledge, which refers to world knowledge, and contextual knowledge, which refers to situation-topic knowledge. Baileystok emphasizes the importance of presenting an appropriate instructional programme according to the learner's specific needs.

2.3.4.4 Focus on form and communicative language teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) represents an approach to language teaching which utilizes units of communication as the points of departure and assign a subsidiary role, if any role at all, to systematic inspection of the TL's formal properties. Rutherford (1988) notes that the assumption that grammar could "take care of itself" in SLA, as it does in L1 learning, is yet to be proven. He argues for focus on form within communicative syllabi. Rutherford refers to Wilkens who describes grammar as the means through which linguistic creativity is ultimately achieved and that inadequate knowledge of grammar limits the capacity for communication. In the same article Rutherford notes Noblitt's declaration of the primary objective of language learning as being to internalize a grammar which approximates that of a native speaker. Rutherford adopts Krashen's Monitor Model, but emphasizes psycholinguistic aspects, such as the effect of the learner's personality and experience, on the speech production monitor. This would imply focussing on the ways in which the TL conceptualizes reality and the grammatical realization of those concepts. In Xhosa L2 teaching this could mean for instance, to deal with the remote past complete tense (the A-past tense) in an understanding of "iintsomi" (fables) and the concept of "kwathi ke kaloku ngantsomi..." (long, long time ago...), or not teaching the mechanics of gender agreement so much as inculcating a thought pattern in which the whole concept of gender agreement becomes dominant.
2.3.4.5 A direct approach to second language teaching

Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1997) wrote an article on the shift in L2 teaching from an indirect approach to a direct approach. They summarise the history of language teaching as moving in the 1950's from a structural approach (representing a direct approach), to the 1970's seeing the introduction and spread of CLT (an indirect approach). According to Williams and Evans (1998) a renewed interest in focus-on-form (FonF) instruction dates to Long's article of 1991 that introduced the term focus on form.

Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell describe an indirect approach as motivating a teaching method which presents communicative tasks for the learners and does not teach strategies, maxims, and organizational principles for language use; but instead, expects the learners to work these out for themselves. The direct approach, on the other hand, spurs teaching methods that provide focussed instruction in the main rules of conversational or discourse-level grammar.

One of the biggest problems that teachers might have with CLT, is deciding what the content of the syllabus should be and how to test the learners. Notional-functional syllabi, although socio-culturally sensitive and noting appropriateness in language use with reference to cross-cultural issues, do not comprehend the complexity of discourse. Linguists all recognise the important role that grammar plays in the ability to engage and manipulate discourse. Without definite linguistic guidelines there exists a great diversity of communicative approaches and testing of learning outcomes is problematic.

If the whole point of language pedagogy is to increase the rate of language acquisition, then learners' attention has to be focussed on a learning objective and they need to practise the objective to change the processing of communicative functions from controlled processing to automatic.
Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell recommend a direct communicative syllabus, where pedagogic tasks combined with a systematic focus on form function as the organizational units. Such a syllabus would not focus on form in the strictest sense of grammatical accuracy, but also include lexical aspects, which focus on form-meaning associations.

When CLT is compared with task-based language teaching (TBLT), then there is a shift in tendencies which adds specific, formulaic language input to the communicative tasks; that raises learners' awareness to the organizational principles of language use within sentence and discourse level; and which sequences communicative tasks according to theories of discourse-level grammar.

2.3.4.6 Focus on form and focus on meaning: a comparison

Focus on form might be viewed as an extension of communicative language approaches, or as essentially a completely different and new approach to language teaching. Long and Robinson (1998) compared the notions of focus on form and focus on meaning. They distinguished between FORM S and FORM, where the former refers to focus on form as manifested in structural syllabi, and the latter to focus on form as found in task-based syllabi.

Long and Robinson refer to the focus of synthetic syllabi as FORM S, for instance the structural and even the notion-function syllabi, which view the teacher's role as to analyse the TL into discrete parts that are taught step by step. According to Long and Robinson FORM S view acquisition as a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure has been built up and the learner's role is to synthesize these parts for use in communication. The syllabus consists of inductively and deductively presented information about the TL, which is designed to present and practice a series of linguistic items, or forms. Long and Robinson refer to research studies of naturalistic and classroom language
learning that show fixed developmental sequences in L2 learning. Such research studies prove that the rate of progress could vary and that there sometimes occur additional stages within sequences of development, but the basic developmental sequences remain unchanged. Long and Robinson (1993) assert that theories of learning, such as proclaimed by synthetic approaches, are challenged by the occurrence of “U-shape” and “backsliding” phenomenon which prove language learning is not a process of unilateral progress. Long and Robinson note that although catalyst methods, like consciousness-raising and input enhancement, show some respect for the learner’s internal syllabus; they remain embedded in synthetic syllabi and still ignore the learning sequences and timing problems.

Long and Robinson explain that both focus on meaning and focus on FORM (FonF) occur in analytic syllabi. According to Long and Robinson, analytic syllabi treat languages not as an object of study, but as a medium of communication. Long and Robinson state that analytic approaches organize language in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performances that are necessary to meet those purposes. Long and Robinson distinguish between when the focus is on meaning, such as in the procedural syllabus, which organize the language according to situations; and when the focus is on FORM, such as the task-based syllabus, which organize the language according to tasks. According to Long and Robinson, approaches that focus on meaning, rely on implicit or incidental learning through subconscious processes of analysing input, inducing rules and accessing innate knowledge of universal knowledge. The assumption here is that adolescent and adult L2 learners still have the same capacity as young children to attain native norms in a new language simply through exposure to its use. Long and Robinson argue that this view is too single-minded and refer to recent studies which indicate that there appear to be maturational constraints on language learning. Naturalistic adult learners become fluent, but not native-like. Long and Robinson emphasize that L2 learners need negative evidence especially concerning L1-L2 grammatical contrasts.
According to Long and Robinson (1998) the biggest problem with purely analytic approaches is that it is inefficient. They note that there is clear proof of rate advantages for learners who receive formal instruction. Timing and processing constraints in language learning have been addressed by Pienemann’s Learnability Hypothesis. Long and Robinson observe that Focus on FORM S do not provide a feasible solution for these problems; and it is practically impossible for a whole class’ learners to be at the same level of acquisition and have the same linguistic needs. They conclude that language structures, or forms, are not viable as units of analysis in syllabus design. An analytic syllabus, with tasks as the units of analysis, is sensitive to the learner’s internal syllabus and specific needs for learning the language, and allows for focus on form.

According to Long and Robinson, Focus on form (FoF) and Long’s Interactive Approach view SLA as a process explicable by neither a purely linguistic nativist nor a purely environmentalist theory. Long and Robinson consider negotiation of meaning as essential, and refer to requests and confirmations of form-function information, negative feedback and recasts that occur when access to unknown linguistic forms and vocabulary is attained through interaction between learners and other speakers (especially, but not only, more proficient speakers and learners), and between learners and authentic TL info.

Negotiation of meaning is more or less predictable in certain interactions, which are determined by tasks and tasks conditions. Pedagogic tasks are successively more complex approximations of target tasks, which are identified through a learners’ needs analysis. FORM, apart from being build into the task – for grammatical ability and control of linguistic and conversational structures are requirements for task completion – occasionally shift to the focal point of attention, in an otherwise meaning-focussed classroom lesson. Long and Robinson suggest that focus on form, by the teacher and/or one or more students, is triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production.
2.3.4.7 Communicative focus on form

According to Doughty and Varela (1998), communicative FonF emphasizes fluency, not linguistic correctness and views language as the means of communication, not the object of communication. Long and Robinson (1998) suggest that focus on form could be accomplished in a variety of ways – from explicit metalinguistic rule explanations to implicit visual input enhancement. Long and Robinson argue that implicit and inductive FoF is better suited for complex language and marked structures; whereas explicit deductive FoF is appropriate for simple language, where salient features of form directly influence the meaning.

Doughty and Varela launched a study to investigate recasting: an implicit method of FoF. They base their hypothesis on research which indicated that recasting was both frequent and effective in child natural and classroom L1 and L2 language acquisition. These findings in child language acquisition research provided a bases for their predictions: adults only address one error or erroneous behaviour in target-like exemplar; children notice (intake) and use (output) negative evidence that are provided through recasting; children learn grammatical morphemes from recasts (negative evidence), not from other discourse (positive evidence). Importantly, Doughty and Varela note that recasting does not interrupt interaction, but contributes to mutual understanding and thus, successful communication. Doughty and Varela concluded with some notes on methodology, when using recasts as an effective way to focus on form: it is important to include content and form when a recast is given; recasting should preferably take place during pair or group work, not during panel or individual feedback, as to avoid negative affective feedback (embarrassment hinders the communication flow); recasting must occur on oral and written errors – where written recasts are in juxtaposition and learner corrections are expected; and finally, recasts must always be brief and immediate.
2.4 CONCLUSION

SLA research is an exciting and dynamic field of research, which does not alone enable the L2 learner and L2 teacher to form an informed approach to L2 learning; but also allows the learner and teacher to become directly involved in the theories that shape instructional methods and materials. Classroom research makes teachers and researchers aware of what goes on in the SLA environment or their own classrooms. It also makes them more critical about their own conceptions and the processes described in SLA theory and pedagogy. Two approaches to SLA research were identified: a generative approach, which investigates the development of L2 competence ("multi-competence"), and a functional approach, which relates the development of L2 structures to their functions. There is a growing need for applied research (such as referential communication research) that focuses on instructional design features, like focus on form, of discourse task types and comprehension tasks.

Universal Grammar is a theory of cognition and it is central to the generative approach to SLA. UG identifies structural regularities in human languages and account for the differences between grammars, but UG is only concerned with the basic aspects of grammar. The type of input data that the L2 learner is exposed to, is important for the (re-)setting of UG parameters. Negative evidence (correction) is necessary for L2 learning. UG theory recommends vocabulary teaching, consciousness raising methods and markedness instruction.

Krashen's Input Theory acknowledges UG properties for L2 teaching and learning. Language instruction should facilitate comprehensible input (i+1) to L2 learners. Modified input has to be graded to the learners' developing abilities. Pienemann's Learnability Hypothesis, and his later Processability Hypothesis, stress the learning condition of prerequisite knowledge (or ability). Authentic materials, input enhancement and marked input have been noted to advance the
acquisition processes. Modified interaction is described by Long's Interaction Hypothesis, as the product of learners' collaborated efforts, during conversations, to enhance comprehension. Small group activities and pair work give learners maximum opportunities for negotiation of meaning and hypothesis testing. Learners are also able to practise their production and comprehension of the TL, which is necessary for automatization of these processes. Communication tasks can be designed as to promote interaction and negotiation of meaning.

Input processing models describe how intake is derived from input. Intake is necessary for learners to build a mental representation of the TL grammar. Learning is not effortless and attention is required. Adult L2 learners have limited attentional resources, but formal instruction can equip them with comprehensional cues for detection. Learners always first process input for meaning, and meaning-bearing input is essential for SLA.

Focus on form, as a method of L2 learning, includes the best of two worlds: Focus on meaningful interaction and consciousness raising through focus on form. The importance of negative evidence in L2 learning is recognized and meaningfully incorporated into an analytic approach. Tasks, which approximate authentic target tasks, are the units of analysis of a syllabus that is designed for the specific purposes of the learner's needs.
CHAPTER THREE

THE PRINCIPLES AND PROPERTIES OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to provide a critical review of perspectives on a range of central issues underlying the use of tasks in second language learning and teaching. The perspectives relating to the task-based approach rest on a sound theoretical base that creates an interface between the fields of second language acquisition and pedagogy. In the previous chapter linguistic theories, which support a task-based approach to second language learning and teaching, were reviewed. In this chapter the task-based approach is explored as it is employed in the field of second language learning and teaching.

The first part of this chapter considers the concept of task as it is used in the L2 learning context. The requirements for a communication task, in order to promote language learning, are based on the principles of SLA that were discussed in chapter two. These principles are then applied to task-based language learning. The different components of a communication task are considered accordingly and the best task conditions for promoting learning are differentiated. Different kinds of communication tasks are discussed in view of the optimum task conditions, and examples serve to illustrate the properties of the different task types.

Structure-based communication tasks focus on form. The value of focus on form for SLA is expressed in the literature and acknowledged by task-based approaches. The principles of structure-based tasks are given, and
approaches. The principles of structure-based tasks are given, and comprehension and production task conditions, which advocate focus on form, outline specifications for the use of structure-based tasks. A discussion of the criteria for developing structure-based tasks identifies task essentialness as most effective for relating form to meaning. The importance of negative evidence for L2 learning is confirmed also when using structure-based communication tasks.

Referential tasks are communication tasks that emphasize the differences between the speaker and the listener’s point of view. Referential communication tasks are designed as to create discrepancies between the speaker and the listener’s perspectives of the task at hand. Learners have to negotiate the variations in perspective in order to complete the task. The use of essentially transactional communication that exchanges information to promote SLA is motivated from within the literature. Examples of referential communication tasks illustrate the properties of this instrument for learning. Referential communication tasks are in many ways identical to the communication tasks that were discussed before, but the difference lies in the underlying principles and processes that promote SLA, which are represented by these tasks.

The concept of task is next analyzed from an instructional perspective and the instructional task represents this view. Also the referential communication task is motivated from an instructional perspective. The task-based approach to L2 teaching focuses on method rather than content and pedagogy plays an important role in describing how materials can be effectively applied within methodology. Task-based language teaching is supported by modern pedagogic principles that focus on learning. Principles for grading tasks, the role of learners and interaction routines assist in applying materials to method. Task-based language teaching is executed according to a plan for language learning – the syllabus. The task-based syllabus has distinct features, which are upheld by the principles of SLA that have been identified.
The context for specific purpose course design is described according to a contemporary perspective on language learning. The twentieth century has been marked by change and a competitive global economy. To survive in the world today we need to change our view of learning and language learning. Learning and language learning are essential skills for keeping up with international developments. Multilingualism is imperative in a world where geographical borders have disappeared. This new view of language and language learning is discussed from linguistic, cognitive and social perspectives, which conglomerate in a new approach to L2 teaching. Approach is reflected in method, and teaching methods have to adapt to our rapidly changing societies.

In modern day society there is a growing demand for multilingualism and for vocationally orientated language teaching. This relatively new field of language teaching has an inexhaustible scope for application and opens up many opportunities for research and development. Wieden (1998) state that vocational language or language for specific purposes has the additional feature of expertise of domain specific knowledge. Careful planning and goal description is called for in a programme that prepares learners to use a L2 language in a professional context. Tasks are not only used as the units of analysis, but as Thorogood (2000) points out, target tasks also form the basis for material development.

3.2 TASKS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

3.2.1 The concept of task and task requirements

The concept of task refers to outcome-based activities, in other words activity for the sake of a given goal. A communication task is an interactional activity with a communication goal. In order to complete the task, learners are expected to request help when they don’t understand, they communicate their needs and at the same time offer assistance or clarify their own messages. A communication
task creates circumstances that allow learners to apply their production and comprehension processes.

A task should be designed in such a way that it contributes to the accomplishment of specific language learning objectives and promotes successful language acquisition. Principles for language learning, such as Krashen's Input Hypothesis or Long's Interactional Theory, support the notion that learners should be introduced to comprehensible input and negotiate meaning. Nunan (1993) distinguishes between linguistic input (e.g. a radio broadcast), non-linguistic input (e.g. a photo) or hybrid (e.g. a map). Learners have to interpret the input and give feedback through understandable output. By negotiating meaning learners form new hypotheses about the language and modify their interlanguage. The learner's behaviour would reflect whether the task succeeded in providing comprehensible input, which the learner was able to interpret, react to by providing feedback on the production, and modify his or her interlanguage accordingly.

The interactant relationship, the interaction requirements, the goal orientation and the outcome options determine the nature of a task and the learners' behaviour. According to Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) the interactants can all have access to different information needed to complete the task, or only one interactant may hold the information and supply it if the others request it. An interactant can therefore either have a role of supplying or requesting information, or both. The communication goal can be similar or convergent, or otherwise divergent for the different interactants. There can only be one acceptable outcome or more than one acceptable possibility.

A communication task, which would best succeed in eliciting the required learner-behaviour, should meet the following conditions:
First of all, every interactant has to have access to different information. The interactants have to manipulate and exchange the information in order to complete the task. Secondly, all the interactants have to request and supply information as to facilitate comprehension and production processes. Finally, negotiation of meaning is best promoted if the interactants have convergent goals and when there is only one possible outcome.

These conditions ensure optimum opportunities for learners to produce, interpret and comprehend language, to give and receive feedback on production and adjust their interlanguage.

3.2.2 The different task types

Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) distinguishes the following task types:

(a) The Jigsaw Task
This is a collaborative, listening activity where learners have to choose and share information so as to complete the task. Both participants hold information which is needed and interaction is therefore imperative. This type of task fulfills all the requirements for a good communication task.

(b) The Information Gap Task
This kind of task is similar to jigsaw tasks, except that only one of the interactants has access to information that is needed for completion of the task. This means that the other interactant has less opportunity to receive feedback and to modify his or her interlanguage. If the roles are alternated, then this task will fulfills the same requirements than the jigsaw task.

(c) The Problem-solving Task
This kind of task has only a single outcome or solution, and all activity is aimed at finding this outcome. Both interactants have access to the same information that
is needed for the task, which means that interaction is not necessary. Interactants could still ask for help or assist each other where there is ambiguity and modify their production as to be more intelligible.

(d) The Decision-making Task
With this kind of task there is a choice of solutions or outcomes, but interactants have to work together to decide on one. As with problem-solving, it is not essential that the interactants exchange information, as they already share access to the same information. Interaction is necessary for reaching an agreement about the best outcome, but interactants do not have to participate to an equal degree in the task through either producing language or comprehending production. If there were to be only one acceptable, predetermined outcome, then the task would be essentially a problem-solving task.

(e) The Opinion Exchange Task
This activity is built into any discussion. Interactants are not forced to participate and they do not necessarily share the same communication goal. There is not a single, acceptable outcome which would compel a mutual understanding. If it had been agreed that interactants were only allowed to decide on one outcome, then there would be more opportunity for production, comprehension and interlanguage modification. With only one acceptable outcome, the features of the task would compare to that of a decision-making task.

The following examples of tasks serve to illustrate the different task types:

*Drawing a picture, which is described by the interlocutor.* (Information Gap)
If the roles were alternated, this activity would fulfill all the requirements of a good communication task. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) point out that unfortunately expectations are not met in practice, because the illustrations generally do not exemplify the descriptions, which makes outcome specifications problematic.
Identifying from a series of pictures the picture that the interlocutor describes. (Information Gap)
This task is similar to the previous one, but there is only one possible outcome and it is therefore more straightforward. It does not require any artistic skill, which makes it accessible to more learners.

Organizing an area (e.g. room, house, garden, town) as a group effort. (Jigsaw)
Instructions are divided amongst the interactants and they have to work together to complete the task. There is only one possible outcome.

Organizing information or sentences in the correct order as to compile a story. (Jigsaw)
A story is cut up into sentences, phrases or even pictures, and then jumbled before it is divided amongst the interactants. Interaction is necessary, because the interactants have to share the information and place it in the correct order. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) note that the storyline should be clear and simple, otherwise there has to be more than one acceptable solution. If the information is not divided amongst the interactants, but instead everyone has access to all the information, this task would be considered a problem-solving task rather than a jigsaw-task.

Choosing the correct picture from two or more similar pictures according to the descriptions of the interlocutor. (Information Gap)
Only one of the interactants has access to the correct information and the others have to give feedback on production or ask for information in order to disqualify the misleading and distractive alternative, and identify the single, correct option.
Spot the difference. (Information Gap)
This activity is very similar to the previous one, except that the outcome is different. To complete this task the interactants have to identify all the differences between the information that was given to each of them. They are given very similar information and they have to compare with each other in order to discover the subtle differences that exist between the inputs they were given. Samuda and Rounds (1993) studied this type of activity and identified three kinds of *Spot the difference* tasks. The first type they distinguished omits an article or a feature; type two exhibits perceptual ambiguity; while type three compounds feature absence to perceptual ambiguity through lexical disfluency. The task difficulty increases from type one to three in the demands it makes on the negotiation of meaning. This task would be considered a jigsaw-task if the interactants were not allowed any visual access to their fellow interactants' source of information. If they were allowed visual access cooperation would still be expected, but the task would be classified as a problem-solving task.

Interpret the tabular information. (Information Gap)
The participant has to interpret information that is presented in a table. Long and Crooks (1993) suggest that the information could describe a book (title, author, price, year of publication), a career (required age, qualifications, previous work experience) or schools and hotels.

Calculating distance and map work (Information Gap)
The participant has to calculate the distance between places with the help of a map and its key. Long and Crooks (1993) refer to examples of a participant comparing the different distances and deciding about the best route to take, or an interactant compiling a map based on the descriptions of distances and directions.
Listening activities (Information Gap)
The interlocutor presents a story of a dialogue. The listeners are expected to complete the story or answer comprehension questions. The task complexity would increase when, as Long and Crooks (1993) suggest, the listeners have to identify contradicting information or errors in the input.

Making a decision based on human (often moral) dilemma. (Decision-making)
Interaction is probable during a discussion of the given information. Interactants are expected to make a single, joint decision about a given dilemma. For example, they might be expected to choose a limited number of items to take on a holiday in the Drakensberg during a winter holiday, or decide on the appropriate punishment for a drunk driver who killed a pedestrian.

Decide which individual does not fit. (Opinion Exchange)
All the interactants have access to a list of individuals who all seem to have some relation with each other. The interactants have to give their opinions about which individual does not fit on the list. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) observe that negotiation of meaning is probable when the interactants justify their choices.

Name the advantages and disadvantages of a given situation. (Opinion Exchange)
The interlocutor describes a situation or a historical event which the interactants list the likely arguments in favor of and against it. Interactants have opportunity for production and feedback, but the task does not guarantee participation of any or all the interactants.

3.2.3 Structure-based communication tasks

3.2.3.1 Tasks that focus on form

Studies have shown that L2 learners who receive instruction are at an advantage to naturalistic L2 learners and that focus on form promotes SLA, while it prevents
fossilization. Task-based grammar instruction develops L2 learners' grammar through hypothesis testing and inferencing. Consciousness raising activities at sentence level show how the lexico- and morphosyntax influence the meaning.

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) closed, information gap tasks are best for focus on form. They differentiate between closed tasks, which are determined or discrete, as opposed to open tasks that are undetermined. Closed tasks facilitate more negotiation of meaning, interlanguage modifications, as well as greater comprehension and focus on form, because the information needed for the successful completion of the task is very specific (such as in "Spot the difference" tasks). Loschky and Bley-Vroman emphasize that the design of closed tasks has to be very specific as to make the learner aware of difference in meaning that the word order or lexicon brings about. Such consciousness-raising activities should bring about hypothesis-testing and hypothesis-restructuring, or what Rutherford (1988) refers to as noticing and restructuring of the organization of the target language.

Loschky and Bley-Vroman refer to Doyle's explanation that it is the action which the task brings about, that the learner learns. They also refer to Dittmar, who claims that communication tasks promote the use of pragmatic and semantic strategies to express meaning. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman, Doyle's theory asserts that communication tasks will only develop learners' strategic abilities. In order to develop L2 learners' linguistic ability, tasks have to be designed specifically to encourage morpho- and syntax-based strategies for negotiating meaning. In this way a relationship between grammar and communication is established, and through practice production becomes automatic, which leaves attention resources available for negotiating the meaning of new input.
3.2.3.2 Production and comprehension strategies that promote focus on form

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) L2 learners can only rely on internal strategies for processing the syntax, semantics, pragmatics, morphology, intonation and lexicon, to understand input. The information is presented to the learner in linguistic and nonlinguistic forms – the kind of communication situation will determine which factors contribute more to the learner’s comprehension. Loschky and Bley-Vroman argue that by manipulating the input, the task designer can control the extent to which syntactical and morphological information are needed for comprehending the meaning in question. For example, choosing from a series of pictures, the picture that demonstrates the meaning of a given sentence, would display recognition of the correct subject of an active verb, or the correct agent of a passive verb, through reference to the subject concord.

Loschky and Bley-Vroman state that the learner has access to more diverse production strategies, and it is therefore more difficult to design tasks that would force learners to use syntactical or morphological strategies in order for them to develop their linguistic abilities. They note that fully bilingual speakers’ internal lexical and grammatical production processes are directly related to the cognitive representation of their linguistic knowledge. Also, first language speakers use the correct speech acts and the relevant interpersonal mode to communicate successfully. L2 speakers, on the other hand, will forget all about the relevant discourse necessities in their efforts to communicate information. Loschky and Bley-Vroman propose that L2 learners would decide to reduce the content of their message or resort to a limited linguistic repertoire, which they have already mastered. Loschky and Bley-Vroman emphasize that these reduction strategies do not support the formulation of hypotheses.

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman, L2 learners also use achievement strategies to overcome gaps in their linguistic knowledge. Achievement
strategies include the use of generalizations, word coinage, paraphrasing and language transferring. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) suggest that learners using achievement strategies, rather than reduction strategies, would be more likely to restructure their target language hypotheses. Alternatively, learners should be encouraged to rely on the co-operative principle and to ask the interlocutor for assistance. Loschky and Bley-Vroman conclude that in this way learners will develop their co-operative skills for communicating, which are essential in discourse.

3.2.3.3 Criteria for developing structure-based communication tasks

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) point out that in structure-based tasks the structural correctness has to be essential for comprehension and production of meaning. For most tasks there would be more than one linguistically correct way to structurally formulate meaning. Mother tongue speakers naturally tend to use a specific structure. Through NS-NNS interaction language learners receive positive and negative evidence. Loschky and Bley-Vroman explain that although the use of the correct structure is not task essential for most tasks, it might be useful or more effective than a less natural or even unacceptable structure would be for the performance of a task. They emphasize that the task designer has to design a task in such a way that the value of the specific structure is as clear as possible to the learner. It is also possible of course to design a task in such a way that it is impossible to complete the task successfully without applying the correct grammatical knowledge. Loschky and Bley-Vroman argue that in the case of comprehension tasks, it would be easier to implement task-essential structures; whereas with production tasks the designer would more likely be limited to structures that are useful or natural in certain settings.

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman structure-based communication tasks are very valuable for exercises that would lead to automatization of the grammatical structures. The objective of grammar-based production tasks is to
focus the learner's processing abilities on the meaningful function of a specific structure. Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) note that the task designer can manipulate the input, the context within which the input is processed and the learner's activities in order to achieve this objective. The designer of a structure-based comprehension task can create a narrow relationship between form and meaning by means of a task-essential design.

L2 learners are able to formulate and restructure many hypotheses while they perform a task where the relationship between form and function is clear; but without any kind of feedback the learner won't be able to confirm or reject these new hypotheses. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman the L2 learner requires enough points of reference in order to interpret the feedback. They argue that learners who receive feedback acquire better production and comprehension skills. Feedback is not always adequate to instruct learners as to the cause of their problems. Loschky and Bley-Vroman explain that according to the Universal Grammar Theory, explicit correction is necessary in some second language acquisition cases to reset a parameter.

Loschky and Bley-Vroman designed a scheme for structure-based comprehension tasks. To begin, very specifically designed input that contain a target structure, would be presented in a strictly controlled sentence form. The input should contain target and distractor elements. The distractor options should be in accordance to predictable learner-mistakes in the interlanguage. The input can be presented verbally or in writing. There should be some or other visual reference (e.g. objects or pictures), as to allow the learner to visually conceptualize the input. The task has to be designed in such a way that all contextual references are relevant to the learners' negotiation of meaning. These contextual features have to be adequate, but still leave an information gap. The context cues should not be too rich as to hide the target structures with too many non-target possibilities. After the learners have identified their choices,
their options should be negotiated. Some form of feedback is necessary to confirm or explain the learners' comprehension processes.

3.2.4 Referential communication tasks

3.2.4.1 Developing tasks for information exchange

According to Yule (1997) referential communication tasks are transactional tasks that are characterized by extended, structured discourse. Yule defines that the discourse is purposeful and controlled in that there is a defined topic, as well as prescribed materials, a procedure and a point of completion that is reached when a set objective is achieved. Transactional communication is concerned with concepts like sender and receiver, and message encoding and decoding. Yule distinguishes between one-way information flow where the information is essentially transferred, and two-way information flow where information is exchanged. Yule describes tasks as open, when the goal is undefined and information exchange is optional. Closed tasks are designed as to require information exchange and a convergent effect within the task performance to reach a common goal.

According to Yule (1997) referential communication tasks do not have any predetermined set of linguistic forms that have to be used. The tasks' function is purely to elicit speakers' discourse. Yule notes that different task types elicit different kinds of discourse, such as instructions or descriptions. He explains that in principle a referential communication task has to provide the speaker with some pre-selected information to convey, the listener with a reason to attain the information in order to complete a task, and the awareness that the information gap exists. Yule explains that the roles of speaker and listener, or sender and receiver, demand the skills of recognizing the interlocutor's perspective, to make assumptions about their perspectives based on which the message is encoded and decoded, and to measure these assumptions to any feedback received.
Referential communication is defined within instructional environments where the context can be determined. Yule (1997) explains that in this sense target does not refer to the target language, but to a target repertoire. The emphasis is on the ability to use the L2 in communicative exchanges. L2 messages are formed and expressed within communicative events. Within these communicative events, a kind of socialization takes place. Yule advances that the participant has to also assume a social role in referential communication. The social values that these roles represent, such as status, familiarity, expert or gender, have to be recognized in order for the participant to communicate effectively.

Yule (1997) refers to what Takano and Noda called the “foreign language effect”, which results in a temporary decline in the processing ability when demanding cognitive tasks are performed simultaneously. Yule points out that it is therefore in the L2 learner’s interest that opportunity will be provided to use new language in “easy” activities (for instance, naming objects or providing labels and short phrases), as to allow learners to gain confidence and fluency without additional cognitive demands that could create stress. Yule proposes that once the learner has experienced success, elements of problem-solving or information gaps are used to create communication problems and elicit communication strategies.

Yule maintains that learners have to use communication strategies to negotiate meaning and communication outcomes. Strategies for negotiation of meaning include clarification or repetition requests, and confirmation or comprehension checks. Yule describes the strategies for negotiating communication outcomes to resolve referential conflicts as follows: interactants may not be aware of the problem; or one interactant is aware of the problem, but chooses to disregard it; or interactants negotiate solutions by either resorting to an other-centered solution, or to a self-centered solution. In the case of other-centered solutions, the sender tries to solve the problem based on the receiver’s perspective; whereas with self-centered solutions, the interactant has convinced the receiver of the sender’s perspective to solve the problem accordingly.
3.2.4.2 **Examples of referential communication tasks**

The following examples have been taken from Yule's book *Referential Communication Tasks* (1997), to illustrate how materials and procedures can be used to elicit referential communication:

*Describing an object to be identified from others*

Real objects or photographs of real world objects may be used. A problem will be introduced if it is different kinds of the same objects (e.g. different kinds of hats). Drawings of abstract figures and shapes can either be designed as to defy conventional labels, or consists of human-like figures (e.g. the collection of figures in the Chinese game of Tangram).

*Instructional tasks that require the listener to act*

Participants can be given conventional forms, or an arrangement of geometric shapes, which vary in size, color and positions. The speaker describes and the listener draws. Once participants are familiar with the activity, the speakers can be allowed to describe their own creation. The drawing requirement of these tasks might cause anxiety in some participants.

Tracing a route, which is described by the speaker, is a task that allows for exciting possibilities. Maps of different scales favour different landmarks for referential communications. Referential conflicts are created if the participants receive different versions of the same map. The range of differences between two map versions, such as roofs that were repainted another colour, or street names that changed and shops that moved location, create unlimited opportunities for negotiation of reference points. Participants are usually informed at the beginning of the task that there are differences in the versions of their maps.
Assembly tasks where the speaker knows how the various parts of an object or design fit together and instructs the listener accordingly.

Real world objects, like an electrical plug or a tent, could be used. The speaker receives a series of photographs or drawings, which illustrates the assembly process. A farm or garden scene with cutouts of animals or plants has been used. The listener reconstructs the scene on a flannel board or a matching picture that provides outlines for the given scene. Along with the referent objects, distracter cutouts are also provided to the listener. Objects, like building blocks or different coloured arbitrary shapes, can be used to elicit referential communication, whilst allowing for different outcomes in the form of varying possible creations.

Tasks that require one participant to demonstrate an activity with instructions, are less controlled, but can be applied to real world situations. For example, one participant can instruct another how to alphabetically make entries on the computer, or how to replace a faulty light bulb.

Tasks that elicit narrative accounts

An eyewitness account of an accident or a crime requires explicit reference and detail. Materials become more complex when there are more, important characters, more location changes and more background information presented. A set of slides, photographs or even a short video can be used to create different versions of an incident, which the participants have to report.

Cartoon strips can be used to put the speaker in an eyewitness role. A referential problem is created when the listener's version includes differences, which require more explicit references from the speaker. The listener's cartoon strip could also include additional scenes that have to be identified as part of the story, or not, and included or omitted in the correct sequence, as provided by the speaker.
Yule (1997) notes that a variation in materials and procedures for any of these tasks will have an immediate effect on the task performance and requirements for the participants. It is important to consider these implications for the L2 learner's needs and level of acquisition. According to Yule task conditions that determine whether participants have access to each other's information, or are able to see each other's faces, and to what extent feedback is limited, are necessary options, but are often determined by the physical conditions of the instructional environment.

3.3 TASKS IN THE PEDAGOGIC CONTEXT

3.3.1 The theoretical rationale for using tasks

According to Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) the theoretical perspective that supports the use of communication tasks is that which holds that language is best learned and taught through interaction. Therefore it follows that the use of tasks in L2 teaching relies on the learner's innate ability to acquire a language, and to use it creatively according to what is possible within the blueprint of the target language in the UG. The availability of UG for SLA implicates that L2 teaching only needs to facilitate noticing through consciousness-raising activities. This approach supports structure-based communication tasks that focus on form of language (not the forms of language).

The Input and Interaction Approach to L2 teaching does not only describe different learner interactions, but also indicates what kinds of interactions are more successful in promoting negotiation of meaning. As Pica and Doughty's (1985) studies of small group or pair work show, learner-learner interaction in instruction tasks offers more opportunity for negotiation of meaning, than learner-teacher interaction or, in other words, teacher-centered instruction. Allwright and Bailey (1991) conclude that learner-learner interaction leads to more conversational modifications and creates more opportunities for the learners to
interrupt each other and ask for assistance. Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) refer to interactionist theories of SLA which state that language learning is assisted through the social interaction of learners, especially when they negotiate towards mutual comprehension of each other's meaning. Allwright and Bailey (1991) point out that it is important to consider the learners' receptivity towards their fellow learners when structuring group work tasks. It is important to consider the effect of the kind of task, but also of the interactant relationship on learner participation in task-based teaching. According to Plaugh and Gass (1993) the optimal condition for promotion of negotiation of meaning is met in a non-threatening environment. They present evidence that interlocutor familiarity correlates positively with confirmation checks and clarification requests.

The Input and Interaction approach supports learner-centered teaching. According to Kumaravadivelu (1993) learner-centered teaching is also linear and cumulative, like teacher-centered teaching. This kind of teaching is content motivated and based on introducing all the forms of the TL. Such a linear approach cannot succeed because all languages are far too complex to be presented in this way. Kumaravadivelu defines that learning-centered teaching views language learning as a natural process that occurs during open communication. It is non-linear and language is not taught through systematic input. Kumaravadivelu asserts that learning-centered language teaching facilitates optimum conditions for meaningful interaction. Through communication tasks (language-in-use) negotiation occur between the L2 learner's existing knowledge and new knowledge that the input presents. Learners comprehend, produce and do things with language. Their L2 development is fortuitous and indirect.

Kumaravadivelu discusses Krashen and Prabhu's opinion of SLA as best promoted when language is used to transfer information; and Samuda and Madden's view of language as a way of getting things done. Although these views do bare some resemblance to the Functional Approach, Kumaravadivelu
notes that Samuda and Madden clearly state that language is acquired through activity with the focus on meaning, not on functions or notions, topics or structures in the TL. Kumaravadivelu maintains that task-based L2 instruction facilitates SLA by involving the learners in activities that allows for achieving an outcome through language transactions.

Yule (1997) traces referential communication back to Piaget's studies of children's development in the 1920's. Piaget's studies showed that children move away from "egocentric speech" around the ages of six or seven and they develop the ability to adapt the message to the listener's perspective. It is at the age when most children become socially aware and develop communication effectiveness, which involves many separate skills from linguistic competence. According to Yule learners rely on other knowledge of the world around them in order to develop their language. Role-taking is very important in the development of children's communicative competence. According to Yule learning to be verbally explicit about what is already known, is a skill that is acquired through referential communication tasks. Referential communication is about the transactional function of language, and referential communication tasks create opportunities for negotiation of meaning and negotiation of communication outcome.

3.3.2 The instructional task

There are different definitions for the concept of "instructional task". This variance indicates underlying differences in approach to methodology and content of L2 teaching.

Kumaravadivelu (1993) discussed different views of this concept. He refers to Krahnke's view of tasks as skills that learners practise in the classroom for non-instructional objectives (in other words, for social communication) outside the classroom. Kumaravadivelu explains that Candlin views a task as one of a
series of ordered problem-solving activities. These problem-solving activities involve the learners cognitively and communicatively, while they apply their existing and new knowledge in a collaborative exploration of revealing objectives in a social milieu. Kumaravadivelu (1993) describes Swales' view of the instructional task as incorporating Candlin's view, but that Swale emphasizes the goal-orientated nature of tasks, as well as the importance of acquiring the relevant pre-genre and genre skills for the different socio-rhetorical situations. Kumaravadivelu notes that Nunan views the instructional task as a communication task, which involves the language learner in comprehension, manipulation, production and interaction activities, whilst they focus on meaning rather than form.

Breen (1987) distinguishes between communication tasks, which are based on actual tasks that a person will undertake when communicating in the TL, and learning tasks, which are selected on the basis of metacommunicative criteria. The latter introduce the learner to learning strategies and provide the groundwork for the learner's engagement in communication tasks. Breen maintains that insight into the knowledge systems and how development is best promoted, is important as to allow the learners to take responsibility for their own learning.

According to Kumaravadivelu (1993) a task-based perspective defines the instructional task as a communication task that is performed within a meaning-focussed and interactional, methodological context. Kumaravadivelu explains that in the last fifty years language teaching has moved away from a scientific, methodological approach, and became more content orientated, focussing on curriculum design and teaching outcomes. Task-based teaching represents a shift back to method-orientated teaching, which recognizes the need for not only planning objectives and content but for specific classroom implementation. Nunan (1993) focuses on the integrated processes of learning and teaching, the surrounding classroom context and learners' participation, via their own interpretation of the content and objectives, mediate the learning process.
Learners are given the opportunity for negotiation and to use this interaction in order to master a language through a learning style and learning strategies that suit their needs. The teacher facilitates maximum learning opportunities through sufficient, relevant methodology and classroom procedures. Kumaravadivelu (1993) agrees with Nunan's view, but emphasizes that task-based teaching is predominantly method-driven.

Although Nunan (1993) denounces the use of repeated practice, he discusses Bygate's suggestion that classroom interaction should be characterized by routine. These routine ways of representing information could be focussing on the information or on the interaction. Nunan proposes that information routines could either be declarative (e.g. narration, description, instruction or comparison) or evaluative (e.g. explanation, justification, predication or decision). Interaction routines can be a service (e.g. a job interview) or social (e.g. a tea break). Learners and teachers' preferences for activities are often unalike. According to Nunan, personality and cognitive style determine preference for certain activities.

Nunan suggests that input data for instructional tasks differ linguistically from authentic target tasks, because the level of difficulty can be controlled to suit the learner's needs for comprehensible input. According to Nunan, Prabhu describes the difficulty of an activity as determined by the kind of input, the number of cognitive steps required, the degree of preciseness, abstractness and general knowledge expected from the learner. Nunan notes that familiarity with the topic and kind of task, the number of elements involved and the cues for distinguishing between these elements (for instance, nouns are easier to distinguish than pronouns) would assist comprehension of input. Nunan proposes that the kind of genre increases in difficulty from descriptions, instructions, narrating to debating and opinion-exchange.

Nunan refers to research on task difficulty with relevance to syllabus design. He agrees with Wright and considers the factors relating to the role of learners
during the execution of instructional tasks, as two-dimensional: interpersonal and interactivity. He refers to Brown and Yule's finding that the length of a speech turn correlates positively with task difficulty. Nunan (1993) refers to Brock's research, which suggests that the use of reference questions would encourage longer and more complex reactions. Nunan notes Porter's findings that learners produce more speech and do not produce more errors, when they communicate with other L2 learners than with mother-tongue speakers. Nunan refers to Gass and Varonis who observed that most negotiations occur between learners from different language backgrounds and different levels of acquisition. Nunan (1993) noted Doughty and Pica's research finding that two-way interaction and group work provide more opportunity for speech adjustments and negotiation of task outcome. According to Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993), jigsaw-type instructional tasks and convergent outcomes promote more negotiations and interaction modifications. These research findings reflect the interpersonal and interactive dimensions of the instructional task and demonstrate the large body of literature available for task-based syllabus designers.

The instructional task can be used to develop language programmes: to identify the language learner's needs, to define the syllabus content, to select classroom procedures and even to measure learning. According to Nunan (1993) the learner has to be involved in decision-making tasks about the language programme and that programme development provides the basis for authentic communication tasks. Nunan distinguishes between psycholinguistic and utilitarian rationales for task selection. The utilitarian dimension for instructional tasks is the real world. Methods concentrate on communication, not the medium; and communication becomes a functional skill that is acquired. Nunan refers to Widdowson's statement that instructional tasks should have real world relevance and be executed in a natural and realistic manner. In order to create relevance for the learner, the real world should not only be simulated in the classroom, but the classroom, as a social reality should be utilized to apply communicative competence as a functional investment. The instructional task can prepare the
learner for the world outside the classroom by dealing with real tasks in the classroom, because the skills required for dealing with real communication is the same.

According to Skehan (1996), Long and Crooks discuss the importance of a needs analysis that show how learners need to use language in real-life, in order for task design to support a developmental relationship to such non-classroom activities. Long and Crooks emphasize a clear pedagogic relationship that tasks should have with out-of-class activities. For the purpose of vocational language teaching and learning the task's relationship with the real world has to be clearly defined in the task design.

3.3.3 THE TASK-BASED SYLLABUS

Breen (1987) points out that planning for language teaching and learning is executed within the context of the broader curriculum of which syllabus design forms only a part. The general characteristics of contemporary syllabuses can be subscribed to two major paradigms for design: analytic and synthetic syllabuses. Long and Crooks (1993) maintain that although not one syllabus would be considered exclusively analytic or synthetic, depending on the units for analysis a syllabus can be placed on a continuum between these opposing poles of characteristics.

Long and Crooks observe that analytic syllabuses, like task-based syllabuses, present the TL in larger units than synthetic syllabus types. They state that in an analytic syllabus the TL is subdivided and sequenced according to the learners' language learning objectives and the type of language behaviour that has to be acquired in order to achieve these goals. The learner together with the teacher determines the objectives, but as Kumaravvadivelu (1993) points out the focus is on method of learning and not content. Long and Crooks assert that learning is
measured in terms of the learner's criteria – in other words the achievement of the learner's objectives in terms of language behaviour.

According to Long and Crookes (1993) analytic syllabuses do not focus on linguistic aspects, but rely on the L2 learners' analytic abilities to recognise linguistic patterns in the TL and to internalize it within the UG. Task-based teaching recognizes the role that focus on form plays in SLA to speed up the acquisition process and to promote development through consciousness-raising. Murphy (1993) asserts that a task acts like a catalyst for learning. Long and Crooks conclude that task-based syllabuses provide opportunity for focus on form (not focus on forms or language structures) and acknowledge research findings on learners' interlanguage, according to which modified language is used as examples of the TL's code, especially in the beginning phases of acquisition.

According to Long and Crooks (1993) task-based syllabuses use tasks as units of analysis, but do not attempt to introduce language linearly, one task at a time. A task is used as an instrument whereby relevant examples of the TL are revealed. Through language-in-use the learner becomes aware of form-function relationships in the TL. Long and Crooks explain that learners internalize input, which is not destabilized by negative feedback, and incorporate this input in their long-term language faculty with other form-function relationships. In this way learners' grammar becomes more complex and their L2 develops.

According to Breen (1987), one of the major assumptions of this type of syllabus is that learning tasks call upon and engage the same abilities which underlie communication itself. Breen attributes learner participation to the principles of underlying areas in the target competence that overlap with L1 communicative competence; and that this underlying competence allows the learner to cope with the unpredictable, be creative and adaptable, and transfer knowledge and skills across tasks. Negotiation of meaning is the main design feature of every task.
Task-based syllabuses are subdivided on the basis of task types. Breen suggests that tasks are sequenced according to task familiarity and task demands. Familiarity of the task is relative to the learners' knowledge systems. Breen identifies three separate learner knowledge systems: context or situation, interpersonal, and ideational or topic. He proposes that task demands are sequenced from general to specific. Ability often requires skills that the learner's interlanguage does not provide for. Breen suggests that certain focus on form tasks can be sequenced, while others will be identified as learners encounter specific problems and would be represented in supportive tasks.

Long and Crookes (1993) identify a six phase design programme for task-based teaching: firstly a learner's needs identification is required – this is conducted according to the real-world target tasks that learners are preparing to undertake. The specific target tasks are identified and classified according to more general task types; pedagogic tasks are derived from the task types, which are graded and sequenced to form a task-based syllabus. Pedagogic tasks are graded according to the number steps and possible outcomes, the apparent cues, and the context in terms of time and place. Task type and classroom routine also effects task grading. Pedagogic tasks become increasingly complex, along with the learners' developing abilities, approximating target tasks in communicative success, semantic accuracy, pragmatic appropriacy, and grammatical correctness. Finally, evaluation is important for summation of the learning that has taken place, as well as to identify problem areas.

According to Long and Crooks the problems with task-based syllabuses are on account of difficulties with task selection and grading and sequencing tasks. Selecting tasks that represent learners' reality and relating these real tasks to their abilities are problematic. The potential of task-based L2 teaching for language learning for specific purposes is indisputable. Task design for language teaching and learning for specific purposes raises questions about the finiteness of tasks which represents the vocational eventualities. Long and
Crooks note that it is difficult to identify the target tasks and to differentiate tasks and sub-tasks.

3.4 SPECIFIC PURPOSE COURSE DESIGN

3.4.1 A contemporary perspective on language learning

According to Grenfell (2000) theories about what it means to know a language determine what has to be learned and how to teach it. Cognitive theorist would prescribe meticulous application of the mind to learning vocabulary, analyzing grammar and drilling example exercises in order to know the formal properties of a language. Communicative theorists focus on the need and ability to understand and be understood, but in practice communicative language teaching (CLT) facilitates imitation of real world communication, not real communication. Grenfell explains that many models of learning model language at an intra-psychological level and do not recognize the importance of its social form and functioning.

Grenfell asserts that by recognizing that language learning is part of the same process whereby humans learn socio-cultural behaviours and the cognitive skills for living in a certain language community, we gain a different understanding of language. Such a view of language and language learning encourages an approach to language learning and teaching which is both strategic and communicative. Language is a way of understanding; it is a prerequisite for making sense of all knowledge and acquisition of all skills. Grenfell refers to a time during L1 acquisition when we have to name the world in order to “know” it, and much of learning “how to do” involves naming, familiarizing, sequencing and operationalising.

Yule (1997) refers to Piaget’s study of children’s development, where he explored how children acquire the ability to communicate information from
another's perspective. Piaget claimed that children move away from ego-centric speech, which is not adapted to the listener's perspective, around the ages of six or seven. Vygotsky revised Piaget's theory and explained that this form of language does not disappear with the mastery of linguistic competence, but rather becomes internalized as inner speech. Grenfell (2000) discusses Vygotsky's definition of inner speech as the way in which the language based super-ego constructs and comments on the world in an effort to gain control over it.

Grenfell advances the view that language is the means through which humans create and control their realities. When humans are confronted with daily problems, our way of dealing with these problems is to establish control over them. Humans gain control by becoming familiar with the problem as it presents itself, and to proceduralise it, in order to create as much free processing space possible for dealing with new input. Accepting language as not merely a vehicle for communicating, but also as the means by which we make sense of our worlds and control it, as the means by which we define ourselves within the world; bears far-reaching consequences not only for language learning, but for all learning. Grenfell asserts that a new way of thinking about language has to implicate a new approach to language teaching and learning.

3.4.2 Learning strategies

Certain L2 learners are more successful than others are. Grenfell (2000) asks what does a successful language learner do, that an unsuccessful learner does not do, and he proposes teaching a set of action strategies to the less successful language learners. Grenfell refers to Habermas' view of the nature and process of language as having two facets: communicative action and strategic action. Communicative action aims at effective transmission of knowledge, and strategic action is goal orientated. Communicative and strategic actions function together under specific controlled conditions that cannot be generalized.
Grenfell (2000) refers to the Vygotskian perspective, which is based on a cognitive view of language learning and considers declarative and procedural knowledge as important forms of information. This perspective builds upon the theory of information processing, which declares that much of what we know (declarative knowledge) and what we know how to do (procedural knowledge) we do automatically or unattended. It is only when we are confronted with new input or a problem that we recall the procedure step-by-step. We even talk out loud to ourselves in the process of locating the source of the problem. When humans learn their first language they simultaneously gain control over themselves and their world of objects and other people. Grenfell concludes that when a second language is learned it is necessary to gain control over the L2 vocabulary and the appropriate L2 linguistic structures in which it operates (declarative knowledge), as well as gaining control over ourselves and objects and people in the L2 world (procedural knowledge).

Grenfell states that strategic action - aiming at gaining control over a new world of the TL - is achieved through referential communication and metacommunication. Yule (1997) notes that when first language learners develop from ego-centric speech to social speech, they are at a time in their lives where they are confronted with social change. In instructional settings these learners are taught referential communication. Social speech is responsive and takes the listener's action, knowledge and what's been said into account. Communicative action is achieved in a social context. Communicative effectiveness involves skills, which are determined by the communication situation. Yule (1997) identifies the nature of the listener and the nature of the communication task as variables of the situation. Metacommunicative skill is required in feedback to distinguish between the different parts of a message during communication.

Grenfell (2000) lists cognitive and metacognitive strategies which should be taught in the L2 classroom: cognitive strategies include inferencing, resourcing
(e.g. dictionary use), linguistic rule deduction, repetition or imitating language models; metacognitive strategies include planning to select attention to keywords or concepts, self-monitoring one's comprehension, and self-evaluating the outcomes of one's own language learning. Learning to learn equips language learners with necessary skills to develop their independence in language learning and language use, as well as dealing with unpredictable situations. Such general learning strategies include expanding one's ability to memorize phrases or songs or even jokes, to use dictionaries and interpret meaning within the given context, to apply or deduct language rules and remember the exceptions on the rules, and to experiment with the language under different conditions.

Grenfell (2000) observes that successful L2 learners are eager to communicate. Their attitude encourages them to interact with their environment and make the most of the little linguistic ability that they have at their disposal. They use discourse techniques to control the interaction and promote new input, which they incorporate with their existing knowledge. In order to do this, language learners often have to resort to a certain amount of pretence (of control) and guessing meaning. Successful learners attempt inner speech in the TL as to gain control over the L2 world. Communicative action is best promoted in the TL community and successful learners usually have the necessary self-confidence to integrate and socially interact with native speakers.

Grenfell proposes a six-step plan for teaching learning strategies: firstly the learners are introduced to a strategy through consciousness-raising; then the strategy is modeled by example; step three requires the learners to practice the strategy performing a classroom task; next the task is individualized in opportunities for action-planning or goal-setting and by monitoring their meta-cognitive awareness; step five is meaning-focussed practice that brings about automaticity; and the final step is evaluating the strategy and recommencing the cycle.
Grenfell notes that learning strategies are highly individualized tools. They offer some assistance to learners for acquiring autonomy in their language learning. Learners develop at their own rate and it is impossible to standardise Krashen's i+1 or in Vygotskian terms the zone of proximal development. While target tasks is accepted by the researcher as units of analyses and the central organizing principles for language learning, one has to allow for more autonomy in the language classrooms. Grenfell maintains that shared meaning and experiences in the target language, but also about the TL and language learning are necessary for increasing successful learner linguistic competence.

3.4.3 Effective teaching for effective learning

According to Seidlhofer and Widdowson (1998) effective L2 learning depends on the teaching of relevant and identifiable contexts. They maintain that this requires creative teachers who do not only have knowledge of the target language and the processes involved in SLA, but also have knowledge of their learners.

Teaching, as an accountable activity, has to be directed by a set of abstract ideas that directs to the actions. Seidlhofer and Widdowson state that there must be some kind of approach to an action. They state that language teaching theories are about the nature of language, the way it is used, and assumptions about how it is learned. Applied linguistics is a field of study that mediates between theory and practice. According to Seidlhofer and Widdowson applied linguistics develops an attitude of positive skepticism by cultivating an understanding of theory in relationship to practice. Seidlhofer and Widdowson explain that pedagogy relates to methodology and characteristics of good instructors – it determines how a teacher interacts with methodology to engage the learners in the learning process.
Seidlhofer and Widdowson (1998) insist that relevance of theory to practice can only be established "locally". They are of opinion that non-native, local teachers can determine relevance of contexts better because they have a better understanding of local conditions. Popular opinion states that native speaking teachers are better target language role models and a source of more authentic and appropriate target language input. Seidlhofer and Widdowson assert that such a statement disregards how language is made real in the L2 classroom context and how language is made meaningful to L2 learners – a different but truer reflection of authentic and appropriate TL for the L2 learner.

The functions of language in the classroom relate twofold to learning: language is both the medium and the goal of learning. Language is used to promote and develop active learning, and the goal of learning is to acquire effective and authentic language use. Concerning the function of language as the vehicle for inducing learning, Seidlhofer and Widdowson maintain that non-native teachers are able to use language more effectively to this end. Non-native teachers have been through the acquisition process themselves and they know the learners’ mother tongue and semantics, the L1 concepts as opposed to the TL concepts. Seidlhofer and Widdowson consider non-native teachers' communicative and pragmatic competence to match their pedagogic competence, and to be orientated towards effective language use in the classroom community. Seidlhofer and Widdowson define appropriate language use as apt for its purpose, and authentic language use as to imply personalizing language for the context that it is used in. They consider local L2 teachers to be better equipped to produce authentic and appropriate language. Seidlhofer and Widdowson point out that eventually, as learning and ability develop, native-speaking norms would be appropriate for the learners' purpose, but the goal of the learning process is not the starting point.

The view of language as first and foremost the medium for effective learning in the classroom, is also supported by Brown (2000), but she explains it within
Krashen's Input Theory. Brown (2000) calls for a balance between the use of the target language and the learners' mother tongue in L2 classrooms. She maintains that speaking in the target language is one of many different kinds of exchange that occur in the L2 classroom. Learners should be using the L2 together with their mother tongue during group-work or when performing a task. According to Brown the use of the mother tongue is important in forming an understanding of a language, as well as for language learning. Without disregarding the role of primary TL input, L2 theorists like Brown, as well as Breen (1987), recognize a more wholistic approach to SLA, which task-based L2 teaching incorporates.

The role of the L2 teacher to promote effective learning is valued by Brown. She explains that teachers encourage positive attitudes towards the TL and language learning by serving as positive role models for their learners. According to Brown Pedagogy cannot provide a formula for the energy that a teacher brings a subject to life with and Methodology cannot prescribe to teachers how to best utilize materials in order to reach their specific learners. Effective learning calls for creative teaching. According to Seidlhofer and Widdowson (1998), teachers who have first hand experience of the acquisition process and the non-native context in which the TL is acquired, would be able to relate better to their learners.

Teachers have to facilitate instructional tasks that are relevant to the learners' world. The instructional tasks also have to be challenging in order for development to continue. Brown (2000) suggests that the TL has to be used outside controlled situations, as to develop learners' ability to apply knowledge to new situations and to a wider range of language use. Brown refers to Dobson who suggests that apart from extending their vocabulary, the range of language and grammar has to widen, for instance the ability to manipulate tenses. According to Coyle (2000) teachers have to provide progressively more demanding tasks and new materials without losing relevance to their learners' realities. Coyle asserts that unless communicative tasks are rooted in
meaningful and purposeful contexts their potential for promoting the learner's development is lost. Coyle (2000) emphasizes that cognitively challenging learning environments are more likely to encourage learner engagement.

Effective teaching calls for informed teachers who are in touch with their learners' worlds of reference and who keep up with developments in the fields of SLA and pedagogy. Teachers have to keep their own interest in these fields alive and become involved with action research to determine the relevance of theory in local conditions.

3.4.4 Cultural studies

Mahkota (1998) maintains that incorporating cultural and cross-cultural components into a language learning programme can be highly motivating for language learning.

Mahkota defines the concept culture, traditionally viewed within sociological and anthropological contexts, as referring to a totality of knowledge, proficiency and perception, which constitute a way of life of an entire society. Mahkota proposes that describing or prescribing for language education, a single, unified culture associated with the TL, is by far too narrow a view. In modern society borders are broken down through international trade and satellite or telecommunication. Mahkota states that a different perspective of culture, which does not relate to static material phenomena, would accommodate the dynamic social phenomena of modern society. She describes that a person's world is socially constructed through views and behaviours. Mahkota argues that culture is formed through actions and attitudes, and culture is always socially constructed and relative to the specific social situation.

Grosman (1998) defines communicative competence as the ability to communicate effectively with people from the target culture, who hold culture-
specific expectations. Grosman (1998) explains that communicative competence must enable and support complex interlingual and intercultural discourse. The impact of social and cultural contexts on language use is unavoidably complex: there is an interaction of the cultures of both the native and non-native interactant. Grosman maintains that the cultivation of cross-cultural awareness, rather than cultural studies, would assist learners better when dealing with concrete, pragmatic situations. Cross-cultural awareness allows communication that desires true understanding of the intended meaning, and not merely the successful interchanging of words.

Grosman proposes that cross-cultural awareness can be practically realized through cultural exposure, and ideally learners should be brought into direct contact with the target culture. This experience could also be a positive challenge for learners to develop their linguistic ability. Grosman predicts that since learners do not leave behind their native cultural knowledge and expectations, the direct encounter with a foreign world view would most properly lead to many misunderstandings, intolerance, frustration and a loss of security. Grosman suggests that preparing learners sufficiently could help them to view these differences as an opportunity to enrich their own monocultural identity, without having to renounce it.

According to Grosman, cross-cultural awareness is not so much a set of knowledge about a culture, nor is it an uncritical acceptance or even an admiration of the culture, but cross-cultural awareness has more bearing on oneself, and it prompts learners to question their own assumptions about the observed culture and the meanings communicated during interaction. Understanding the different semantics that concepts hold within different cultures expands the learners' perspectives and develops their intuition towards meaning communicated. Grosman maintains that translation, not of vocabulary but semantics, could be a powerful tool in developing cross-cultural sensitivity. Conceptualization of time, emotions and political or worldviews are revealed
through words and their meanings. Grosman proposes that learners come to appreciate how meaning emerges through social interaction and that they should enter into a dialogical relationship with meaning potential of texts. Mahkota (1998) supports an approach that was adopted by the English department at the University of Ljubljana, which encourages topic-based, task-oriented, and cooperative learning through cultural teachings. This is achieved by integrating communicative skills, literature study, text and discourse analysis, and translation.

Mahkota suggests using the media to highlight intertextuality. Mahkota defines that intertextuality provides an interpretation of a text that does not only depend on the author's intentions, but also relies on knowledge of other texts, which the reader brings to the text. By discussing what they watched, read or listened to, learners engage in the social function of media participation. Mahkota proposes that the learners could be asked to identify the underlying differences in the semantics of the target culture and also differences within a culture (e.g. urban thought patterns and dialects as opposed to rural patterns), that are reflected by the media. Learners might recognize cultural images and symbols in the media that they study, as well as others which they have encountered, and reflect on the values and attitudes that these represent. Otherwise, Mahkota suggests that they could examine the patterns of communication, such as the levels of formality and degrees of politeness that they come across. Information and communication technology (ICT) is what modern day media has become, and apart from providing the largest variety of TL text on the internet, Hood (2000) suggests that ICT also opens possibilities of NNS-NS discourse via e-mail facilities.

Language learners have to become critically conscious of their own interculturality and personality shifts, which develop as they acquire a L2 and identify with the L2 culture. Proficiency in a language is not acquired through learning and using other people's words, and communicative competence does
not mean conforming to a culture. Grosman (1998) refers to Widdowson's description of real linguistic proficiency that comes with the ability to make a language your own and to assert yourself through it. Grosman concludes that by creating a cross-cultural awareness in L2 learners, teachers allow their students to become critical of their own views and attitudes, and the way that meaning is portrayed and perceived.

3.4.5 Language policy – where are we now and where are we going?

The South African Language Policy is one of multilingualism and aspires to provide mother tongue education to every child. In a country where there are eleven official languages, this would seem impractical.

According to Rademeyer (2001), tertiary mother tongue education is currently only offered in Afrikaans and English, but the government intends to uplift the other indigenous languages as to provide equal opportunities for all. At primary and secondary levels of teaching, a new curriculum (Curriculum 2005) has been instituted. All subjects are more integrated and orientated towards equipping young people to function effectively in the South African society. Tertiary institutions are expected to accommodate the national social transformation by providing equal opportunities for all South Africans to acquire knowledge that would empower them economically. The emphasis here is on vocationally orientated instruction.

According to Rademeyer (2001) mother tongue education is the most effective medium to transfer knowledge and culture. This implies that, although it does not seem economically viable, the lack of mother tongue education limits the majority of South African learners to achieve full potential and eventually hinders economical growth. Brumfit (2000) points out that learners also develop their initial identity and self-confidence through expressing themselves in their mother tongue. Brumfit states that language is bound to identity and language issues
often become central to debates about power and cultural autonomy. He explains that to many minority groups, language is a symbol of independence or subservience. Words could be associated with aspects of a cultural, political power or religion, and therefore represents emotional meaning. Brumfit (2000) emphasizes that a L2 can never replace a first language and should always be an extension of learners' L1 and their L1 identity.

Brumfit asserts that a language policy must at the same time be just to all learners, as well as accept the needs of typical learners. Language is central to the processes of learning and offers access to resources for learning. Brumfit states that learners have to understand what it means to live in a multilingual world and that multilingualism assists effective learning. A language policy cannot afford to be complacent about the need to learn other languages. Brumfit concludes that a policy for language is needed, not for languages.

English is the dominant language in the world today, and Brumfit proposes that other languages should accept and relate to the competencies that are required in English. Brumfit refers to researchers in psychological perspectives of language acquisition who maintain that learners continually develop a linguistic repertoire through social interaction, irrespective of the language. Brumfit describes the three main roles of language as follows: the first is the pragmatic function of transferring information; secondly, language has a learning and conceptualizing function; and thirdly it has an archive function through which humans understand and relate to the past. In one speech community it is possible for more than one language to co-exist whilst fulfilling different roles. Communication implies different skills, whether verbal, written, listening or computer literacy skills. Brumfit observes that society often demands specific skills in specific languages.

Nieuwoudt (2001) describes the current state of multilingualism in South Africa. She explains that in most instances English is still used as the anchor language
and that there exists skepticism about the ability of African languages to function within sophisticated contexts. According to Nieuwoudt (2001) a Language Plan Task Group suggested that the eleven official language and multilingualism should be viewed from a functional perspective. Nieuwoudt states that the language situation in South Africa has to be constantly evaluated in order to monitor the developments of any language to a level of official functioning as to incorporate such a language for usage. Grobler (2001) refers to Dr. Ngubane, Minister of Art, Culture, Science and Technology, and Pansat’s decision that ministers and government officials have to use at least two languages at all times.

According to Brumfit language policy should not exclude any language or cultural groups, but should not limit anyone’s ability to obtain information or education. A language policy should be pro-information transfer and should serve a society and its people.

### 3.4.5 Vocational language teaching

Vocationally orientated language learning has become imperative in modern society. Certain fields require proficiency in a language, whether it is to serve a certain language community, or to pursue an education or training, or whether it is to interact with colleagues. Multilingualism is required for specific purposes.

According to Thorogood (2000) vocational language teaching focuses on specific communication contents and therefore tends to limit the scope of the interaction. Thorogood explains that while national vocational qualification programmes address circumscribed vocational needs, they do not give sufficient linguistic grounding for language learning. He refers to statistics of language content that show only 20% of vocational communication is “technical” or domain specific, where foreign language training for work purposes regularly includes language
intended for social interaction. At many levels social interaction forms an important part of transacting of business.

Thorogood (2000) notes that existing vocational orientated programmes are based on situations that cover occupational eventualities. He argues that the range and scope of tasks may be so vast and unpredictable that it does not seem to prepare learners for real communication. Within task-based teaching tasks are seen as an instrument for language learning and not as the object of learning. The objectives of task-based language learning for specific purposes depend on the specific context of learning, but have remained general in terms of communication skills.

The target tasks are selected from real world tasks that the learner would eventually undertake. This guarantees relevance and authenticity. The essential language is related to the target tasks and essential structures for carrying out the task should be listed as priority. Wieden (1998) explains that although categories of vocabulary or domain specific words are recognized for vocational teaching programmes, these are mostly already acquired along with training and are often trade specific rather than language specific. Wieden observes that some concepts are not represented with a specific term in the TL and foreign borrowings form a multilingual domain specific vocabulary. Wieden explains that language for specific purposes depends on domain-specific knowledge. The acquisition of this domain-specific knowledge and language is often one process. There is a matter of expertise involved that has to be made explicit. Vocational language is pertinent to a subculture that holds its own norms and conventions and requires a socially constructed pragmatic ability, which presupposes domain-specific knowledge.

Wieden distinguishes between conceptual learning, representational learning, and implementational learning of declarative knowledge. He explains that after a conceptual system and representations for the units within the system are
established, implementational learning takes place mainly during acts of language for specific purpose communication. According to Wieden (1998) declarative knowledge is more easily communicated through discourse than behaviour or procedural knowledge. Task difficulty increases when instructions have to direct behaviour. A further kind of knowledge that is important for vocational orientated language learning, is metaknowledge. Vocational language teaching should convey knowledge of how to learn or how to obtain resources that would sustain the learning process. Vocational languages are dynamic and require continued learning.

Henry and Roseberry (1998) described a genre-based approach to teaching languages for specific purposes. They define a genre as a text, either spoken or written, that serves a specific purpose. They analyse the segments of the text, called moves, according to the communicative purpose of the genre. Henry and Roseberry explain that certain moves are obligatory, while others are optional and only contribute to the effectiveness of the communication. The aim of genre-based teaching is to raise learners' awareness of the organization and linguistic features that are associated with the genre. Henry and Roseberry present evidence that awareness of the information structure allows learners to concentrate on combining information in a more highly textured manner.

Resources for determining the content of a vocationally orientated language programme vary according to how accessible the vocational field is. A needs analysis at an establishment or spot-check, is the programme-designer or researcher's primary resource and the most reliable. According to Djuric (1998) the needs analysis reflects which skills are required. Interviews or questionnaires are used to collect material from native speakers in the field. Target tasks are resources for determining appropriate vocabulary and language structures. If any other research has been done in the field it could provide materials. Kukovec (1998) proposes that textbooks used for training and specialized magazines are valuable resources for highly technical
communication. Subject specific articles in magazines or on the Internet keep up to date with developments in the field. Multimedia technology, no matter how relevant, can still not replace the resource potential of professional expertise for first hand expert opinion in the field of the specific vocational community.

Assessment is important not only to determine whether learning was successful, but also to assess the language teaching programme and to make changes where necessary to ensure effective teaching. Thorogood (2000) proposes that continuous modes of assessment have major benefits for both functions. It provides a more accurate reflection of learning and is more sensitive to specific needs. Thorogood emphasizes that where learners receive acknowledgement of some kind, whether a diploma or certificate, it is imperative that the objectives of the programme and the expected outcomes are well defined. The learners, and where applicable the employers as well, have to be involved in determining the goals and outcomes of the educational process. According to Coyle (2000) learners must be made aware of their self-responsibility and self-development for continuous learning.

3.5 CONCLUSION

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991) the goal of second language teaching is to help L2 learners to move along the interlanguage continuum at a faster rate than what natural acquisition would allow, and to promote the attainment of target-like competence. Within the discussion above it becomes clear that L2 instruction is not as much teaching as facilitating effective learning.

Task-based language teaching is an approach that rests on a firm theoretical foundation and its principles incorporate what is currently known about the underlying processes of second language learning, findings of classroom research, and principles for course design for teaching language for specific purposes. Task-based language teaching upholds the principles of an analytic
syllabus, which is learning-centered and as such views learning as non-linear and presents language in larger units. Focus on form is recognized as a catalyst for learning, but learning is organized around communicative tasks where meaning is primary.

The principles and properties of communication tasks, structure-based communication tasks and referential tasks were discussed and illustrated by examples of tasks. Tasks in the pedagogic context were motivated and proposals for implementation were described in terms of effective teaching. Teachers have to know their learners and be creative in order to present language in relevant and stimulating contexts. Target tasks provide such contexts, but need to be selected, modified, and graded as to constitute comprehensible input. Task conditions that motivate negotiation of meaning and negotiation of task outcomes were identified as criteria for task development.

A new approach to second language teaching and learning is inspired by a new view of language and its role in the world today. Multilingualism is a skill that opens up career opportunities and permits self-development. Cross-cultural awareness promotes a critical analysis of communication and human interaction. Learning is by necessity a life-long function, and language learning is a skill required for all learning. Learners are able to take responsibility for their own learning and development by applying metaknowledge and learning strategies.

Current literature on vocationally orientated language teaching provides guidelines for research in task-design for beginner’s isiXhosa in the field of local governmental workers. Principles for task-design, resource development and assessment were discussed. Problems with task-based vocational language teaching are mainly concerned with task selection and grading. In the past vocationally orientated language teaching did not provide a sound linguistic foundation for authentic language use. According to Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) the theoretical rationale that supports task-based second language
learning and teaching holds that interaction best promotes learning. Coyle (2000) asserts that interaction is about relevance and immediacy. Within a task-based syllabus vocational communication tasks do not limit the scope of the TL, but ensure relevance and functions as instruments for effective language learning.
CHAPTER FOUR

A TASK DESIGN FOR TEACHING BEGINNERS’ ISIXHOSA AT LOCAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter a framework for task-based course design is explored for isiXhosa second language learning for specific purposes for the context of local government workers. A series of target tasks is identified for task-based vocational language teaching. The vocational context for isiXhosa second language learning is the municipality. A study conducted at the Overstrand Municipality in the Western Cape is described as basis for identifying the scope and range of the task-design.

The target tasks are analyzed according to the task typology, as described by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993), and Yule’s (1997) principles of referential communication. The generic structures and underlying lexical phrases, which are considered to be task essential for obligatory genre moves are shown. The purpose of such an analysis is to provide a basis for developing learning tasks, which focus on form, and to possibly illustrate tentative task complexity.

The chapter aims at providing a task design for teaching isiXhosa second language and to motivate self-responsible isiXhosa second language learning by local government workers.
4.2 THE SCOPE AND RANGE OF THE TASK-DESIGN

4.2.1 The learner population

Local government workers are all municipal workers. Municipalities consist of different departments that deliver public services. These local departments represent the provincial and national government departments and include the departments of finance, health, protection, engineering, law enforcement, housing and human resources. The traffic department, fire brigade, clinics and town’s libraries, also form part of the municipality. Within each department there are different ranks, which ranges from a head of department to the worker at the lowest level. There are also administrative personnel who do not deliver a public service, but work exclusively with personnel issues, like salaries and training, and the general running of the municipality.

The study at Overstrand Municipality in the Western Cape has shown that the greatest need for isiXhosa second language learning is amongst the municipal workers who work either with the general public or who are managers of divisions with Xhosa-speaking workers with a low level of literacy, or who have no formal education. At the moment the Xhosa speaking population in the Western Cape in general, and specifically in Overstrand Municipal area, is growing. According to a report from the Interim Assistant Municipal Manager of Communication for Overstrand Municipality, dating back to March 2001, the Xhosa-speaking voters in the area constitute 24 percent of the total number of voters and are still a young population. The assumption is made that isiXhosa will increase in importance as a regional language. At the moment the use of interpretation and translation services is a necessary and an essential solution for the growing communication needs in this municipal area.

The Communication Policy and Strategy Framework for the Overstrand Municipality, which was released in February 2001 underlines only one of the
communication needs in local governments, namely communication with the local community whom they represent. The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act 32 of 2000) places a duty on a municipal council to consult the local community about services delivery. The Overstrand Communication Framework acknowledges the Constitution’s objective to recognize communication and participation with local communities and to provide democratic and accountable government.

Local government can facilitate participation by ensuring effective communication. The Overstrand Municipality Communication Strategy concludes that open channels of communication, both internal and external, are the key to meaningful participation. It seems therefore that for reasons of effective service provision and meaningful participation, both in the local government departments and with the public, all non-native municipal workers would benefit from beginners’ isiXhosa task-based teaching for specific purposes.

4.2.2 The vocational context for language learning for specific purposes

To specify the scope of the task design for task-based second language teaching is problematic. The pedagogic tasks have to equip the learner with the communication skills needed for real world activities. Second language teaching for specific purposes prepares the learners for the occupational eventualities. As Thorogood (2000) explains, the range and scope of tasks to accomplish this may be so vast and unpredictable and the broader range of work-based communication regularly includes language intended for social interaction.

Local government departments, or municipalities, include a large variety of professions and specialists in distinct fields. The domain-specific words vary not only from one department to another, but from internal language to external language. Although some departments, and specific professions within those
departments, communicate more with the public than others; the study at Overstrand Municipality has shown that all the departments, and almost all municipal workers, communicate externally to a certain extent. More significantly, the Overstrand Municipality study has revealed that internal communication amongst different departments are a general occurrence.

In order to learn domain-specific language, the local government worker needs domain-specific knowledge. Acquiring the knowledge and the language is often in reality one process. In the municipality, as in many vocational settings, many concepts are not represented with a specific term for every language; but a single label is used in to refer to a tool or a process, a person or a place. Using isiXhosa in the vocational settings of local governments would typically import foreign borrowings to form a multi-lingual vocabulary. As predicted by Thorogood (2000), in such a dynamic field as the local government's, new knowledge would also require concepts being extended or newly created.

What seems essential is that the areas of communication that are shared by all the domains of the local government departments, and the communicative skills that constitute communicative competence for a municipal worker to communicate with colleagues, junior or senior workers, and the public, and the learning strategies to continuously develop one's ability, should be covered by the task design.

**4.3 TARGET TASKS FOR TASK-BASED VOCATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**4.3.1 Identifying real world tasks of municipal workers**

The aim of the study was to determine target tasks for a task-based beginners' isiXhosa course for the specific purposes of local government workers.
Seventy-two municipal workers, representing all the different departments and ranks within the departments, were assigned quasi-randomly by a personnel officer from the Human Resource department of Overstrand Municipality. Each participant was given a questionnaire pertaining to internal and external communication contents. The questionnaire aimed at establishing the content of what was being said and to whom it was being said. Participants had to indicate to what extent interaction with, or about other municipal departments occurred on a regular basis, both internally with other municipal workers, and externally with the general public. Stretches of conversations, as well as expressions that they regularly use at work were recorded. Participants completed the questionnaire in writing or orally, which was recorded on cassette in some cases, along with discussions about their answers.

The questionnaires and recordings were analyzed to differentiate common areas and specialized areas of communication contents. It became apparent that there is frequent interaction between all the departments of the Overstrand Municipality. Especially maintenance problems that required the services of the engineering departments, problems with salaries and leave, and issues regarding training and promotion, were areas of internal communication that occurred in every department and at every level of employment. The contents of general language functions, like apologizing and sympathizing or giving directions; and notions of time and money; and contents of language acts, like completing forms and work orders or writing reports compared well for all the different departments. External communication contents related to providing services and included many of the contents identified for internal communication, as well as contents for making excuses, hearing excuses, describing municipality policies and explaining procedures.

After general contents of communication and essential interactional skills for communicative competence were identified from the questionnaires and interviews for real world tasks, ten target tasks were described. These target
tasks represented the real world tasks of specific municipal workers for internal and external communication. In some cases the tasks were very specific for a profession, and in other cases the tasks were relevant to many different professions in the municipality. In all cases these tasks represent communication contents and skills pertinent for all the departments of Overstrand Municipality. Even if the specific task does not represent a municipal worker's vocational eventualities, then he or she will be able to relate to the task and should therefore be motivated to participate.

4.3.2 Target tasks analysis

4.3.2.1 Task typology analysis

The target tasks that were selected from real world tasks of municipal workers are now discussed according to considerations relating to task type and the requirements for communication tasks as described by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993). The interactant relationship, interaction expectations, goal orientation, and outcome options are discussed. The potential of some of the tasks to elicit referential communication are noted, as well as the participants' roles as described by Yule (1997).

Each task is first formulated in the target language, isiXhosa, with the English translation directly afterwards. The task typology analysis follows the task description, and is aimed at demonstrating the potential of each task to bring about negotiation of meaning and task outcomes as to promote isiXhosa second language acquisition.

TASK ONE

Ilungu lasekuhlaleni litsalela umnxeba umasipala licele ukuthetha nomntu ophethe icandelo, uMnumzana Burger. UMnumzana Burger uzazisa ngokwakhe

(A member of public phones the municipal electric services and asks to speak to the head of the department, Mr Burger. Mr Burger introduces himself and offers assistance. The person inquires about the nature of the power failure and when the power can be expected to be switched back on. Mr Burger explains the nature of the problem informs the person that there is a technitian who is fixing the problem. The person complains that she is busy cooking and cannot continue without electricity. Mr Burger gives an estimated time that the reparation would take. The member of public then reports a broken streetlight at her house. Mr Burger inquires about the exact position of the streetlight. The person asks when the light will be fixed. Mr Burger explains the municipality’s streetlight programme and informs the person that it could be a while. The person complains about the delay. Mr Burger apologizes but explains that the person has to be patient. They greet.)

The first part of this task is a typical information gap task, with municipal worker holding the information and the member of public asking for information about the power failure. The goal orientation is divergent for the member of public expects immediate restoration of the electricity or a satisfactory explanation for a delay;
while the municipal worker expects appreciation for the circumstances and patience from the member of public. The only acceptable outcome is the member of public's satisfactory understanding of the problem and its expected duration. The second part of the task is a typical jigsaw task, with both interactants holding information needed to complete the task. The member of public has information about the location of the broken streetlight and the municipal worker has information about the procedure of streetlight maintenance. The goal orientation is convergent in the sense that the municipal worker and the member of public want to be satisfied that the report is properly submitted and would be attended to. When the member of public is giving directions and identifies the position of the broken streetlight, the task could be elaborated with more detailed instructions or even tracing a route, where the information follower has to create specific referents or landmarks in town.

**TASK TWO**

(A member of public phones a clerk at inquiries and requests information regarding the municipal holiday resorts. The clerk describes the two resorts under their jurisdiction. The person decides to book accommodation at Onrus Holiday Resort for a weekend. The clerk regrettably informs the person that there is no accommodation available on the weekend in question. The person decides on another date. The clerk then describes the cottages, which sleep four people. The person seeks accommodation for six people. They discuss the costs involved and confirm the booking. The person inquires about sights in the area and the clerk describes three tourist attractions. The person asks for the way to Onrus Holiday Resort and the clerk gives her directions. The clerk wants to send an application form and the person gives her fax number. They greet.)

This is a jigsaw task, with both interactants having access to information needed for successful completion of the task. Interaction is required to share the information in order to make decisions. The member of public has information about the preference and needs of the group that the booking is made for. She also has a contact number (fax number). The municipal clerk has access to information about the facilities available, as well as to instructions on how to get there. Both interactants have to manipulate the information they hold by making requests, asking for clarifications and explanations, and supplying information in order to achieve a convergent goal: to hire a cottage for six people for a weekend that ends on the Sunday afternoon. There could be more than one possible outcome, but the interactants have to agree on the best option. The part of the task where the municipal worker is the instructor and the member of public the instructee for directions to the municipal holiday resort could be devised as to elicit more explicit referential communication.

**TASK THREE**

Ilungu lasekuhlaleni lingena kwicandelo lezithuthi kwaye lifuna ukwenza isigqibo sokudibana ukuba libhale iphepha-mvume lakhe lokufunda ukuqhuba.

(A member of public enters the traffic department and wants to make an appointment to write her learner-drivers license. Mr Gerber asks her if she has her identification document (ID) and money with her, and she confirms that she has. Mr Gerber gives her a form to complete and conducts the eye-test with the person. They book an appointment for the writing of the learner-license test and Mr Gerber explains to the person what she will need to bring to the appointment. Mr Gerber writes the details of the appointment on the person’s receipt, he then gives her the receipt and asks for the money.)

This is an information gap task where one participant requests information and the other supplies the information. The goal orientation is convergent: to make an appointment for the client to write a learner-license examination. In the first part of the task the municipal worker requires information about the kind of license and personal details from the member of public. In the second part of the task the municipal worker is requesting information from the client about the position of the check block. The municipal worker has access to the correct answers and has to evaluate the client’s responses. In the last part of the task part of the task the municipal worker has access to different outcome possibilities: possible dates and times for the appointment. The municipal worker provides information and requests information from the client, but the client is only required to provide information.
TASK FOUR


(A client enters the town’s library and requests assistance in finding information about AIDS. The librarian introduces herself and offers assistance. She shows the client the available information in the non-fiction department, an exhibition on AIDS, and the reference books. The librarian shows the client how to use the encyclopaedia in the reference department, but they are unable to find any information on AIDS. The client wants to borrow books from the library, but she is not yet a member. The librarian explains the procedure that she has to follow to become a member and the card that has to be completed. The client takes the card and completes it. The client wants to make photocopies of some pages. The librarian tells her the costs and assists the client in making copies. The client pays for the copies and thanks the librarian for the help. They greet.)

This is an information gap task where the client requests information and the librarian has access to the information. The librarian supplies the information in order to reach the first task goal, which is collecting information on the topic.
AIDS. Working with books in the library, especially when they are sources of reference for an assignment, would require interpreting tabulated information, such as title and author. Although this communication activity is not explored here, the task does lend itself to it. Once the wanted information is acquired, the second and third task goals require the librarian to explain the procedure and the client to supply information as to complete the application card for membership, and to indicate the pages for photocopying. This part of the communication task fulfills the criteria of a jigsaw task, where both participants hold parts of the information needed to achieve the task outcomes: applying for membership and photocopying information. Interaction is necessary and the goal orientation is convergent. The task outcomes are specified and cooperative work is essential.

**TASK FIVE**

ukuba abhale phantsi inombolo yesitshixo esilungileyo ukwenzela ukukhangelwa kwixesha elizayo. Unkosikazi Swart ubulela uLouis ngoncedo lwakhe.

(Mrs Swart, a municipal worker, phones Mr Magerman, a superintendent at civil engineering services, and explains that she has lost her desk keys. Mr Magerman agrees to help Mrs Swart. He phones Louis, a member of the building team, who is the carpenter, and explains to him the problem. Louis asks where the lock is and Mr Magerman gives him directions to Mrs Swart’s office. Louis asks whether a work order has been issued and Mr Magerman confirms that it has been done. Mr Magerman lists the equipment that Louis will need to take along. In Mrs Swart’s office Louis and Mrs Swart greet each other. Mrs Swart thanks Louis for his quick response. Louis asks for the position of the lock and Mrs Swart points to the desk in question. Louis tries out his set of keys and finds a key that fits. He reports back to Mr Magerman. Mr Magerman orders Louis to go to the key cutters, to replace the key and to hand in the invoice. He advises Mrs Swart to write down the number of the correct key for future reference. Mrs Swart thanks Louis for his help.)

This is a jigsaw task where every participant holds part of the information needed to achieve the task goal: to replace the lost desk key. Mrs Swart has access to information about the position of the lock, Mr Magerman has access to information about the position of Mrs Swart’s office and the equipment needed for the job, and Louis has to report back to Mr Magerman about which key fits. Interaction is necessary to negotiate meaning and task outcomes. The task has potential to elicit referential communication both in identifying, describing and naming the tools and keys, as well as in directing the carpenter to the office and the desk. More explicit referential communication would be needed when referents and distractors are introduced.

(The chairman opens the disciplinary hearing by welcoming and introducing the attendants, as well as stating the purpose of the hearing. She asks the accused whether she has received adequate notice to prepare and if she is aware of her right to a representative. The accused replies affirmative. The complainant reads the charge sheet, which charges the accused with deserting her workplace without permission. The accused pleads not guilty and explains her case. The chairman inquires whether there are any extenuating circumstances and the accused replies. The chairman passes judgement and reminds the accused that she has the right to appeal. The accused expresses her satisfaction with the verdict. The chairman thanks the participants and the hearing is adjourned.)

This is a jigsaw task and all the participants have information to contribute in order to complete the task. The authentic task is executed according to a prescribed format for disciplinary hearings in the municipality. As a pedagogic task referential communication would be necessary to negotiate meaning. For instance, the complainant might be required to explain the charge and to negotiate meaning, instead of just reading the charge sheet. This
communication task is also ideal as a decision-making activity with a variety of outcomes and all the participants could interact to agree on the best outcome: a fair verdict and an appropriate sentence for the accused.

**TASK SEVEN**


(A municipal worker visits the treasury department and requests sick leave. The salary clerk looks into the worker’s file and establishes that he has no sick leave available. She explains to the worker the allocation of sick leave that he is entitled to, but which he has already exhausted. The worker insists on seeing a doctor. The salary clerk refers him to his supervisor for permission to see a doctor. She explains that even if the doctor were to book him off work, he would have to take unpaid leave or use his normal holiday leave. The worker informs the clerk of a death in his family and requests leave to attend the funeral. The clerk sympathizes with the worker and explains the requirements for qualifying
for special leave. The clerk hands the worker a leave requests form for completion and explains it briefly. She emphasizes that the supervisor has to approve the leave and sends the worker to him.

This is an information gap task where the municipal worker requests information and the salary clerk supplies the information. The information flow is not one way, because the worker has access to information, which describes his circumstances and reasons for requesting leave. The goal of the task is to determine the nature of the worker's leave in order for him to follow procedure and to complete the leave request form. Each participant has access to essential information for achieving the goal, but it is not necessary for the worker to disclose his information, because the goal orientation is divergent for the participants. The task outcome is the worker's comprehension, which would be reflected in the eventual completion of the leave request form. Negotiation of meaning is essential for the task outcome to be reached.

**TASK EIGHT**


(A member of public phones the municipality to inquire about an exceptionally high water account that she has received. The municipal worker, a clerk at debtor inquiries, asks if the client checks her water reading regularly, but the client replies that her account is paid monthly by a debit order. The clerk inquires after any unusual circumstances at the client’s house that could lead to an increase in water consumption. The client denies that anything out of the ordinary has happened. The clerk refers the client to her water meter and explains how to look for a leakage. The client agrees to investigate and to phone afterwards. She asks the clerk’s name for reference. The client phones back and informs the clerk of a leakage in her water system. The clerk warns the client that the problem is her responsibility and advises her to acquire the help of a plumber immediately. The client complains about the high account that she is unable to pay. The clerk recommends that she pays what she usually does and that she must write a letter to explain her problem.)

This is a jigsaw task where both participants request and supply information. The clerk holds information about the possible reasons for the high water account, about the procedure to follow to check for a water leakage, and about solutions for the problems with the plumbing and the high account that has to be paid. The client holds information about the circumstances in her household and she has access to the water meter. The goal orientation is convergent and both participants want to settle the water account. The task outcomes include finding the reason for the high water consumption and to fix the problem. Interaction is essential and negotiation of meaning is complicated by the medium of communication. Directions and descriptions are done on the phone and non-
verbal forms of communication, like facial expressions or physical illustrations, are excluded.

**TASK NINE**


(A worker in the civil engineering department wants to further his education in order to qualify as a plumber. He requests assistance from the personnel officer at the human resources department. The personnel officer asks his current level of education and his experience in the field. They determine that he needs to upgrade his basic literacy level in order to do a course in plumbing as well as to cope with the responsibilities of the plumbing post. He will start with the literacy course once a week during work time and receive practical on the job training. The personnel officer inquires whether the worker understands the process of developing his career and whether he sees his way open to doing it. The worker confirms that he does. Another meeting is scheduled to consolidate with his seniors.)
This is a jigsaw task and both participants hold information that has to be shared in order to complete the task. The worker requests information about education and career opportunities, while he supplies information about his current level of education and work experience. The personnel officer requests information about the worker's abilities and needs, while she supplies information about the process of furthering the workers' education and career. Negotiation of meaning is complicated by the domain specific language, which each of the participants have access to. The goal orientation is also divergent, because the worker aims at starting a process that will allow him to become a plumber, where as the personnel officer's goal is to establish what this process exactly entails. The task outcome is specific and only a viable plan for the worker to become a plumber is acceptable. This activity could also be used for interpreting tabulated information and making decisions by means of the employee's personal file. This would satisfy the criteria of an information gap task.

**TASK TEN**

(A member of public requests housing at the housing a community development department. A housing officer, Mr Williams, assists him. He explains to the client the current situation and that there is no housing available, but that a waiting list form has to be completed. The housing officer describes the process of ranking and selection of candidates for housing. He advises the client to complete the form right away and warns him that others could get in on the list before him if he waits. The housing officer explains that the form is available in the three official languages of the province and assures the client that there is someone available to help him complete the form in any of the languages. The client explains his current living arrangement and that he is desperate for new accommodation. The housing officer explains the options available and how to go about acquiring permission for erecting a temporary structure.)

This is an information gap task. The member of public requests information, while the housing officer supplies information. The goal orientation in convergent and both the participants aim at identifying a plan of action for the client to obtain housing. The task outcomes are the client's understanding of the process of obtaining housing, the intermediate options and the housing waiting list form. As it is the task does not require any immediate decision-making or actions, but these are possible outcomes that could be built into the task. Negotiation of meaning is important because of the sensitive nature of the task topic. The client approaches the communication event with expectations of immediate results and has to understand the long-term nature of the national housing project.

4.3.2.2 Move-structure analysis

The move-structure for each of the target tasks is analyzed according to obligatory and optional moves for the given genre. Each genre-type represents one or more communicative purpose and employs general conversational moves to realize those purposes. The analysis is based on authentic dialogues that illustrate the tasks described under section 3.2.1. The dialogues are recorded for
reference with the numbers of the moves as they are analyzed. It should be noted that this is not a complete list of all the conversational moves that occur in the recorded dialogues, but that only those moves which are required for the successful completion of the tasks, or which contribute to the effectiveness of the communication, are represented.

TASK ONE

Dialogue One

Ilungu lasehlaleni (L)
UMnumzana Burger (B)

B: Inkonzo zombane eOverstrand
(Overstrand Electrical Services)

L: (4)Molo, (1) [ndingathetha noMnumzana Burger?]
(Good morning, may I speak to Mr Burger?)

B: (4)Molo Nkosikazi, (2) [nguMnumzana Burger othethayo.] (5) [Ndingakunceda ngantoni?] (Morning Madam, this is Mr Burger speaking. How can I help you?)

L: (3) [Ndingathanda ukwazi ukuba yintoni ingxaki nombane.] (6) [Kutheni umbane ucimile?] (I would like to know what the problem is with the electricity. Why is the power off?)

B: Nenekazi, (7) [sinengxaki neengcingo zombane] ezilele phantsi emhlabeni (10) [ngenxa yemimoya emikhulu] ebekhe sanayo. (11) [Sixakekile sijonga yona – enye yenjineli seyilapho ukuyokujonga ukuba eyona ngxaki yintoni.] (13) [Sakuyilungisa ngokukhawuleza nangokungxama.]
(Lady we have a problem with electrical lines which are lying on the ground because of the strong winds we have had. We are busy to see to it – one of our technicians is already there to see what the exact problem is. We will repair it as quickly as we possibly can.)

L: (12) [Ndixakekile ndiyapheka.] (8) [Uya kubuya nini umbane?]
(I am busy cooking. When will the power come back on?)

B: Nkosikazi kunzima ukutsho: (9) [ungathatha isiqingatha seyure okanye iyure.] Sisebenza ukutsho, malunga neeyure ezimbini, kodwa kunzima ukubuyisela umbane kwangoku. Kukho umsebenzi okufuneka wenzige kwaye kufuneka uguqitywe kuqala phambi kokuba sibuyisele umbane.
(Madam that is difficult to say: it could take a half an hour or an hour. We work on say, about two hours, but it is impossible to put the electricity back on right away. There is work to be done and it has to be finished first before we can restore the power.)

L: (14) [Ndyaqonda Mnumzana,] (15) [enkosi.] (16) [Ndifuna ukwazisa malunga nesibane sasendleleni ngaphandle kwendlu yam, esingasebenziyo] (20) [kwezintsu zimbini ziqithileyo.] (22) [Ndingakubuza ukuba uza kuza nini ukuza kusilungisa?]
(I understand Sir, thank you. I also want to inform you about a streetlight outside my house, which has not been working for the last two days. May I ask when are you coming to repair it?)

B: Nkosikazi, (17) [unganceda undinike idilesi ethe ngqo kunye nendawo yesibane.] (Madam, if you can please just give me the exact address and position of the streetlight.)
L: (18) [Isibane sisesitalatweni sesixhenxe kwisangqa sezithuthi.] (21) [Ndihlala kwanombolo weshumi elinesithandathu kwisitalato wesixhenxe kwaye esi sibane sophukileyo siphambi kwendlu yam.]
(The streetlight is in Seventh Street at the traffic circle. I live in number sixteen Seventh Street and the broken streetlight is in front of my house.)

B: Nkosikazi, (19) [ewe, singeza sizokusijonga], kodwa (23) [sinenkqubo yesibane zasendleleni ethe yayohlula idolophu yayimimandla emine. Into eza kwenzeka ngoku siza kwenza i-odolo yomsebenzi yokulungisa eso sibane sasendleleni. Emva koko iya kuthi ifakelwe ngexesha elilodwa elabelwe lo mmandla.] Ngendlela yokuba (24) [ingakule veki izayo.] Ndiza kukhe ndijonge ukuba ingeniso yenkqubo, kodwa ndicinga ukuba uhlala eVoëlklip uwela kwiveki yesine enyangeni, kwaye kuya (25) [kufuneka ube nomonde kuba ingathatha ixesa.] (Madam, yes we can come and have a look at it, but we have a streetlight programme according to which the town has been divided into four areas. What will happen now is that we will make out a work order for repairing that streetlight. Then it will have to be fitted within the specific time allocated for that area. So, that can be next week. I will just have a look at how the programme proceeds, but I think that if you stay in Voëlklip you fall into the fourth week of the month, and you will just have to be patient because it could take a while.)

L: (26) [Kodwa Mnumzana Burger, kwesi sithuba kumnyama tshu ngaphandle kwendlu yam, kwaye ndihlala ndedwa!]
(But Mr Burger in the mean time it is pitch dark outside my house, and I live alone!)

B: (27) [Ndiyaxolisa kakhulu ngaloo nto Nkosikazi,] kodwa njengokuba bendikuchazele malunga nenkqubo akukho nto endinokuyenza malunga nayo. (I am very sorry about that Madam, but as I have explained we work according to a programme and there is nothing that I can do about it.)
L: (28) [Kulungile Mnumzana Burger.] (29) [uhlale kakuhle.]
(Arright Mr Burger, good bye.)

B: (29) [Ube nemini emnandi nawe Nkosikazi.]
(Good day to you Madam.)

Communication Purpose One: *Establishing a telephone conversation between the head of the department (B) and a member of public (L).*

Obligatory Moves:
(1) asking for person B
(2) identification of speaker(s)
(3) identifying the purpose of the call

Optional Moves:
(4) greeting
(5) offering assistance

Communication Purpose Two: *Inquiry about a problem*

Obligatory Moves:
(6) requesting reason for problem
(7) stating problem
(8) inquiring about duration of problem
(9) stating time approximation

Optional Moves:
(10) describing nature of the problem or describing the reason for the problem
(11) explaining procedure for rectifying problem
(12) complaining about the consequences of the problem to establish urgency
(13) making excuses for delay or reassuring that repair is in progress
(14) indicating comprehension
(15) stating appreciation

Communication Purpose Three: Reporting a problem

Obligatory Moves:
(16) reporting problem
(17) asking the exact location of the problem
(18) identifying location of the problem
(19) agreeing to attend to the problem

Optional Moves:
(20) describing exact nature of problem
(21) instructions for how to get there
(22) requesting exact time of repair
(23) explaining procedure for repair
(24) stating approximated time for repair
(25) requesting patience
(26) complaining about inconvenience caused and establishing urgency of problem
(27) sympathizing or apologizing for inconvenience caused
(28) acceptance of apology
(29) greeting
TASK TWO

Dialogue Two
Ilungu lasehlaleni (L)
Unobhala kwimibuzo (B)

B: (16) [Molo.] (17) [sisigqubo sabachithi holide saseOnrus.] (17) [Singakunceda ngantoni?] (Good morning, Onrus Holiday Resort. How can we help you?)

L: (16) [Molo Mnumzana.] (1) [ndingathanda ukubuza malunga nendawo yokuhlala kwesinye sesigqubo sakho.] (Good morning Sir, I would like to inquire about accommodation at one of your resorts.)

B: Nenekazi, (17) [singumasipala wezigqubo.] kwaye (2) [ngokubanzi kukho iipaki ezimbini. Enye sisigqubo sabachithi holide kumlambo iOnrus enye sisigqubo seholide saseHawston.] (19) [IONrus imi ecaleni kolwankle, inemithi emininzi] kwaye (20) [ingumzekelo ogqibeleleyo kubathandi bendalo.] kodwa (19) [ayiboneleli ngancedo olungaphezulu kumntu owonwabela ukudlala iputt-putt ngomzekelo.] (Lady, we are the municipal resorts, and there are basically two parks. The one is the Onrus River Holiday Resort and the other one is the Hawston Holiday Resort. Onrus is located next to the sea, abounding in trees and is ideal for nature-lovers; but it does not provide any extra facilities for someone who enjoys playing putt-putt for instance.)

L: (21) [Ndiyabona.] (I see.)
B: (19) [Xa sijonga iHawston kwelinye icala, nayo isecaleni kolwandle, ixhotyiswe ngechibi elingangeOlympic ubukhulu.] (20) [Kukho amancedo angakumbi awabantwana.]
(When we look at Hawston on the other hand, which is also next to the sea, it is equipped with an Olympic size pool. There are facilities especially for the children.)

L: (3) [Kulungile Mnumzana, kumameleka kum ngathi iOnrus yiyo endiyifunayo.] (22) [Asinabantwana kwaye thina asifuni olo hlobo lolonwabo.] (3) [Ukuba bendifuna ukuqesha indawo, bendiza kuba nomdla kwindlwana.] (22) [kuba asinayo ikharaveni kwaye asifuni kuhlala enkampeni.] (4) [Ikhona indawo efumanekayo kwimpelaveki ye-24 kuSeptembha?]
(Very well Sir, it sounds to me like Onrus is what I am looking for. We don't have any children and are not looking for that kind of entertainment. If I was to rent a place, I will be interested in a cottage, because we don't have a caravan and we don't want to camp. Is there any places available for the weekend of the 24th of September?)

B: (23) [Ndiyaxolisa, Nenekazi.] (5) [Sizele ukusuka kwi-24 ukuya kwi-28 ka Septembha] – kukho umbhiyozo apha edolophini ngaloo mpelaveki.
(I am sorry, Lady. We are fully booked from the 24th to the 28th of September – there is a festival on here in town on that weekend.)

L: (6) [Kunye nempelaveki yokuqala emva koka?] (And the first weekend after that?)

B: (7) [Kwimpelaveki yokuqala emva koko sinethemba lokuba sakuba nayo indawo yakho.] (24) [Mandiqale ndikuchaze ezi ndlwana zikunika ntoni: kukho iibhedi ezine zomntu omnye, isitovu esineepleyiti ezimbini, iimbiza, iipani, amacephe, iifolokhwe kunye neemela (9) zabantu abane. Yiplani evulekileyo – ngokoke ligumbi elinye, kwaye akukho ndawo yokuhlambela ezindlwaneni]
ngokwazo. Ayinabuyokoyoko nje kwaye (8) [kufuneka uzise izandlalo zezakho. Kwaye abantu bayazilungiselela.]
(The first weekend after that we will hopefully have a place for you. Let me first explain to you what the cottages offer: there are four single beds, a two-plate stove, pots, pans, and cutlery for four people. It is an open plan – so it is one room, and there are no ablution facilities in the cottages themselves. So it is very basic and you have to bring your own bedding. It is also self-catering.)

L: (26) [Ukuba (10) singabantu abathandathu, ingaba ngoko kungafuneka siqeshe izindlwana ezimbini?]
(If we are six people, will we have to rent two huts?)

B: (26) [Ndinoloyiko, ewe Nenekazi.]
(I am afraid so, yes Lady.)

L: (25) [Kwaye nendleko eziqukayo?]
(And the costs involved?)

B: (12) [lindleko ngoku, yiR148 ngobusuku.]
(The costs currently, it is R148 for an evening.)

L: Ngendlwana elala abane?
(Per cottage that sleeps four?)

B: (12) [Ngendlwana, ewe, elala abantu abane. Ngoko kukho idepositi yeheke eyiR60, eza kuthi ubuyiselwe kuwe xa uhamba.]
(For the cottage, yes, that sleeps four people. Then there is a gate deposit of R60, which will be returned to you when you leave.)

L: (26) [Ngoko ke, siza kubhatala iindlwana ezimbini ukuba singabantu abathandathu?]
(So, we will have to pay for two cottages if we are six people?)

B: (26) [Ewe, kulungile.]
(Yes, that is correct.)

L: (11) [Impelaveki ye-5 kuOktohba, ndingathanda ukubhukisha iindlwana ezimbini ubusuku bangoLwesihlanu kunye nomGqibelo.] (27) [Ngabani ixesha ekufuneka sihambe ngalo ngeCawa?]
(The weekend of the 5th of October, I would like to book two cottages for the Friday and Saturday evening. At what time do we have to leave then on Sunday?)

B: Ngokweendlwana, (28) [ngu11 kusasa.]
(For the cottages, it is 11am.)

L: Ingaba kunjalo? (11) [Ngoko ke ukuba sifuna ukuchitha imvakwemini yangeCawa phaya, kufuneka sibhukishele ubusuku bangeCawa ngokunjalo?]
(Is that so? So if we want to spend the Sunday afternoon there, we will have to book for the Sunday evening as well?)

B: Kuya kufuneka ubhukishele iCawa ngokunjalo.
(You will have to book for Sunday as well.)

L: (11) [Kulingile ngoko ke, Mnumzana ndiza kubhukishela ukusuka kuLwesihlanu wesi-5 ukuya kwCawa nge-7 kaOktohba iindlwana ezimbini ngoko.]
(Okay then, Sir I will have to book from Friday the 5th to Sunday the 7th of October two cottages then.)

B: (29) [luntsuku ezintathu, iindlwana ezimbini.]
(For three days, two cottages.)
L: (30) [Ngoko ke ndingathanda kwakhona ukubuza malunga nendawo kummandla waseHermanus esinokuthi sizindwendwele xa silapho.]
(Then I would also like to ask about any sights in the Hermanus area that we can visit while we are there.)

B: (31) [Singajonga eFernkloof umzi wogcino zilwanyana, onefynbos entle – eqikelelwa 1200 lweenendi ongenako ukuzifumana naphi na ehlabathini. Ngoko ke kukho neKopi kaHooi enembali exabisekileyo. Kukho iMuziyam yaseZibuko elidala; emalunga kwaphela…]
(We can look at Fernkloof Nature Reserve, which has beautiful fynbos – approximately 1200 specie that you won't find anywhere else in the world. Then there is also Hooi’s Koppie, which has historical value. There is the Old Harbour Museum; and that is about it…)

L: (36) [Mnumzana, enkosi], (32) [ndixelele ukuba ndiqhuba ku-N1 osuka eBloemfontein, yeyiphi indlela eyona ilula ukuyilandela ukuya eOnrus?]
(Sir, thank you, tell me if I am driving along the N1 from Bloemfontein, which rout is the easiest to follow to Onrus?)

B: (33) [Nkosikazi, ukuba ungangena ku-N2, uye kufumane u-R43 phambe kokuba ungene eBotrivier. Landela u-R43 oya eHermanus. Malunga neekhilomitha ezintlanu phambi kweHermanus, uya kubona idolophu encinci iVermont. Apha kufuneka ujike kwaye emva koko ulandele impawo zezalathiso eziya epakini.]
(Madam, well if you can get to the N2, then you will find the R43 just before you get to Botrivier. Follow the R43 to Hermanus. About five kilometers before Hermanus, you will see a little town Vermont. There you have to turn off and then you just follow the signboards to the park.)
L: (36) [Enkosi, Mnumzana.] (34) [Ingaba ikhona enye inkcazelo oyifunayo kum?]
(Thank you, Sir. Is there any more information you require from me?)

B: Ewe Nenekazi, ngokubanzi (13) [ngumongo wedilesi yakho yeposi ukuze ndikuthumelele ifomu yesicelo.]
(Yes Lady, it is basically your postal address so I can send you an application form.)

L: Kufuneka undithumelele ifomu yesicelo? Ungayifeksi nayo ngokunjalo?
(Do you have to send me an application form? Can you fax it as well?)

B: Ewe singayenza. (13) [Ndinike inombolo yakho yefeksi.]
(Yes we can do it. Give your fax number.)

L: (15) [Inombolo yam ngu: ikhodi yendawo 031, inombolo 4488011.] (35) [Ndiyaphinda 0314488011.]
(My number is: area code 031, number 4488011. I repeat 0314488011.)

B: (36) [Enkosi Nkosikazi.]
(Thank you Mam.)

L: (34) [Ingaba iphelele?] 
(Is that all?)

B: Ewe, (15) [ndiza kuyifeksa ifomu ngalo mzuzu. Ungayizalisa kwaye uphinde uyithumele kuthi ngokhawuleza.]
(Yes, I will fax you a form right away. You can complete it and fax it back to us as soon as possible.)
L: (36) [Enkosi] kwaye (37) [usale kakuhle, Mnumzana.]
(Thank you and good bye, Sir.)

B: (37) [Usale kakuhle, Nkosikazi.]
(Good bye, Madam.)

Communicative Purpose: Booking accommodation for six people in one of the municipal holiday resorts over a weekend.

Obligatory Moves:

(1) statement of communicative purpose
(2) identifying resort options
(3) identifying choice of holiday resort and accommodation
(4) inquiry about availability of accommodation on a given date
(5) deny accommodation
(6) request accommodation on a different date
(7) accept request
(8) stating which gear has to be self-supplied
(9) stating the people capacity of a cottage
(10) stating the number of people that are requiring accommodation
(11) describing the duration of time that the accommodation is requested for
(12) stating the total costs involved
(13) requesting a address or fax number to send an application form
(14) describing code and number of fax
(15) giving instructions for returning of form

Optional Moves:

(16) greeting
(17) identifying premises
(18) offering assistance
(19) describing the resort options
(20) motivations for choosing each of the resorts
(21) confirmation of comprehension
(22) explaining the particular choice of resort
(23) apologizing for denying request
(24) describing the accommodation facilities
(25) requesting the costs involved
(26) confirming the number of cottages suited for six people
(27) inquiring about the departure time
(28) stating departure time
(29) confirming the booking
(30) inquiring about tourist attractions
(31) describing tourist attractions
(32) requesting directions
(33) instructions on how to get there
(34) inquiring about any other formalities required for booking to be finalized
(35) repeating fax number
(36) expressing appreciation
(37) greeting

TASK THREE

Dialogue Three
Ilungu lasekuhlaleni (L)
UMnumzana Gerber (G)

L: Mini emnandi, Mnumzana. (1) [Ndingathanda ukwenza isiqibo sokudibana ndize ndibhale uviwo lwephepha-mvume.]
(Good day, Sir. I would like to make an appointment to come and write my learner-driver license.)

G: (15) [Ngokuqinisekileyo Nkosikazi.] (2) [Unaso isazisi kunye neR50 kuwe?] (Certainly Madam. Do you have your ID and R50 with you?)

L: (3) [Ewe, ndinayo.] (Yes, I do.)

G: Kulungile Nkosikazi, (4) [nceda uzalise le fomu.] (Right Madam, then please complete this form.)

L: Ndiza kwenza njalo. (16) [Ungaba unalo usiba endinokuthi ndilusebenzise?] (I will. Do you perhaps have a pen that I can use?)

G: (17) [Ikhona enye esetafileni.] (There is one on the table.)

L: (21) [Enkosi.] (Thank you.)

Umntu uyayizalisa ifomu. (The person completes the form.)

L: (18) [Ingaba izaliswe? Ingaba ikhona indawo endiyishiyileyo?] (Is it complete? Is there something that I have left out?)

G: Mandibone. (19) [Loluphi udidi lwephepha-mvume ozele lona?] (Let me see. Which type of licence are you coming for?)

L: (19) [Liphepha-mvume lam lokuqhuba imoto.] (It is for my car license.)
G: (19) [Kulungile, yiyo le.] enkosi Nkosikazi. (5) [Nkosazana, isazisi sakho ngokukhawuleza?]
(Alright, that’s it, thank you Madam. Miss, your ID book quickly?)

L: (20) [Nasi.]
(Here is it.)

G: (21) [Enkosi kakhulu.] (6) [Ungangena emva kwalo matshini. Cinezela ibunzi lakho kumatshini, nceda. Jonga phambili ngqo kwezi ezifestileni zaphezulu ezincinci.] (22) [Uza kujonga imifanekiso emincinci; yonke ijongeka ngokufanayo. Kumfanekiso wokuqala, kukho isiqobo esikhulu esinemigca enqamlezileyo kwicala lasekunene lesandla.] (7) [Uyibona phi emfanekisweni wesibini?]
(Thank you very much. Wont you just move in behind the machine. Press your forehead against the machine, please. Look straight ahead through the small, upper windows. You will look at twelve little pictures; all of them look the same. In the first picture, there is a big check block on the right hand side. Where do you see it in picture two?)

L: (8) [Ezantsi kwicala lesandla sasekhohlo.]
(At the bottom left hand side.)

G: (7) [Kwinombolo yesithathu?]  
(At number three?)

L: (8) [Ezantsi ekunene.]
(Right bottom.)

G: (7) [Isine?]
(Four?)
L: (8) [Phezulu ekhohlo.]
(Left top.)

G: (7) [Isihlanu?]
(Five?)

L: (8) [Ezantsi ekunene.]
(Right bottom.)

G: (7) [Isithandathu?]
(Six?)

L: (8) [Ezantsi ekhohlo.]
(Left bottom.)

G: (7) [Isixhenxe?]
(Seven?)

L: (8) [Phezulu ekunene.]
(Right top.)

G: (7) [Isibhozo?]
(Eight?)

L: (8) [Ezantsi ekunene.]
(Right bottom.)

G: (21) [Enkosi kakhulu Nosikazi.] (23) [Ungazola ngoku. Nceda umzuzwana.]
(Thank you very much Madam. You can relax now. Just a moment please.)
UMnumzana Gerber wenza ingqaku malunga neengxelo zomntu.
(Mr Gerber makes a note of the person’s test results.)

G: Kulungile Nkosazana, (24) [ufuna ukuza nini kuviwo lwakho lwephepha-
mvume?] (9) [Ungenza ngoMvulo okanye ngoLwesithathu?]
(Okay Miss, when do you want to come for your learner’s license examination?
Can you come on a Monday or on a Wednesday?)

L: (25) [Ngokukhawuleza okudibene nokungxama.]
(As soon as possible.)

G: Kulungile, (26) [ndinayo indawo yakho ngoLwesithathu – lixesha leentsuku
ezimbini?]
(Alright, I have a place for you on Wednesday – that is in two days time?)

L: (10) [Ndiza kuyithatha.]
(I will take it.)

G: (11) [Kusasa ngentsimbi yesithoba okanye ngeyesithathu emalanga?]
(In the morning at nine o’ clock or at three in the afternoon?)

L: (12) [Nceda ngentsimbi yesithoba.]
(At nine o’ clock, please.)

G: Kulungile, (27) [nantsi iresiti yakho yeR50]; (28) [ngoLwesithathu wesihlanu,
ngentsimbi yesithoba kusasa.] (13) [Yiza nencwadi yesazisi, iifoto ezimbini
kunye neR25.] (14) [Nceda iR50?]
(Right, there is your receipt for R50; Wednesday the fifth, nine o’ clock in the
morning. Bring your ID book, two photos and R25 along. R50 please?)
L: (29) [Nantsi imali.] (30) [Iphi iresiti yam?]
(Here is the money. Where is my receipt?)

G: (31) [Nantsi, ndikunike wena.] Ndakubona ngoLwesithathu.
(There it is, I gave it to you. See you on Wednesday.)

L: (21) [Enkosi ngoncedo. Usale kakuhle Mhlekazi.]
(Thanks for the help. Good bye Sir.)

Communication Purpose: Making an appointment to write a learner-license.

Obligatory Moves:
(1) stating communication purpose
(2) confirming availability of necessary items
(3) confirming availability of items
(4) giving instructions for completing form
(5) asking for ID
(6) giving instructions for preparations to take eye-test
(7) asking position of check block
(8) describing position of check block
(9) naming options for day of appointment
(10) choosing day for appointment
(11) naming options for time of appointment
(12) choosing time for appointment
(13) naming items to be brought along to appointment
(14) asking for money

Optional Moves:
(15) agreeing to assist
(16) asking for a pen
(17) identifying location of pen
(18) inquiring after completeness of form
(19) confirming information is correct
(20) identifying ID book
(21) showing appreciation
(22) explaining procedure for eye-test
(23) requesting time to reconcile information
(24) asking preference of time for appointment
(25) indicating urgency for appointment
(26) identifying soonest opening for appointment
(27) identifying receipt
(28) confirming appointment
(29) identifying money
(30) asking for receipt
(31) identifying presence of receipt

TASK FOUR

Dialogue Four
Umxhasi (X)
Umsebenzi wethala leencwadi (M)

X: Molo, Nkosikazi.
(Good morning, Ma'm.)

M: Molo Nenekazi, (9) [ndingakunceda?]
(Morning Lady, can I help you?)

X: (1) [Ndifuna ulwazi ngeAIDS.] (2) [Uyazi ukuba ingaba kukho into endinokuyisebenzisa apha kweli thala leencwadi?]
(I am looking for information on AIDS. Do you know whether there is anything I can use here at this library?)
M: (3) [Ewe, ngokuqinisekileyo,] kodwa phambi kokuba siqhubekke, (10) [igama lam nguMirelda, umsebenzi kwithala leencwadi,] kwaye (11) [ndithetha nabani?]
(Yes, certainly, but before we carry on, my name is Mirelda, librarian, and I am talking to?)

X: (10) [UEdie Venter.]
(Edie Venter.)

M: Ndiyavuya ukudibana nawe. (12) [Ndixelele, ngeyomsebenzi omiselweyo ekufuneka uwenze?]
(Nice to meet you. Tell me, is it an assignment that you have to do?)

X: (13) [Ndiza kwenza ukwazisa ngeAIDS.]
(I will do a presentation on AIDS.)

M: (14) [Eneneni ndinalo ulwazana kwithala.] (15) [Ndibeke kunye umboniso ngemva kwethala leencwadi.] (16) [Ukuba unondilandela, ndingakubonisa ukuba sinantoni.] Mhlawumbi ungafumana into onokuyisebenzisa aphi, okanye (17) [sinokujonga kumacandelo angengawo awembali kunye nelokukhangela lethala leencwadi.]
(I have quite a bit of information on the shelf. I put together an exhibition at the back of the library. If you will follow me, I will show you what we have. Maybe you will find something you can use there, otherwise we can look at the non-fiction and reference departments of the library.)

X: (18) [Enkosi Mirelda.]
(Thank you Mirelda.)
M: (15) [Ngoku umboniso ukwicala lesandla sasekunene kwicandelo labadala,]
kodwa (4) [Iandela mna ndize ndikubonise.]
(Now the exhibition is on your right hand side in the grown-up’s section, but follow
me then I'll show you.)

X: (19) [Ndiza kukulandela.]
(I will follow you.)

Bayahamba baya kumboniso weAIDS.
(They walk to the exhibition on AIDS.)

M: (5) [Apha sinazo iincwadi ezimbalwa ngeAIDS.] (20) [Uninzi lwazo zibhalwe
ngesiNgesi, kodwa kwelinye icala, apha kwithala, kukho enye incwadi
yesiAfrikaans ngokunjalo.]
(Here we have a few books on AIDS. They are mostly written in English, but on
the other side, here on the shelf, there is one Afrikaans book as well.)

X: (21) [Ndiyabona, apha yincwadi ebhalwe ngesiAfrikaans.]
(I see, this here is the book written in Afrikaans.)

M: Ewe, (20) [yincwadi elungileyo yokusetyenziswa. Zonke ezi ncwadi zivela
elingelilo elembali,] kodwa ndithe ndazisebenzisa ukuqokelela lo mboniso
weAIDS.
(Yes, that is a good book to use. All these books come from the non-fiction
department, but I have used them to compile this exhibition about AIDS.)

X: (18) [Enkosi kakhulu, oku ngumangaliso.] (22) [Kunjani ngecandelo
lokukhangelal?]
(Thank you very much, this is wonderful. What about the reference department?)
(Okay, just follow me. We don't have a very big reference department at this library, and unfortunately you will find that the encyclopaedias are all old already.)

Babuyela kwidesika engaphambili kwethala leencwadi.
(They go back to the front of the library.)


(This is the Wêreld Fokus. You will see at the back of the books that they are alphabetically arranged. Now we are looking for V. In the Wêreld Fokus number sixteen we look for VIGS. Let me see now. Unfortunately I can't find anything here. Let's see in the World Series – it is a very popular set. One has to use the index book. The index book has all the topics alphabetically ordered and tells you in what volume and on which page you will find information on the topic in question. This is very unfortunate, but it doesn't seem as if there is any information here either. Let's look in the Kennis. This encyclopaedia works like
the World Series: there is also an index that you can use – no nothing. I am terribly sorry, Miss, but it seems like I won’t be able to help you with any of these reference books.)

X: (25) [Ayizukuba yingxaki, Mirelda,] (8) [ndicinga ukuba ezi ncwadi, ozibonise kum, zona zanele.]
(It wont be a problem, Mirelda, I think that the books, which you have already shown me, are sufficient.)

M: Jonga kwezo ncwadi kwaye ubone ukuba kukho into onokuyifumana. (38) [Ngenxa yokuba akulilo ilungu lethala leencwadi,] (26) [akuzokwazi ukuboleka iincwadi.] (27) [Kuza kufuneka usebenzele apha okanye wenze ilkopi. Okanye ungalilungu lethala leencwadi, kodwa iza kuthatha iintsuku ezimbalwa phambi kokubaungakwazi ukuboleka iincwadi.]
(Look in those books and see what you can find. Because you are not a member of the library, you will not be able to borrow the books. You either have to work here or you can make photocopies. Alternatively you can become a member of the library, but it would still take a few days before you can borrow books.)

X: (39) [Itthatha iintsuku ezingaphi?] (How many days would it take?)
M: (40) [Malunga nesine.] (About four.)

X: (28) [Zingaphi iincwadi endiza kukwazi ukuziboleka ngexesha elinye?] (How many books will I be able to borrow at one time?)

M: Kakuhle, (29) [sivumela iincwadi ezine kumntu ngamnye, kodwa akunako ukuthatha iincwadi zokukhangelangaphandle kwethala leencwadi.] (30) [Kubulungu, kukho ikhadi ekufuneka ulizalise. Kuza kufuneka ndibone incwadi yakho yesazisi kwaye kuza kufuneka izingqiniso. Singathanda ukuba uhlala
eHermanus, ukuba usinike ikopi yamanzi kunye neakhawunti yakho yombane] ukuze sikwazi ukuyincamathisela ekhadini lakho.
(Well, we allow four books per person, but you can't take any of the reference books out of the library. For membership, there is a card that you have to complete. I will also need to see your identity book and you need references. We prefer that if you are living in Hermanus, that you give us a copy of your water and electricity account so that we can attach it to your card.)

X: (31) [Ukuba ndindwendwela abantu, ndizisa ikopi yamanzi kunye neakhawunti yabo yombane?]
(If I am visiting people, do I bring a copy of their water and electricity account?)

M: Ewe, (30) [ukuba uyandwendwela okanye akungomhlawuli werhafu, ngoko ke ikopi yamanzi okanye iakhawunti yombane yabantu apho uhlala khona isemgangathweni. Siza kuthi sifune nedilesi yakho, apho usuka khona] (41) [Xa sithe sayilandeka olu Iwazi, uya kube ubulungele ubulungu, siya kuthi sikwazise.]
(Yes, if you are either visiting or not a taxpayer then a copy of a water and electricity account of the people where you are staying is in order. We will also need your own address, where you are from. When we have followed up this information, and you have qualified for membership, we will let you know.)

X: Kulungile, (32) [ndinke elinye lala makhali.]
(Alright, let me have one of those cards.)

M: Nali. (42) [Kukho indawo nalapha yesingqiniso – lowo ngumntu ongahlali naye kwidilesi enye nawe. Nceda bhala phantsi igama kunye nedilesi yomntu kuloo migca.]
(Here. There is also a place here for a referent – that is someone who does not stay at the same address than you. Please write down his or her name and address on those lines.)
X: (33) [Ngoko ke ndingathanda ukukopa amaphepha amathathu kwezi ncwadi.]
(Then I would like to copy three pages from these books.)

M: (34) [Kulungile.] (35) [mandiwabhale phantsi.]
(Okay, let me write them down.)

X: (36) [Liphepha 30 kule ncwadi kunye namaphepha alishumi kunye nalishumi elinanye kule ncwadi.]
(It is page 30 from this book and pages ten and eleven from this book.)

M: (25) [Ayizukuba yingxaki Nkosikazi.] (37) [Ngamashumi amabini eesenti ikopi nganye.] (43) [Ngelishwa asinay eumatshini osebenza ngeenkozo apha, kodwa ukuba undinika iincwadi kunye nemali ndingakunceda.] (That wont be a problem Mam. It is twenty cents per copy. Unfortunately we do not have a machine that works with coins here, but if you give me the books and the money I can help you.)

X: (44) [Unayo itshintshi yeerandi ezintlanu?] (Do you have change for a five rand?)

M: (25) [Ayongxaki.] (45) [Nantsi itshintshi yakho] (46) [Nazi ezo kopi.] (No problem. Here is your change and here are those copies.)

X: (18) [Enkosi ngoncedo lwakho, Mirelda.] (47) [Ndiza kulibuyisa elo khadi kunye nesigqiniso zam ngomso kusasa.] (Thank you for all your help, Mirelda. I will bring back that card and my references tomorrow morning.)

M: Ibilulonwabo. Ithamsanqa elihle ngengomsebenzi omiselwyo. (It was a pleasure. Good luck with the assignment.)
X: Enkosi. Usale kakahle.
(Thank you. Good bye.)

Communication Purpose One: *Locating information regarding AIDS*

Obligatory Moves:

1. identifying the research topic
2. asking about availability of resources on the topic
3. confirming availability of resources
4. instructing client to follow to resources
5. identifying resources
6. describing position of resources
7. denying availability of information
8. expressing satisfaction or sufficiency of information

Optional Moves:

9. offering assistance
10. identifying oneself
11. asking the client's name
12. asking the purpose of research
13. stating the purpose of research
14. describing quantity of resources
15. identifying location of exhibition
16. stating intention of showing resources
17. identifying availability of other resources
18. expressing appreciation
19. agreeing to follow to resources
20. describing resources
21. confirming identification of resources or confirming understanding
22. inquiring about availability of other resources
23. describing the use of encyclopaedia
(24) apologizing for absence of information or inability to assist
(25) denying inconvenience

Communication Purpose Two: *Acquiring the information for use outside the library*

**Obligatory Moves:**

(26) refusing to lend books
(27) identifying options for acquiring information
(28) asking the number of borrowed books allowed
(29) Identifying the number and type of books allowed to be borrowed
(30) explaining the requirements for acquiring membership
(31) asking the procedure for non-residents
(32) requesting a card for membership application
(33) requesting to make photocopies
(34) agreeing to make photocopies
(35) asking the pages for photocopying
(36) identifying the pages for photocopying
(37) identifying the price of a photocopy

**Optional Moves:**

(38) explaining refusal to lend books
(39) asking duration of time for acquiring membership
(40) identifying duration of time for acquiring membership
(41) explaining procedure for acquiring membership
(42) explaining how to complete the card
(43) describing photocopying system
(44) inquiring about the availability of change
(45) identifying the change
(46) identifying the photocopies
(47) stating intention of returning membership application
TASK FIVE

Dialogue Five
Umsebenzi wakwamasipala, iNkosikazi Swart (S)
Umphathini kwinkonzo yenjineli, uMnumzana Magerman (M)
Ilungu leqela lokwakha, uLouis (L)

M: (1) [Molo, nguMagerman apha.] (Hello, Magerman here.)

S: Mnumzana Magerman, (2) [nguNkosikazi Swart kwicandelo lokugcina imali.] (6) [Ndixolisa kakhulu ngokukuhlupha,] kodwa (3) [ndinengxaki enkulu kwaye ndicela ungakwazi ukundinceda.] (Mr Magerman, this is Mrs Swart from the treasury department. I am sorry to trouble you, but I have a big problem and I was wondering if you can't help me.)

M: (4) [Ewe, ndimamele.] (Yes, I am listening.)

S: Mnumzana Magerman, (5) [Xa bendifika emsebenzini ngale ntsasa, ndiye ndafumanisa ukuba ndiye ndabeka isithiziso sedrowa yedesika yam endaweni engeyiyo ngoku andikwazi ukuzifumana. Ndikhangelwa kuyo yonke indawo, kwaye ndidinga ukufumana iifomu ezingaphakathi edroweni ngokukhawuleza.] (3) [Ungandinceda? Kufuneka ndenze ntoni?] (Mr Magerman, when I arrived at work this morning, I discovered that I have misplaced my desk drawer's key somewhere and now I cant find it. I have looked everywhere and I urgently need to get forms inside the drawer. Can you help me please? What must I do?)

M: (7) [Zola Nkosikazi Swart.] (8) [Ndiza kuthetha noLouis ngoku. Kodwa kuqala kufuneka ndibhale iodolo yomsebenzi.] Kulungile ngoko?
(Calm down Mrs Swart. I will speak to Louis right away. But first I will have to write a work order. Alright then?)

S: Ewe, (9) [enkosi Mnumzana Magerman, ndakuyixabisa.]
(Yes, thank you Mr Magerman, I will appreciate it.)

**UMnumzana Magerman ubiza uLouis.**
(Mr Magerman calls Louis.)

M: Louis!
(Louis!)

L: Ewe, Mnumzana?
(Yes, Sir?)

M: (10) [Ndoda, ndifumene ucingo olungxamisekileyo kuNkosikazi Swart. Isitshixo sedrowa yedesika yakhe silahlekile.] (11) [Ingaba kunokwenzeka uthathe iseti yakho yezitshixo uye kuyezitshixo uye kuye uzame ukusombulula le ngxaki?] 
(Man, I have received an emergency call from Mrs Swart. Her desk drawer’s key is lost. Is it possible for you to take your set of key to her and try to sort out the problem?)

L: (12) [Ayinokuba yingxaki, Mnumzana. Ndiza kuya kwaye ndibone ukuba ndingenza ntoni.]
(That won’t be a problem, Sir. I will go and see what I can do.)

M: (13) [Lolunye uhlobo olutsha lweeqhagi zedrowa.] (14) [Unalo uhlobo lweso sitshixo?]
(It is one of those new kinds of drawer locks. Do you have that kind of key?)
L: (12) [Kuza kufuneka ndiye ndiyokubona ukuba ndingenza ntoni ngezitshixo ndinazo.] Ukuba akukho sitshixo zilungayo, ngoko kuya kufuneka ndenze elinye icebo. (15) [Ngubani uNkosikazi Swart?]
(I will have to go and see what I can do with the keys I have. If none of my keys fit, then we will have to make another plan. Who is Mrs Swart?)

M: NguWelmay Swart. (16) [Ukwiofisi esecaleni kweofisi kaDesiré.]
(It is Welmay Swart. She is in the office next to Desiré’s office.)

L: (15) [Kwiofisi eyintloko?]
(At head office?)

M: (18) [Kulungile.]
(That’s right.)

L: (12) [Kulungile, siza kuyenza 100 nto.]
(Okay, we will do that.)

M: Ngoko, Louis (17) [thatha isikrufeli sakho, esisentsimbi kunye nesitara,] kwaye (18) [uthathe iveni yakho ubaleke wehle uye kwiofisi eyintloko.]
(So, Louis, take your screwdriver, the steal one and the star one, and take your van quickly down to head office.)

L: (19) [Ndiya kwenza njalo, Mnumzana, ndiye ndibuyele kuwe.]
(I will do that, Sir, and then I’ll get back to you.)

M: Louis, (21) [ungalibali ukuthatha iseti yakho yezitshixo kunye nawe.]
(Louis, don’t forget to take your set of keys along.)

L: (22) [Ndinayo yonke into,] Mnumzana Magerman.
(I have everything, Mr Magerman.)
M: (23) [Uya kundazisa ukuba izinto ziqhubeka kanjani.]
(You will let me know how things are progressing.)

L: (19) [Kulungile, Mnumzana Magerman, ndiya kwazisa xa ndithe ndayijonga.]
Mnumzana Magerman, (24) [ingaba iodolo yomsebenzi seyenziwe?] 
(Okay, Mr Magerman, I will let you know when I have had a look. Mr Magerman, 
has a work order already been made out?)

M: (25) [Ewe Louis, yenziwe.]
(Yes Louis, it’s been done.)

ULouis ungena kwiosisi kaNkosikasi Swart.
(Louis enters Mrs Swart’s office.)

S: Molo Louis, (30) [enkosi kakhulu ngokuza ngokukhawuleza.]
(Morning Louis, thank you so much for coming so quickly.)
L: Molo Nkosikazi, (27) [indawoni idrowa?] 
(Morning Ma’m, where is the drawer?)

S: (28) [Yile na,] Louis.
(It is this one, Louis.)

L: Khawuthi ndiyijonge. (31) [Ndiza kuthi ndizame ngesitshixo sokuqala] – (32) 
[hayi, ayisiso.] (31) [Ndivavanya esesibini] – (32) [hayi;] (31) [inombolo yesine] – 
(32) [hayi nayo;] (31) [inombolo yesithandathu] – (32) [hayi.] (31) [Masijonge 
inombolo yesixhenxe;] (33) [kulungile, iyasebenza.] 
(Let me see. I am going to try key number one – no, it’s not the one. I am 
testing number two – no; number four – no neither; number six – no. Let’s see 
number seven; right, it works.)
ULouis unxibelelana noMnumzana Magerman ngefowuni.
(Louis contacts Mr Magerman on the phone.)

M: NguMagerman apha.
(Magerman here.)

L: Mnumzana Magerman, (29) [isitshixo esiyinombolo yesixhenxe siyalunga.]
(Mr Magerman, key number seven fits.)

M: Kulungile Louis, (18) [yenza isikhumbuzo ukuze sikwazi ukwenza esiza
kuthatha indawo yeso sitshixo. Xelela uNkosikazi Swart naye abhale phantsi
inombolo yesitshixo ukuze siyazi kwixesha elizayo.]
(Okay Louis, make a note of that so that we can replace the key. Tell Mrs Swart
as well to write down her key number so we know in the future.)

L: (19) [Kulungile Mnumzana Magerman, ndiza kusibuyisela isitshixo.]
(Right Mr Magerman, I will replace the key.)

M: Louis, (18) [yiya kuPrag Lock and Heel Bar kwaye umfune isitshixo
uMnumzana Prag. Unike uMnumzana Neethling uluhlu lwesitshixo
esithengiweyo] – (26) [uyazi ukuba isebenza kanjani, kulungile?]
(Louis, go to Prag Lock and Heel Bar and ask Mr Prag for the key. Hand the
invoice in at Mr Neethling – you know how it works, right?)

L: (12) [Kulungile Mnumzana, ndiza kwenza njalo.]
(That's right Sir, I will do that.)

ULouis ubeka phantsi ifowuni.
(Louis puts down the phone.)
L: (29) [Kulungile Nkosikazi Swart, yonke into ihlenga-hlengisiwe ngoku.]  
(34) [Yenza isikhumbuzo senombolo yesitshixo – siyinombolo yesixhenxe,  
ukwenzela ukukhangela kwixesha elizayo.]  
(Alright Mrs Swart, everything is sorted out now. Just make a note of the key’s  
number – it is number seven, for future reference.)

S: (30) [Enkosi kakhulu, Louis. Ubudlindo ubomi bam.] Uhambe kakuhle.  
(Thanks a lot, Louis. You have save my life. Bye-bye.)

L: (35) [Akuyongxaki,] Nkosikazi. Usale kakuhle.  
(Not a problem, Mam. Good bye.)

Communication Purpose One: Reporting a maintenance problem by phone

Obligatory Moves:
(1) answering the phone
(2) identifying the caller
(3) asking for help
(4) agreeing to help
(5) describing the problem

Optional Moves:
(6) apologizing for trouble caused
(7) comforting or reassuring the caller
(8) explaining the procedure for obtaining help
(9) expressing appreciation

Communication Purpose Two: Assigning the work order

Obligatory Moves:
(10) explaining the situation
(11) requesting assistance
(12) agreeing to assist
(13) describing the kind of lock
(14) asking about the availability of the key-type
(15) asking about the location of the problem
(16) describing the location
(17) naming the necessary tools
(18) giving instructions for the work procedure

Optional Moves:
(19) confirming comprehension
(20) expressing intention to report back
(21) reminding worker to take keys
(22) assuring (other participant) that equipment have been assembled
(23) requesting a report
(24) asking about the work order
(25) confirming the work order
(26) inquiring about comprehension

Communication Purpose Three: *Fixing the maintenance problem*

Obligatory Moves:
(27) asking position of the desk lock
(28) identifying the desk lock
(29) identifying the correct key or reporting that the problem is solved

Optional Moves:
(30) expressing appreciation
(31) describing procedure
(32) denying that a key works
(33) accepting that a key works
(34) advising to note the key number
(35) denying inconvenience

TASK SIX

Dialogue Six
Usihlalo (H)
Ummangalelwa (U)
Ummangali (M)

H: (1) [Molweni manene kunye namanenekazi.] (2) [Sidibene apha namhlanje sizokuva ngoluleko lukaNkosikazi Marais.] (3) [NdinguElsabé Viljoen wecandelo lezobuntu ndiza kuba ngusihlalo wale komiti.] (2) [Siza kuphanda intshukumo yoluleko ngokudibene nexwebhu lesimangalo ngokuchasene nommangalelwa, uNkosikazi Marais, ukugqiba ekubeni khange kubekho kungakhathali kubandakanyekayo.] (3) [Ummangali nguMnumzana Passens.] (12) [Ndingathanda ukubuza ummangalelwa ukuba uyayazi na ukuba unelungelo lommeli kumanyano lwakhe?]

(Good afternoon ladies and gentlemen. We are gathered here today for the disciplinary hearing of Mrs Marais. I am Elsabé Viljoen from the human resource department and I will be the chairman for this hearing. We will investigate the disciplinary action in relation to the charge sheet against the accused, Mrs Marais, to decide whether there was any negligence involved. The complainant is Mr Passens. I would just like to enquire whether the accused is aware that she has the right to a representative of her union?)

U: (13) [Ewe, ndiyazi,] kodwa (14) [ndiza kuzithethela ngokwam.]

(Yes, I know, but I will speak for myself.)

H: Nkosikazi Marais, (15) [uxolile ukuba unikwe ixesha elaneleyo lokuzilungiselela olu dliwano-ndlebe?]
(Mrs Marais are you satisfied that you were given enough notice to prepare for this interview?)

U: (16) [Ewe, ndicinga ukuba ndibe nexesha elaneleyo.]
(Yes, I think that I have had enough time.)

H: Kulungile, ngoko (4) [ndakucela ummangali afunde uxwebhu lwesimangalo kwaye okukhokele kwityala.]
(Alright, then I will ask the complainant to read the charge sheet and lead you through the offence.)

M: (5) [Uxwebhu lwetyala lufunda ukuba iNosikazi Marais, ngokutsho, uthe washiya indawo yakhe yokusebenza ngomhla wesine kuSeptembha, ngaphandle kwemvume. Uzithethelele njani: unetyala okanye awunatyala?] 
(The charge sheet reads that Mrs Marais, allegedly, left her work place on September the fourth, without permission. How do you plead: guilty or not guilty?)

U: (6) [Ndizithethelele andinatyala.]
(I plead not guilty.)

H: (7) [Ekukhanyeni kokuzithethelela kwakho ekungabi natyala, sakukunika ngoku ithuba lokubeka isehlo sakho kuthi kwaye ucacise ngamazwi akho ukuba kwenzeka ntoni ngaloo mini.]
(In the light of your plea of not guilty, we will now give you opportunity to put your case to us and explain in your own words what happened on that day.)

U: (8) [Ndixelele isihlobo sam, iNkosazana Steyn, ukuba ndiya kuggqirha. Kwigumbi lokulindela likaggqirha lalizele kakhulu kwaye kwanyanzeleka ukuba ndilinde. Andizange ndikwazi ukuphindela emsebenzini ngethuba.]
(I told my colleague, Miss Steyn, that I was going to the doctor. At the doctor’s the waiting room it was very full and I had to wait. I could not return to work in time.)

H: Kulungile, (17) [kodwa uuyayazi inkqubo ekufuneka ilandelwe ukuba akuzokubakho emsebenzini?] (Right, but do you know the procedure that has to be followed in case of any absenteeism?)

U: (18) [Ewe, kufuneka ndifune imvume kumongameli wam.] (Yes, I have to get permission from my supervisor.)

H: (19) [Ngoko kutheni ungakhange wenze njalo kwesi sehlo?] (Then why didn’t you do that in this case?)

U: (8) [Ebesentlanganisweni kwaye khange ndicinge ukuba kuza kufuneka ndilinde kwaggqirha ixesha elide.] (He was in a meeting and I didn’t think that I would have to wait at the doctor’s for so long.)

H: (19) [Ubuza kucela imvume phantsi kweemeko zesiqhelo?] (Would you have asked for permission under normal circumstances?)

U: (18) [Ukuba ebengekho entlanganisweni, ngendimcelile.] (8) [Bendiyile kuye ndifuna imvume, kodwa ngelo xesha ebexakekile esentlanganisweni kwaye bekufuneka ndidibene nogqirha ngokukhawuleza.] (If he weren’t involved in a meeting, I would have asked him. I did go to him to ask for permission, but at the time he was busy in the meeting and I had to see the doctor urgently.)

H: (9) [Ingaba kukho iimeko zokuxolela ongathanda ukuba singazicinga phambili kokuba sibuye nesigwebo?]
(Is there any extenuating circumstances that you would like us to consider before we return a verdict.)

U: (10) [Ndiyazingca kakhulu ngomsebenzi wam kwaye andifuni ukohlukana nawo. Kwaye oku lityala lam lokuqala.]
(I am very proud of my work and I don’t want to lose this job. This is also my first offence.)

(22) [Unelungelo lokwenza isibheno ngeentsuku ezishumi kukumila nokukhula kuchaziweyo.]
(Thank you for your explanation. I have looked at your file, and you are correct in saying that it is your first offence. In the light of your admittance to knowingly leaving your work place without permission, I have to find you guilty on the charge. A doctor’s appointment has to be arranged ahead of time and you should be able to get permission priorly. Although you have informed Miss Steyn about your whereabouts, you have to realize that you need the permission of your supervisor at all times, when you want to leave your work place. I feel that under the circumstances a verbal warning that is binding for six months, would be sufficient. You do have the right to appeal within ten days in the prescribed format.)
U: (20) [Enkosi.] (22) [ndixolile sisigqibo.]
(Thank you, I am satisfied with the verdict.)

H: (20) [Enkosi kummangali ngokulungisa uxwebhu letyala.]
(Thank you to the complainant for preparing the charge sheet.)

Communication Purpose: Conducting a disciplinary hearing

Obligatory Moves:
(1) greeting
(2) stating the purpose of the meeting and the hearing
(3) introducing the participants and stating their roles
(4) instructing the complainant to read the charge sheet
(5) reading the charge sheet
(6) pleading to the charge
(7) asking the accused to state her case
(8) describing the event in question
(9) asking for extenuating circumstances
(10) stating extenuating circumstances
(11) pronouncing the verdict

Optional Moves:
(12) asking if the accused is aware of her rights
(13) confirming that she knows her rights
(14) expressing the intention of self-representation
(15) inquiring whether enough notice was given
(16) confirming that enough notice was given
(17) confirming that the accused knows the correct procedure
(18) asking why procedure was not followed
(19) expressing appreciation
(20) explaining the verdict
(21) stating the accused's right to appeal
(22) expressing satisfaction with the verdict

TASK SEVEN

Dialogue Seven
Umsebenzi wakwamasipala, uThomas (U)
Umabhalana womvuzo (B)

U: Molo Desiré.
(Good morning Desiré.)

B: Molo Thomas. Ndingakwenzela ntoni?
(Morning Thomas. What can I do for you?)

U: (1) [Ndizele imvume yekhefu lokugula.]
(I came for sick leave.)

B: (2) [Zingaphi iintsuku osele unazo?]
(How many days have you already had?)

U: (7) [Ndingaqashisela malunga nesithandathu okanye isixhenxe.]
(I would guess about six or seven.)

B: Khawuthi ndijonge. (8) [Uyayazi inombolo yomvuzo wakho?]
(Let me have a look. Do you know your salary number?)

U: Yi-2, 9, 2, 8, 4.
(It's 2,9,2,8,4.)

B: (3) [Ndiyaxolisa ikhefu lokugula lakho lifhelile.]
(10) [Ufumana iintsuku ezilishumi ngonyaka, iintsuku ezingamashumi amathathu kumjikelo kwiminyaka]
emithathu. Ngoko ke, ungayisebenzisa yonke imvume yakho yokuhlala ekhaya ngenxa yokugula ngoku, kodwa awunokugula kwiminyaka emibini ezayo.]
(I am sorry but your sick leave is exhausted. You get ten days a year; thirty days in a three-year cycle. So, you can use the rest of your sick leave now, but then you cannot fall ill for two years.)

U: (11) [Kodwa ukuyinyani, ndiziva ndigula ngoku] kwaye (4) [ndiza kugxininisa ekuboneni uggqirha.]
(But truly, I am feeling very sick now and I am going to insist on seeing a doctor.)

B: (5) [Uvumelekile ukuba ungaya kugqirha,] (6) [kufuneka uxelele umongameli wakho. Kodwa nokuba kunjalo ukuba uqirha ebenokukubhukishela ungaphangelile usuku kuza kufuneka uchazele umongameli wakho kwaye uqirha, njengekhefu elingahlawulelwayo, okanye usebenzise ikhefu leholide yakho lesiqhelo.]
(You are allowed to go to the doctor, you just have to tell your supervisor. But even if the doctor books you off sick for the day, you will have to report to your supervisor and then you will either have to take it as unpaid leave, or use your normal holiday leave.)

U: (18) [Ndeniwe ingxaki:] (12) [ilungu losapho luthe lwasweleka kwaye ndifuna ukuya emngcwabeni. Uza kubo kula Lwesibini uzayo eMonti.]
(I have a further problem: a family member has died and I want to attend the funeral. It will be held now coming Tuesday in East London.)

B: (13) [Unelungelo lweentsuku ezintathu kwimvume eyodwa ngonyaka, kwaye ikwiimeko zokufa kumalungu osapho athe ngqo, anjengomama, utata, umnakwe, udade, umntwana, utata omkhulu okanye umakhulu; okanye mlawumbi xa inkosikazi yakho ibeleka.]
(You are entitled to three days special leave per year, and that is only in case of the death of a direct family member, like a mother, father, brother, sister, child, grandfather or grandmother; or maybe when your wife is in labour.)

U: (12) [Ngutata omkhulu oswelekileyo.]
(It is my grandfather who has died.)

B: (19) [Ndiyaxolisa ukuva ukuba utata omkhulu wakho uswelekile, Thomas.] Mandikhe ndikhawuleze ndijonge apha. (20) [Kulingile ndiyabona apha kwifayili yakho ukuba ubukhe wathatha ikhefu elilodwa lalinye kulo nyaka,] (14) [ekushiya uneentsuku ezimbini elungelweni lakho;] kodwa (13) [ukuba udinga ixesha elininzi kuza kufuneka usebenzise ikhefu lesiqhelo. Ukuba usebenzisa zombini iintsuku kwaye kukho esinye isehlo esilusizi, uyokunyanzeleka ukuba usebenzise ikhefu lakho lesiqhelo.] (21) [Uyayiqonda 100 nto, Thomas?]
(I am sorry to hear of your grandfather’s death, Thomas. Let me just quickly have a look here. Well I see here in your file that you have already taken one day special leave this year, which leaves you with two days to your disposal; but if you need more time you will have to use your normal leave. If you use both days and there is any other unfortunate incident this year, it doesn’t matter how serious, you will also be forced to use your normal holiday leave. You understand that, Thomas?)

U: (21) [Ewe, ndiyaqonda.] (15) [Ndingathanda ukubeka iintsuku ezimbini zekhefu elilodwa.]
(Yes, I understand. I would like to put in two days special leave.)

B: (16) [Kulingile] ngoko ke (22) [ndiza kukucacisela ukuba uza kuyizalisa njani le fomu yesicelo sekhefu.] (Alright, then I will just explain to you how to complete this leave request form.)
U: (23) [Enkosi.]
(Thank you.)

BL: (24) [Umhlwa wesicelo sekhefu uwuhala apha; icandelo lakho apha, ubonisa apha ukuba likhefu leholide, likhefu lokugula – ukuba likhefu lokugula ngoko ke kufuneka uncamathisele iphepha likagqirha ukuba ubungekho iintsuku ezingaphewe kwesibini; ikhefu eliolodwa – ubhala phantsi isizathu sekhefu eliolodwa ngezantsi kwalapha apha kulo mgca; idilesi yalapho uzabe ukuyo ngelo xesha; isandla sakho apha kwaye umongameli wakho kufuneka asayine kulo mgca.] (25) [Umongameli wakho kufuneka axelelewe kwaye kufuneka alivume ikhefu, okanye iya kucingela ulahliile emsebenzini.] (26) [Xa umongameli wakho evumile, ngoko intloko ye candelo lakho kufuneka ivumile; emva koko ufomu yakho iphindle ibuyele kuthi, ukuze ifakwe kwisixokelelwano sekompuyutha.] (The date requested for leave you write in here; your department here, you specify here whether it is holiday leave, sick leave – if it is sick leave then you have to attach a medical certificate when you are away for more than two days; special leave – you write down the reason for the special leave below here on this line; the address where you will be during that time; and your signature here; and your supervisor has to sign on this line here. Your supervisor has to be informed and has to approve the leave, otherwise it would be considered desertion! When your supervisor has approved the leave, then the head of your department has to approve it; after which your form comes back to us to be fed into the system on my computer.)

U: Ngoko ke, (17) [ndingayifumana enye yezi fomu ngoku ndiyacela.]
(So, can I have one of those forms now please.)

B: (16) [Ungayifumana.] (25) [Khumbula ukuya kumongameli wakho kuqala ulungise kunye naye.]
(You may. Remember to go to your supervisor first to organize with him.)
U: (23) [Enkosi, Desiré.]
(Thank you, Desiré.)

B: Luvuyo, Thomas. (19) [Ndiyanqwenza uza kuziva ungcono kamsinyane.]
(Pleasure, Thomas. I hope you feel better soon.)

Communication Purpose One: *Requesting sick leave*

**Obligatory Moves:**
1. stating purpose of communication
2. asking the number of days already taken
3. reporting that sick leave is exhausted
4. insisting on seeing a doctor
5. accepting request to see a doctor
6. naming conditions for taking sick leave

**Optional Moves:**
7. guessing the number of days already taken
8. asking salary number
9. stating salary number
10. explaining sick leave
11. describing urgency of request

Communication Purpose Two: *Requesting special leave*

**Obligatory Moves:**
12. describing reason for leave
13. explaining conditions for special leave
14. stating the number of days available
15. requesting special leave
16. accepting request
(17) asking for a leave request form

Optional Moves:

(18) requesting further assistance
(19) sympathizing with the person
(20) stating the number of days taken
(21) confirming comprehension
(22) stating intention of explaining request form
(23) expressing appreciation
(24) explaining the leave request form
(25) stating the importance of supervisor’s role
(26) describing the process of obtaining approval for leave

TASK EIGHT

Dialogue Eight
Umabhalana kwimibuzo yamatyala, uWendy (B)
Ilungu lasekuhlaleni, uNkosikazi Venter (L)

L: Molo Nkosikazi. (1) [Ndifuna ukubuza malunga netyala lamanzi eliphezulu endithe ndalifumana kule nyanga.] Inokuba yimpazamo. (2) [Lityala lamawaka amabini eerandi!] Kuqhubeka ntoni?
(Morning Madam. I want to inquire about this high water account that I received this month. It must be a mistake. It is a bill for two thousand rand! What is going on here?)

B: (13) [Niyalikhangel aityala lamanzi, niyawafunda amanzi zonke iinyanga?]
(Do you check your water account, your water readings every month?)
L: (14) [Hayi,] (15) [uthetha ukuthini?] (16) [Ndisuke ndafumana ityala, kodwa liyaxhuzulwa ebhankini.] Kodwa (17) [zange ndilifumane ityala eliphakame kangaka.]
(No, what do you mean? I only receive the bill, but it goes down on a debit order at the bank. But I have never received such a high account.)

B: (3) [Awunazingxaki endlwini yakho? Khange ube neendwendwe kutshanje? Khange ukhe wenze imbonakalo yomhlaba?]
(Don't you have any problems at your house? Did you have any visitors recently? Have you done any landscaping?)

L: (4) [Hayi, nakanye kwenjalo.]
(No, nothing like that.)

B: (3) [Awunamagumbi angasese avuzayo apho iqula liwatshintsha ngokwalo?]
(Don't you have any toilets leaking where the cistern runs automatically?)

L: (4) [Hayi endiyaziyo.]
(Not that I am aware of.)

B: (3) [Iitephu ezivuzayo?]
(Leaking taps?)

L: (4) [Hayi, ngokuqinisekileyo azikho iitephu ezivuzayo.]
(No, definitely no taps leaking.)

B: (18) [Into ekuphela kwayo esseleyo kukukhangela isilinganisi-manzi.] (5) [Uyayazi ukuba siphi isilinganisi-manzi sakho?]
(The only thing left to do is to check the water meter. Do you know where your water meter is?)
L: (6) [Sisecaleni kwendlu, ewe?]
(It is next to the house, yes?)

B: Kulungile, (7) [Yiya kwisilinganisi-manzi, kodwa kufuneka ungagungxuli isihlalo sangase se okanye ungavuleli amanzi ezitephini. Ngoko uza kubona iqondo elibonisayo: lijongeka okwesixhobo sokubala uzungulezo emotweni. Phantsi kwalo kukho amavili amancinci. Ukuba amavili amancinci ayajikeleza athetha into yokuba unamanzi avuzayo.]
(Okay. Go to the water meter, but you must not have flushed the toilet or have any taps running. Then you’ll see there is a reading meter: it looks like the rev-counter on a motorcar. Under that there are little wheels. If the little wheels are turning it means you have a water leakage.)

L: (8) [Kulungile, ndiza kwenza njalo.] (19) [Ndingakutsalela umnxeba kwakhona?]
(Right, I will do that. Can I phone you back again?)

B: (20) [Ewe, kuya kuba kulungile.]
(Yes, that will be in order.)

L: (21) [Enkosi.] (9) [Ndiyathetha nabani?]
(Thank you. Whom am I speaking to?)

B: (9) [NguWendy lo.]
(This is Wendy.)

L: (21) [Enkosi Wendy.] Ndiza kukutsalela umnxeba kwakhona kwangoku.
(Thanks Wendy. I will phone you back right away.)

Umxhasi uya kwisilinganisi-manzi kwaye atsalele umnxeba umasipala kwakhona.
(The client goes to the water meter and calls the municipality again.)
B: (9) [UMasipala eOverstrand, molo.]
(Municipality Overstrand, good morning.)

L: (9) [Molo, nguWendy lowo?]
(Hello, is this Wendy?)

B: (9) [NguWendy othethayo.]
(Wendy speaking.)

L: (10) [Wendy, nguNkosikazi Venter lo. Besikhe sathetha emzuzwini odlulileyo.] (11) [Ndiyile kwisilinganisi-manzi sam kwayne loo mavili ayajikeleza nangona ndingasebenzisi manzi.]
(Wendy, this is Mrs Venter. We spoke a moment ago. I went to my water meter and those wheels are turning although I am not using any water.)

B: (12) [Ngokuqinisekileyo ibonisuka ukuba unethontsi endlwini yakho.] (22) [Ngelishwa ngumthwalo wakho. Ukuvuza kungena ngesilinganisi-manzi sakho.] (23) [Ndikucebisa ukuba ufune umtywini ngokukhawuleza okukhulu.] (Obviously it shows that you have a leak at your house. Unfortunately it is your responsibility. The leak is going through your water meter. I would advise you to get a plumber in as soon as possible.)

L: Kodwa kwesi sithuba, (24) [ndiza kwenza ntoni malunga neli tyala?] (26) [Andinayo imali elolo hlobo ebhankini. Ayikho indlela endinokubhatala ngayo eli tyala.]
(But in the meantime, what am I going to do about this bill? I do not have that kind of money in the bank. There is no way that I can pay this account.)

B: (27) [Nkosikazi yehla.] (25) [Kufuneka uyivale ukuxhuzulwa kwetyala lakho ebhankini ngokukhawuleza.] (28) [Sinekomiti eyodwa ejongana nokunyuka kwamanzi kunye namatyala ombane.] (25) [Kufuneka uthumele ileta kwisebe
lamatyala kwaye ucacise ingxaki yakho. Kwakhona ncamatisela nawaphi amaphepha owafumeneyo kumtywini uzekelo.] (28) [Ukuba ikomiti iyayivuma ngoko ke siza kulithoba ityala lakho lamanzi.]
(Madam calm down. You have to stop your debit order immediately. We have a special committee who sees to unforeseen high water and electricity accounts. You must send a letter to the accounts department and explain your problem. Also attach any relevant papers or receipts you received from the plumber for instance. If the committee approves then we will average out your water account.)

L: (29) [Kufuneka ndize apho ndiyizise ngokwam ileta?]
(Do I come to deliver the letter there myself?)

U: (30) [Aynamsebenzi, ungayithumela ngeposi.] Kodwa (25) [ndikucebisa ubhatale, okwangoku, oku uqhele ukubhatala rhoqo ngenyanga, kuba le nqubo ingathatha ithuba ukuze isombululwe.]
(It doesn’t matter, you can send it by mail. But I would suggest that you pay, for the time being, what you usually pay every month; because this process can take a while to resolve.)

L: (21) [Enkosi kakhulu, Wendy.]
(Thank you very much, Wendy.)

U: Iminqweno emihle Nkosikazi, kodwa (23) [nceda tsalela umnxeba umtywini ngoku.]
(Good luck Mam, but please call a plumber right now.)

L: (8) [Ndakwenza njalo.] (21) [enkosi.] Usale kakahle.
(I will, thanks. Good bye.)
Communication Purpose One: *Establishing the reason for a high water account*

Obligatory Moves:
(1) identifying the purpose of the call
(2) identifying the problem
(3) inquiring about possible causes for the problem
(4) denying possibility of these causes
(5) asking position of water meter
(6) acknowledging position of the water meter
(7) instructions for identification of leakage on the water meter
(8) agreeing to follow instructions
(9) identifying the speaker
(10) identifying the caller
(11) reporting findings
(12) identifying the cause of the problem

Optional Moves:
(13) asking whether readings are noted monthly
(14) denying taking readings
(15) expressing incomprehension
(16) describing payment
(17) expressing unusualness of the bill
(18) identifying water meter as indicator of cause for the problem
(19) requesting to report findings
(20) agreeing to receive report
(21) expressing appreciation
(22) explaining that the problem is the client's responsibility
Communication Purpose Two: *Solving the problem of high water account*

Obligatory Moves:
(23) advising seeking immediate professional help
(24) asking advise for settling account
(25) giving instructions for dealing with high account

Optional Moves:
(26) expressing inability to pay account
(27) comforting or reassuring client
(28) describing the municipality’s regulations for dealing with unpayable accounts
(29) asking about means of submitting the letter
(30) identifying means of submitting the letter
(8) agreeing to follow instructions
(21) expressing appreciation

**TASK NINE**

**Dialogue Nine**
Umphathi wabaqeshwa (P)
Umsebenzi, uMnumzana Rajah (R)

P: Mini emnandi Mnumzana Rajah. (1) [Enkosi ngokudibana nam ngale mva kwemini sizokuxoxa izicwangciso zenkqubela-phambili yobomi bakho.]
(2) [Nceda ndinike isalathiso sesingqini sakho sangoku.]
(Good day Mr Rajah. Thank you for meeting with me this afternoon to discuss your career plan. Please just give me an indication of your current qualification.)

R: Molo Nkosikazi. Ewe, (3) [isingqini sam sangoku, isingqini sesikolo libanga lokuqala.]
(Good afternoon Madam. Yes, my current qualification, school qualification is standard one.)

P: Kulungile, (4) [ngoku leliphi icala othanda ukwandisa kulo izifundo zakho?] (Right, now in which direction would you like to further your studies?)

R: Nkosikazi, (5) [ndingathanda ukuba umtywini.] (Madam, I would like to become a plumber.)

P: Ngoku, (6) [kufuneka sikhumbule into yokuba ukuze ube ngumtywini – ngalo mzuzu ukwicandelo lolungiselelo lwamanzi – ngoko, ufumene amava amahle. Ukwenza uludwe lwezifundo zobutywini, kuqala udinga ukuba wenze uhlobo lwenkqubo yokubhala nokufunda ephakamileyo.] (17) [Uyayiqonda into yokuqala efunekayo?] Kuba (7) [xa usenza imilinganiselo emiselweyo kubutywini ekholeji, kuza kubakho iinkcazo ezingcingane equkwayo ekufuneka uyifundile.] Ngoko ke (6) [kuza kufuneka kuqala wenze into abayibiza nguABOT uludwe lwezifundo zokufundo nokubhala kumgangatho wokuqala, elibanga lesixhenxe. Kufuneka ufu ke kulaa mgangatho, phambi kokuba sikuqhubele phambili.] (Now, we must just remember that to get to being a plumber – you are at the moment an utility man in the plumber’s division – so you have gained good experience. To do a course in plumbing, you first need to do some kind of advance literacy program. Do you understand that this is first necessary? Because when you do your modules for plumbing at the college, there will be theory involved that you have to learn. So you will first do what they call the ABOT literacy course at the highest level, which is standard seven. You will first have to reach that level, before you can proceed.)

R: (18) [Ndiyabona.] (I see.)

P: (19) [Uziva ungakwazi ukuyenza?] Kuba (8) [Sicinga ukuyenza ngxesha lomsebenzi rhoqo ngoLwesithathu.] (20) [Sakuthi sakuyilungiselela kunye
neentloko zecandelo ezahlukenezayo. (9) [Uziva njani malunga noku?]
(19) [Uyibona indlela akho icacile ekwenzeni oku?]
(Do you feel up to it? Because we will consider doing it during work time, every
Wednesday. We will organize it with the different heads of department. How do
you feel about this? Do you see your way open to doing this?)

R: (10) [Ewe, ukuba inokwenzeka, ndingathanda ngokuqinisekileyo ukuyenza.]
(Yes, if it is possible, I would definitely want to do it.)

P: (21) [Oku kungayichaphazela njani imisebenzi yakho emsebenzini?]
(How will this affect your activities at work?)

R: (22) [Ngoko, ngokuqinisekileyo kungawuchaphazela umsebenzi wam.
Ngokubona kwam ndingumsebenzi womtywini kwaye kukho amadoda amathathu
kuphela kunye naye evenini.] Kodwa ngokuqinisekileyo siza kubona ukuba
singanako ukuyilungiselela.
(Well, it will obviously have an affect on my work. Seeing that I am a labourer for
the plumber and there are only three men with him on his van. But we can
certainly see what we are able to organize.)

P: Kulungile ngoko. Mnumzana Rajah, mna nawe sikuxoxile oku ngoku.
(11) [Inyathelo elilandelayo lam kukubhala ingxelo eya kwintloko yesebe kunye
nomphathi ukuze ndibaxelele malunga nezicanwiciso sokuqalisa kuludwe
lwezifondo zikaABOT kwaye ngungxa yoko siza kubizela ngaphandle
ngoLwesithathu uye eziklasini. Ukuba sinokuba nayo imvume yabo ngoko
sakuthi sixelele ikomiti eqeqeshayo kwaye sibaxelele ukuba sifuna ukuqala
kunye nawe.] Kodwa kwangxesha linye, (12) [sokucela ukuba umtywini lowo
ubusebenza naye aqalise ukukubonisa iindlela – oku sikubiza “kumsebenzi
oqeqeshelwayo". Angaqala ukukunika imisebenzana eghubela phambili kakhulu
ngokukunika umsebenzi wezandla otyhilekileyo.] (13) [Kukangakanani ufumana
amathuba angako?]
Alright then. Mr Rajah, you and I have discussed this now. The next step for me is to write a report to the head of your department and to your superintendent as to inform them of our plan to start you on the ABOT course and that because of this we will call you out on Wednesdays to attend the classes. If we have their permission then we will report to the training committee and tell them that we want to start with you. But at the same time, we will request that the plumber whom you work with start to show you the ropes – what we call “on the job training”. He can start assigning more advanced tasks to you, as to train you by giving you practical exposure. To what extent are you already getting such opportunities?)

(Well, I have not really had such opportunities. Let me put it to you like this: I have not been working for very long. I have only been with the plumber for a little while.)

P: (13) [Kulixesha elide kangakanani ulapho?]
(How long have you been there?)

R: (14) [linyangwa ezisibhozo.] (5) [Kodwa umdla wam ngokuqinisekileyo uwela ekubeni ndibe ngumtywini.]
(Eight months. But my interest definitely lies in becoming a plumber.)

(Right, then I think this is the road we will follow. It is unfortunately a long-term plan. We are first going to increase your level of literacy, because as a plumber management will also expect you to write reports. But as long as you know that it is a road that we have you started on. In the long term you will achieve your goal, but these are only the first steps that we have to take.)

R: (18) [Hayi, ndiyaqonda ngokunjalo Nkosikazi.]
(No, I understand it like that Madam.)

P: (15) [Ndakubeka ixesha lentlanganiso yokuwulandela kunye nawe.] (16) [Ngubani ocinga ukuba kufuneka ekho entlanganisweni?] (I will schedule a follow-up meeting with you. Who do you think will need to be present at the meeting?)

R: (16) [Ndicinga abantu abafanelekileyo bakuba ngumongameli wam ngokuthe ngqo kwaye kwakhona umphathi wesebe endikulo.] (I think the necessary people would be my direct supervisor and also the superintendent of the division that I am in.)

P: Kulungile, bangkwazi ukuhlenga-hlengisa amaxesha okusebenza ngokoqeqesho lwakho. Kuba (8) [iza kwenziwa bonke oOLwesithathu kwezi nyanga zintandathu, ngaphezulu okanye ngaphantsi.] Kulungile Mnumzana Rajah, (19) [ingaba ujonge phambili koku?] (Fine, so they can know how to arrange the work schedule around your training. Because it will take place every Wednesday for the following six months, more or less. Right Mr Rajah, are you looking forward to this?)

R: (10) [Ewe ndinjalo Nkosikazi, enkosi kakhulu.] (Yes I am Madam, thank you very much.)
P: Kulungile ngoko, (15) [ndiya kukwazisa ngokukhawuleza okukhulu ukuba enye intlanganiso inini, ngoko sakuthi sidibanise amadoda kunye.]
(Arright then, I will let you know as soon as possible when the next meeting is scheduled for, then we will get the guys together.)

R: Usale kakuhle Nkosikazi.
(Good bye Madam.)

P: Uhambe kakuhle Mnumzana Rajah.
(Good bye Mr Rajah.)

Communication Purpose: Establishing a career plan for a municipal worker

Obligatory Moves:
(1) stating the purpose of the meeting
(2) asking current qualification
(3) stating current qualification
(4) asking educational interest
(5) stating career choice
(6) describing educational needs
(7) explaining necessity of literacy course
(8) identifying time for studies
(9) inquiring after satisfaction with plans
(10) agreeing to educational plan
(11) describing preparations for education
(12) explaining training
(13) asking current work experience
(14) describing work experience
(15) planning follow-up meeting
(16) identifying attendants for follow-up meeting
Optional Moves:

(17) inquiring after comprehension
(18) indicating comprehension
(19) inquiring after willingness to engage in plans
(20) indicating intention of arranging with superiors
(21) inquiring about effect of studies on work
(22) describing effect of studies on work

TASK TEN

Dialogue Ten
Ilungu lasekuhlaleni (L)
Umongameli wezindlu (M)

L: Molo, Mnumzana. Igama lam ndingu Andries Cupido.  
(Good afternoon, Sir. My name is Andries Cupido.)

M: Molo, ndingu Roderick Williams.  
(Afternoon, Roderick Williams.)

L: Mnumzana Williams, (1) [ndize kufuna indlu.]  
(Mr Williams, I came to ask for a house.)

M: Mnumzana, okokuqala, (2) [mandikuxelele ukuba akukho mathuba ezindlu akhoyo ngalo mzuzu.] (3) [Into esiqhele ukuyenze kukubeka kwegama lakho kuluhlu lokulinda, kwaye njengemisebenzi emitsha, amathuba, aba khona; oya kuthi uyicingwe.]  
(Sir, in the first place, I have to tell you that there are no housing opportunities available at the moment. What we usually do is to place your name on a waiting list, and as new projects, opportunities, become available; you will come into consideration for it.)
L: (4) [Iya kuthatha ixesha elingakanani? Ukuba ndifake igama lam kuluhlulokulindanamhlanjenkulindeleke ukuba ndilinde ixesha elingakanani? Ludekangakanani olu luhlu?]
(How long will that take? How long can I expect to wait if I put my name on the list today? How long is the list?)

M: (14) [Mnumzana Cupido, sineemfuno ezahlukene wo kwiidolophu ezahlukene yo. Kwaye ixhomekeke ukuba umsebenzi onjengalona umiselwe okulandelayo, uya kuthi ucingwa ngawo. Ngoko kwiidolophu ezahlukene yo iimfuno ziyluka, kodwa sokuthi sibone. Xa ubhala igama lakho phantsi kuluhlul, uzakhela ithuba lendlu yakho.]
(Mr Cupido, we have different needs in different towns. And depending on where a project like that is established next, you will be considered for it. So in different towns the needs vary, but we will have to see. When you put your name on the list, you create a housing opportunity for yourself.)

L: (14) [Ngalo mzuzu ndihlale eHermanus. Ingaba loo nto ithetha into yokuba xa kukho izindlu ezakhiwayo eGansbaai, ingaba ndakuba kuluhlulokulinda Kubo; okanye kufuneka ndilinde indlu ngokukodwa eHermanus?]
(I am staying in Hermanus at the moment. Does this mean that if there are houses build in Gansbaai, that I will be on the waiting list for them; or do I have to wait for a house in Hermanus specifically?)

M: (14) [Oko kwakhona kuya kuthi kuzimisele maluna nefomu. Asiyonto engenakumiswa ngenxa engaphambili.]
(That will still have to be determined according to your form. It is not something that is predetermined.)

L: (5) [Kulungile, ndenze ntoni ngoku? Mandizalise loo fomu?]
(Okay, what do I do now? Do I complete that form?)
M: (15) [Ewe, kucacile ukuba awukabikho eluhlwinilekulinda.] Ngoko ke (6) [kufuneka uzalise isicelo sefomu yokulinda,] eya kuthi ifakwe kwikompuyutha yethu, eya kuthi emva koko ikunike ithuba lendlu. (16) [Ungandixelela ukuba ngoluphi ulwimi olukhethayo. Sineefomu ezifumaneka ngeelwimi ezintathu: isiAfrikaans, isiNgesi kunye nesiXhosa.] (6) [Ngoko ngokulula zalisela thina le fomu kwaye sifikake igama lakho kuluhlulu.] (Yes, it is clear that you are not on a waiting list already. Therefore you will have to complete a waiting list request, which will then be entered into our computer, which will then offer you housing opportunity. You can just tell me which language you prefer. We have the form available in three languages: Afrikaans, English and Xhosa. Then you simply complete this form for us and we will put your name on the list.)

L: (17) [Kulungile, ingaba ndiyenza kwangoku?]
(Right, do I do that right away?)

M: Ewe, (18) [ilunge ngaphezulu kufuneka uyenze ngoku, kodwa ukuba uyizise mva ngoko omnye umntu osele eyizisele ifomu yakhe namhlanje, uza kubekwa phambi kwakho kuluhlulu.] (19) [Ukuba ufuna umntu akuncedise, ngoko singakufunela umntu okubhalele,] (18) [kodwa kungcono ukuba uyenze ngoku hayi mva.]
(Yes, preferably you must do it now, because if you should bring it back later then someone else who have returned their form today, will be placed before you on the list. If you need someone to help you, then we can get someone to write for you, but it is best that you do it now and not later.)

L: Mnumzana Roderick, (20) [ngalo mzuzu ndihlala nodade wethu kwaye andinako ukuhlala ishesha elide apho. Ndinonyaka ndiseHermanus, ndihlala nodade wethu kwaye kufuneka ndizifunela indawo yam ngoku.] (7) [Mhlawumbi ndinazibekela indawo yam kwenye indawo, ngalo mzuzu. Ingaba owona wona mmandla endinokwenza kuwo loo nto okanye ayinamsebenzi?]
(Mr Roderick, I am staying with my sister at the moment and I can’t stay there any longer. I have been in Hermanus for almost a year now, staying with my sister and I have to get a place of my own now. Maybe I can put up a place for myself somewhere, in the mean time. Is there a specific area where I can do that or doesn’t it matter?)

M: Okokuqala, (8) [ukuba uthathe isigqibo sokumisa igumbi kwadade wenu, apho udade wenu anomhlaba, kufuneka ufumane imvume yokwenza oko. Ndithetha into yokuba umhlababa kadade wenu unendawo enye yokuhlala.] Okwesibini asikutumelani ukuba wakhe isakhiwo sexeshana kumhlaba kawonke wonke.] (21) [Kuba akukho zinkonzo zokukhwululza ezikhoyo kwaye kuyingozi kakhu; asinako ukulindela imfanelo ukuba kukho into enokwenzeke kuwe. Umhlababa sele usetyenziswa ezona zona njongo.] (10) [Siya kwaye senze amathuba okuthatha inkampu, apho kukho iinkonzo ezisisiseko, njengezindlu zokuhlambela kunye nezibane ezikhulu ukwenzela ukhuseleko, zimiselwe.] (23) [Kodwa ndingakucibisa ndithi okwangoku hlala nodade wenu. Kuya kuba ngcono kuwe ukuhlala kudade wenu.]

(In the first place, should you decide to put up a room at your sister’s, where your sister owns property, you would have to get permission to do that. I assume your sister’s property has single residence. In the second place, we do not allow you to erect a temporary structure on public grounds. It is because there are no services immediately available and it is also very dangerous; we cannot accept responsibility if something should happen to you. The land is also already being used for a specific purpose. We try and create opportunities in a transit camp, where the basic services, like ablution blocks and floodlights for your safety, are erected. But I would advise you at this stage to stay at your sister’s. It would be better for you to stay on at your sister’s.)

L: (24) [Ukuba udade wethu ebenokuvuma ukuba ndakhe igumbi kumhlaba wakhe, kufuneka enze ntoni? Kufuneka naye aze apha afumane imvume?]
(If my sister was to agree that I could put up a room on her property, what must
she do? Must she also come here to get permission?)

M: (8) [Udale wenu kufuneka anxibelelane nesebe lokwakha, ngokukhethekileyo ngokubhala ndiyacinga. Kwaye ngoko bokusondlala isicelo phambi kwekomiti emva koko baze bamnike ingxelo ebhalwe phantsi kwisigqibo sekomiti.]

(Your sister will have to contact the building division, preferably in writing I would presume. And then they will lay the request before a committee after which they will give her written feedback on the committee’s decision.)

L: (24) [Kufuneka aye phi: kumasipala – kwiofisi eyintloko ngoku?]

(Where does she have to go: to the municipality – to the head office for this?]

M: (8) [Ewe, kwisebe lokwakha kwiofisi eyintloko.]

(Yes, to the building division at head office.)

L: Enkosi. Ukuba udade wethu akakwazi ukundinceda, (25) [kufuneka ndiphinde ndibuyele apha ndifumane imvume yokuhlala enkampini?]

(Thank you. If my sister is not able to help me, I have to come back here to get permission to stay at the camp?)

M: Njengokuba bendiku cacile (10) [ngenkampu yenza amathuba kubantu abathe ngokwendalo abakwazi ukufumana izindlu ngokukhawuleza. Kwaye iyo xhomekeka ukuba zizele kangakanani ezona zona nkampu ngalo mzuzu.]

(14) [Amawaka ambalwa abantu bonke benze izicelo zezindlu kwaye kuyaqondeka ukuba asikwazi ukubanceda ngaxesha-nye.] (26) [Into ethi yenzeke yile xa kukho umsebenzi wezindlu ezintsha eziqalayo, asijongi kudidi lwabantu kulu huhlo lokulinda kuphela – ndicinga ukuba loo nto ikunika uxole engqondweni. Sijonga izidingo zomntu wonke: iimfuno zomntu ngamnye malunga nenani labantwana athi abe nabo; uhlile ixesha elingakanani kulo]
mmandla; indawo yakhe kulu lhu lokulinda; uthini uMvuzo wabo kwaye newonga lomtshato wabo. Isizathu sesi sikholewwa ukuba umntu uneemfuno ezibalulekileyo, ngoko iya kubonakalisa esithi ukubizwa ngokuba luvavanyo Iwezinto zokuphila; ngoko esithi sinike ikhethe kubantu abathile.

(Like I have explained, the transit camps create opportunities for people who naturally are not able to acquire housing immediately. It also depends on how full those camps are at the moment. A few thousand people have all requested housing and it is understandable that we cannot help them all at once. What usually happens is that when a new housing project starts, we do not only look at a person's rank on the waiting list — I think that this should give you some peace of mind. We look at every person's needs: every individual's needs in terms of the number of children that he or she has; how long he or she has been staying in the area, his position on the waiting list; what is their income and even their marriage status. The reason is that we believe that if someone has serious needs, then it will be reflected in what we call a means test, according to which we give preference to certain people.)

L: (26) [Ukuba umntu unosapho ngoko banemfuno enkulu?]
(If someone has a family then they have a bigger need?)

abanexabiso eliphezulu kakhulu ngokuzenzekela bama kuqala emgceni wokufumana amathuba.]

(That is part of the criteria. If I can give you a bit more background: the higher your position on the waiting list or the longer you have been on the waiting list, the better for your means test count; the higher your income, the bigger your family, the longer you have stayed in the specific municipal area, and also people who are married with a family – all of this influence your means test positively. Also your current accommodation influences your rating. People who stay in these transit camps, will be favoured, because we consider their circumstances desperate. Then all of these criteria, which I have mentioned, award you points that are added up to determine your rating. The people with the highest rating automatically stand first in line to receive housing opportunities.)

L: Enkosi kakhulu Mnumzana Roderick. (11) [Ndiyayiqonda yonke into kakuhle kakhulu ngoku.] (12) [Ndingayifumana ifomu yesicelo ngoko?] (13) [Uthe kukho umntu apha onokundinceda?]

(Thank you very much, Mr Roderick. I understand everything very well now. Can I get a request form then so long? You said that there is someone here who can help me?)

M: (19) [Ewe naliya inenekazi elinokukunceda nangaluphi ulwimi kwezi zintathu. Ukuba unayo eminye imibuzo, ukuba kukho into engakucacelanga, ungakwazi ukulibuza kwaye liza kukucacisela.]

(Yes there is a lady here who can assist you in any of the three languages. If you have any more questions, if something is unclear to you, you can just ask her and she will then explain it to you.)

L: Enkosi.

(Thank you.)
M: Ngovuyo.
(Pleasure.)

Communication Purpose: Acquiring an understanding of the possibilities available for housing

Obligatory Moves:
(1) asking a house
(2) denying request for a house
(3) explaining process of obtaining a house
(4) asking waiting period
(5) asking advice as to the best plan of action
(6) instructing completion of waiting list request form
(7) requesting temporary housing
(8) explaining temporary structures on private property
(9) refusing temporary structures on public property
(10) noting transit camps as a temporary housing option
(11) expressing comprehension
(12) requesting waiting list form
(13) asking help with completion of form

Optional Moves:
(14) describing the housing project
(15) stating that the client is not yet on the waiting list
(16) offering the form in different languages
(17) agreeing to completing the form
(18) explaining urgency of completing request form
(19) offering assistance in completing request form
(20) describing urgency of immediate housing
(21) explaining refusal of temporary structures on public property
(22) describing transit camps
(23) advising private accommodation
(24) asking the procedure for acquiring permission for temporary structures on private property
(25) asking the procedure for acquiring permission for temporary structures in transit camps
(26) describing rating process for housing opportunities

4.3.2.3 Essential language structures of target tasks

An analysis of the authentic dialogues, which demonstrate the target tasks for language learning for the specific purpose of communicating in local governmental departments, serves to identify language structures that are essential for effective task participation. Consciousness-raising activities, which increase learners' awareness of the form of language, have to take account of generic structures and underlying lexical phrases of referential communication tasks. Not all the morphological and syntactic features of the different moves for every genre are included in the following analysis; but only those that are task-essential for the purpose of focus on form in the instruction process, are noted.

**TASK ONE** (See Dialogue One under section 3.2.2)

Requesting to speak to someone: **imvume** (permission)
*Ndingathetha noMnumzana Burger?*
potential morpheme –nga- + verb –thetha and prepositional phrase with na-, as head, + noun phrase

Identification of speaker: **ukufanisa** (identification)
*NguMnumzana Burger othethayo.*
identificative copula concord ng- + noun phrase and verbal relative as nominal modifier
Offering assistance: uncedo (assistance)
*Ndingakunceda ngantoni?*
potential morpheme -nga- + second person object concord ku- + verb -nceda and prepositional phrase with nga-, as head, + question word -ntoni

Identifying purpose of call: injongo (purpose)
*Ndingathanda ukwazi yintoni ingxaki nombane.*
potential morpheme -nga- + verb -thanda with clausal infinitive ukwazi and copulative clause yintoni ingxaki with prepositional phrase with na- as head.

Requesting reason for problem: ubango (cause)
*Kutheni umbane ucimile?*
question word kutheni with a situative clause as complement

Stating the problem: ukubika (reporting)
*Sinengxaki neengcingo zombane.*
associative preposition -na- + noun ingxaki, as well as with the noun iingcingo with descriptive possessive, which is formed by possessive concord + noun umbane

Describing the reason for the problem: unobangela (reason or cause)
*Ngenxa yemimoya emikhulu.*
sentential preposition ngenxa ya-,which denotes cause, + noun phrase with adjective -khulu, as a nominal modifier

Inquiring about the duration of the problem: ukubuza (questioning)
*Uya kubuya nini umbane?*
A stylistic movement of the subject to sentence final position emphasizes the question with question word nini. Future tense is formed by morphemes -ya with ku- + verb -buya.
Stating time approximation: **ubude bexesha** (length of time)

*Ungathatha isiqingatha seyure okanye iyure.*

potential morpheme -**nga**- + verb -**thatha** and coordinated noun phrase with conjunct **okanye** between descriptive possessive and noun.

Indicating comprehension: **ukuqonda** (understanding)

*Ndiyaqonda Mnumzana.*

The morpheme -**ya**- with the present tense indicative verb -**qonda** indicates emphasis.

Reporting problem: **ukwazisa** (to inform)

(i) *[Ndifuna ukwazisa malunga nesibane sasendleleni]* (ii) *[ngaphandle kwendlu yam]* (iii) *[esingasebenziyo.]*

(i) verb -**funa** with causal infinitive **ukwazisa,** as the head of the subordinate clause, with malunga na- + noun + descriptive possessive in the locative form

(ii) prepositional phrase with nga- + -**phandle** with possessive concord kwa- + noun indlu, denotes location and possessive concord + first person pronoun

(iii) negative verbal relative is nominal modifier of noun isibane

Asking the exact location of the problem: **ukubuza** (asking)

(i) *[Unganceda undinike idilesi ethe ngqo]* (ii) *[kunye nendawo yesibane.]*

(i) subjunctive mood -**nike** coincides with the purposive clause of verb and verbal relative -**thi** introduces ideophone ngqo as nominal modifier for object noun phrase idilesi

(ii) coordinated noun phrase with conjunct kunye na- + noun with descriptive possessive.

Identifying the location of the problem: **indawo** (position)

(i) *[Isibane sisesitalatweni sesixhenxe]* (ii) *[kwisanqa sezithuthi.]*

(i) noun with copulative verb + s + locative noun with descriptive possessive, which forms an ordinal number
(ii) locative preposition ku- + noun isanga with descriptive possessive

Explaining the procedure for repair: ukucacisa (explaining)
(i) Into eza kwenzeka ngoku siza kwenza i-odolo yomsebenzi...
(ii) [Emva koko iya kuthi ifakelwe] (iii) [ngexesha elilodwa...]
(i) noun + relative in the future tense with neutro-passive and adverb of time ngoku and future tense morphemes –za ku- + verb –enza with noun and descriptive possessive
(ii) conjunctive of time emva koko with situative clause, which denotes future tense, with subjunctive mode for the successive action, i.e. passive verb –fakelwe
(iii) prepositional phrase with nga- + noun ixesha and quantifier –odwa, as nominal modifier

Sympathizing and apologizing: ukuxolela (apologizing)
Ndiyaxolisa kakhulu ngaloo nto Nkosikazi.
–ya-, which denotes emphasis, + verb –xolisa with adverb kakhulu and prepositional phrase indicating reason with nga- + demonstrative + noun

TASK TWO (See Dialogue Two under section 3.2.2)

Statement of communication purpose: injongo (purpose)
(i) [Ndingathanda ukubuza] (ii) [malunga nendawo yokuhlala] (iii) [kwesinye sesigqubo sakho.]
(i) potential morpheme –nga- + verb –thanda with infinitive ukubuza
(ii) subordinate adverb clause with malunga na- + noun and descriptive possessive
(iii) locative preposition ku- + numeral noun isinye with descriptive possessive and possessive concord + second person pronoun –kho.
Identifying resort options: ukufanisa (identification)
(i) [ngokubanzi kukho iipaki ezimbini.] (ii) [Enye sisigqubo sabachithi holide kumlambol iOnrus enye...]
(i) adverbs ngokubanzi and existential copulative + -kho with the noun and adjective -bini
(ii) quantifier -nye and static copula concord + noun with descriptive possessive and locative ku- with noun; quantifier is repeated to denote “other”

Motivations for choosing resorts: impembelelo (motivation)
(i) ...ingumzekelo ogqibeleyo kubathandi bendalo...
(ii) Kukho amancedo angakumbi awabantwana.
(i) stative identificative copula concord + noun with verbal relative, as nominal modifier, and locative preposition ku- + noun with descriptive possessive
(ii) existential concord ku- + -kho with the noun and adverb -ngakumbi, which is a relative nominal modifier, with emphatic possessive concord + noun abantwana

Identifying choice of holiday resort: ukufanisa (identification)
(i) ...iOnrus yiyo endiyifunayo.
(ii) Ukuba bendifuna ukuqesha indawo, bendiza kuba nomdla kwindlwana,...
(i) noun with stative identificative copula + pronoun with verbal relative, where the antecedent has objectival agreement
(ii) sentential preposition ukuba, which denotes condition, with the compound recent past tense verb -funa + clausal infinitive + noun and copulative verb -ba with associative preposition na + noun umdla

Inquiry about availability of accommodation on a given date: ubukho (presence)
(i) [Ikhona indawo efumanekayo] (ii) [kwimpelaveki ye24 kuSeptembha?]
(i) existential copulative -kho + na, which denotes a questioning tone, with the noun and neutro-passive verbal relative, as nominal modifier
(ii) locative morpheme ku- + nouns -impelaveki, with descriptive possessive, and -uSeptembha
Denying accommodation: ukulandula (denying)

(i) [Ndiyaxolisa, Nenekazi.] (ii) [Sizele ukusuka kwi24 ukuya kwi28 kaSeptembha…]

(i) to emphasize: –ya- + verb -xolisa
(ii) stative perfect verb –zele with infinitives and locative morpheme ku- + numbers –i24 and –i28 with possessive morpheme ka- + noun -uSeptembha

Accept request: ukwamkela (accepting)

(i) [Kwimpelaveki yokuqala emva koko] (ii) [sinethemba lokuba sakuba nayo indawo yakho.]

(i) locative morpheme ku- + noun with descriptive possessive, which is an ordinal number, with emva koko
(ii) associative preposition na- + noun ithemba with descriptive possessive lokuba and the compound future tense with the copulative –ba with preposition na- + pronoun and noun with possessive concord + second person pronoun –kho

Describing the accommodation facilities: ukuchaza (explaining)

(i) [Mandiqa/e ndikuchaze] (ii) [ukuba ezi ndlwana zikunika ntoni: …]

(i) hortative with subjunctive mood of verb -chaze
(ii) complementizer, with ukuba as head, and demonstrative with noun and indicative mood of verb –nika with question word ntoni

Stating which gear has to be self-supplied: kunyanzelekile (obligation)

(i) […kufuneka uzise izandla/o zezakho] (ii) [kwaye abantu bayazilungiselela.]

(i) kufuneka with a subjunctive clause and noun with copula + emphatic possessive + second person pronoun
(ii) sentence conjunct kwaye with noun and indicative clause with reflexive –zi- + -lung- + causative –is- + dubble applicative –el-

Stating total costs involved: ixabiso (price)

(i) lindleko ngoku, yiR148 ngobusuku ngendlwane elala abantu abane.
(ii) [Ngoko kukho idepositi yeheke eyiR60] (iii) [eza kuthi ubuyiselwe kuwe xa uhamba.]

(i) noun with adverb of time ngoko and stative copulative morpheme + price –iR148 and prepositional phrases with nga- + nouns –ubusuku and –indlwana with verbal relative clause, as nominal modifier with noun and adjective -ne

(ii) sentential adverb of time ngoko with existential copulative –kho and noun with descriptive possessive and relative nominal modifier + stative identificative copulative morpheme + noun (price)

(iii) verbal relative clause in the future tense with past tense passive verb –buyiselwe and locative preposition ku- + second person pronoun –we and conjunct xa, denoting time, with indicative clause

Confirming the number of cottages suited for six people: ukuqinisekisa (confirming)

(i) [ngoko ke, siza kubhatala iindlwana ezimbini] (ii) [ukuba singabantu abathandatu?]

(i) sentential adverb denoting time with future tense indicative clause and noun with adjective –bini, as nominal modifier

(ii) complement clause with conjunct ukuba, denoting condition, with stative copulative morphemes + noun and adjective –thandathu as nominal modifier

Inquiring about departure time: ixesha (time)

Ngabani ixesha ekufuneka sihambe ngalo eCawa?

Preposition nga- + question word bani with noun ixesha and relative clause with kufuneka with subjunctive verb and preposition nga- + pronoun with locative noun, as adverb clause denoting time

Requesting directions: ukubuza indlela (asking the way)

(i) […ndixelele ukuba ndiqhuba ku-N1 osuka eBloemfontein] (ii) [yeyiphi indlela elula ukuyilandela ukuya eOnrus?]
(i) object concord + imperative verb + applicative –el- and complementizer phrase with ukuba with indicative clause with locative preposition ku- + noun u-N1 and verbal relative, as nominal modifier, with locative noun

(ii) stative identificative copula y- + question word and noun with verbal relative clause with infinitive and infinitive with locative noun

Instructions on how to get there: amacala (directions)

(i) [...] ukuba ungangena ku-N2 [...] (ii) [Landela u-R43 oya eHermanus.]

(iii) [Malunga neekhilomitha ezintlanu phambi kweHermanus,] (iii) [uya kubona idolophu encinci iVermont.] (iv) [Apho kufuneka ujike kwaye emva koko ulandele iimpa wo zezalathiso eziya epakini.]

(i) sentential preposition ukuba with indicative clause with potential morpheme -nga- + -ngenya and locative preposition ku- + noun –u-N2

(ii) imperative verb with noun and verbal relative with locative noun

(iii) sentential adverb malunga na- + noun and adjective -hlanu and locative phambi with possessive concord kwa- + noun

(iv) the locative demonstrative apho with kufuneka with subjunctive clause and conjunct kwaye with emva koko with successive action in the subjunctive mood –landele and noun with descriptive possessive and verbal relative with locative noun

Inquiring about any other formalities required: ubukho (presence)

Ingingaba ikhona enye inkcazelo oyifunayo kum?

Iningaba with existential copulative –kho + na, which indicates a questioning tone, and the quantifier –nye before the noun with the verbal relative, where the antecedent has objectival agreement, and the prepositional locative ku- + first person pronoun

Requesting address and fax number: ukucela (requesting)

(i) [Ngumongo wedilesi yakho yeposi (ii) [ukuze ndikuthumelele ifomu yesicelo]
(iii) *Ndinike inombolo yakho yefeksi.*

(i) Stative identificative copulative concord + noun with descriptive preposition and possessive concord + second person pronoun + descriptive possessive

(ii) conjunct *ukuze* with subjunctive complement + applicative -el- with noun and descriptive possessive

(iii) object concord + imperative verb -nike with noun and possessive concord + second person pronoun and descriptive possessive

Instructions for returning application: *ukuyalela* (instructing)

*Ungayizalisa kwaye uphinde uyithumele kuthi ngokukhawuleza.*

potential -nga- + object concord + verb + causative -is- and conjunct *kwaye* and successive auxiliary verb -phinde in the subjunctive mood with subjunctive complement -thumele and locative preposition ku- + first person plural pronoun -thi with nga- + adverb of manner

**TASK THREE** (See Dialogue Three under section 3.2.2)

Stating the purpose of communication: *injongo* (purpose)

(i) *[Ndingathanda ukwenza isiqibo sokudibana]* (ii) *[ndize ndibhale uviwo lwepheha-mvume.]*

(i) potential morpheme -nga- + verb -thanda with clausal infinitive *ukwazi* and complement clause with noun with descriptive possessive

(ii) successive action in subjunctive mood and noun with descriptive possessive

Confirming availability of necessary items: *ubukho* (presence)

*Unaso isazisi kunye neR50 kuwe?*

associative preposition -na- + pronoun with noun and coordinated noun phrase with conjunct *kunye na-* + noun and locative preposition ku- + second person pronoun
Confirming availability of items: ubukho (presence)

Ewe, ndinayo.
associative preposition –na- + pronoun

Asking for a pen: uku cela (requesting)

Ungaba unalo usiba endinokuthi ndilusebenzise?
potential morpheme –nga- + copulative –ba and preposition –na- + pronoun with
type and verbal relative with –na + infinitive, which expresses ability, and
complement verb phrase that has objectival agreement with antecedent of the
relative

Identifying location of pen: indawo (position)

Ikhona enye esetafileni.
existential copulative –kho- + na with quantifier –nye with nominal relative in the
locative form

Inquiring after completeness of form: ukuzaliseka (completeness)

(i) [Ingaba izaliswe?] (ii) [Ingaba ikhona indawo endiyishiyileyo?]  
(i) ingaba with past tense passive
(ii) ingaba with ikhona and verbal relative, which has objectival agreement with
the antecedent noun

Confirming information is complete: ukufanisa (identification)

(i) Loluphi udidi lwephepha-mvume ozele lona?
(ii) Lipepha-mvume lam lokuqhuba imoto.
(i) stative identificative copula + question word with noun with descriptive
possessive and past tense verbal relative + applicative –el- with absolute
pronoun
(ii) stative identificative copula concord + noun with possessive concord + first
person pronoun with descriptive possessive and noun phrase
Giving instructions for preparations to take eye-test: ukuyalela (instructions)
(i) [Ungangena emva kwalo matshini.] (ii) [Gcinela ibunzi lakho kumatshini.] (iii) Jonga phambili ngqo ezifestileni zaphezulu ezincinci…
(i) potential –nganga + verb –ngenena and locative with possessive kwa- + demonstrative with noun
(ii) imperative and noun with possessive concord + second person pronoun and locative preposition ku- + noun
(iii) imperative and locative clause with locative noun ezifestileni and possessive descriptive concord za + locative phezulu and adjective -ncinci

Explaining procedure for eye-test: ukuchaza (explaining)
(i) [Uza kujonga imifanekiso emincinci elishumi elinesibini,] (ii) [yonke ijongeka ngokufanayo.] (iii) [Kumfanekiso wokuqala kukho isiqobo esikhulu esinemigca enqamlezileyo …]
(i) Future tense verb and noun with adjective -ncinci and relative -shumi with relative + -na- + noun isibini
(ii) quantifier –onke and neutro-passive verb with adverb with preposition nga-
(iii) Locative preposition ku- + noun with descriptive possessive, which is an ordinal number and the existential copulative –kho and noun with adjective –khulu and relative + -na- + noun with verbal relative

Asking position of check block: ukubuza (asking)
Uyibona phi kumfanekiso wesibini?
object concord + verb –bona with question word phi and locative preposition ku- + noun with descriptive possessive, which is an ordinal number

Describing position of check block: icala (direction)
(i) Ezantsi kwicala lesandla sasekhohlo.
(ii) Phezulu ekhohlo.
(i) locative and locative preposition ku- + noun –icala and descriptive possessive lesandla with descriptive possessive with locative
(ii) locative and locative

Asking preference of time for appointment: ukubuza (asking)
... ufuna ukuza nini kuviwo lwakho lwephepha-mvume?
verb –funa with infinitive with question word nini and locative preposition ku- + noun and possessive concord + second person pronoun and descriptive possessive

Giving options of day for appointment: ukhetho (choice)
Ungeza ngoMvulo okanye ngoLwesithathu.
potential morpheme –nga- + verb –za and preposition nga- with co-ordinated nouns with conjunct okanye

Identifying soonest opening for appointment: ukufanisa (identification)
(i) [...] ndinayo indawo yakho ngoLwesithathu] (ii) [- lixesha leentsuku ezimbini]
(i) associative preposition –na- + pronoun and noun with possessive concord + second person pronoun
(ii) stative identificative copulative concord + noun with descriptive possessive with adjective -bini

Naming items to be brought along to appointment: kunyanzelekile (obligation)
Yiza nencwadi yesazisi, iifoto ezimbini kunye neR25.
imperative yiza with associative preposition na- + noun and descriptive possessive and noun with adjective –bini with kunye na- + noun in coordinated noun phrase

TASK FOUR (See Dialogue Four under section 3.2.2)

Identifying the research topic: umcimbi (topic)
Ndifuna ulwazi ngeAIDS.
verb –funa with noun ulwazi and prepositional phrase with nga- + noun
Asking about availability of resources on the topic: *ubukho* (presence)

(i) [Uyazi ukuba ingaba kukho into endinokuyisebenzisa] (ii) [apha kweli thala leencwadi?]

(i) –*ya* - verb –*azi* and complementizer clause with *ukuba* with existential copulative –*kho* and noun with relative, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent and expresses ability with *na* - infintive

(ii) adverb phrase of place with locative demonstrative *apha* and locative preposition *ku* - demonstrative with noun and descriptive possessive

Describing quantity of resources: *ubuninzi* (quantity)

(i) *Eneneni ndinalo ulwazana kwithala.*

(ii) *Asinalo icandelo lokukhangela elikhulu kakhulu apha kweli thala leencwadi,* ...

(i) locative noun, as sentential adverb of manner, and –*na* - pronoun with noun *ulwazi* + diminutive suffix –*ana* and locative preposition *ku* - noun *ithala*

(ii) negative subject concord + -*na* - pronoun and noun with possessive descriptive, which is a nominal infinitive, with adjective –*khulu* and adverb *kakhulu*, as nominal modifiers and the locative adverb clause with the locative demonstrative *apha* and the locative preposition *ku* - demonstrative with noun and descriptive possessive

Identifying location of exhibition: *indawo* (position)

(i) *Ndibeke kunye umboniso ngemva kwethala leencwadi.*

(ii) *Ngoku umboniso ukwicala lesandla sasekunene kwicandelo labadala,* ...

(i) past tense verb –*beke* with adverb of manner *kunye* and noun and prepositional phrase with nga- + locative *emva* with possessive *kwa* - noun *ithala* and possessive descriptive

(ii) adverb of time *ngoku* and noun with locative preposition –*ku* - noun *icala* with descriptive possessive *lesandla* with descriptive possessive, which is a locative, and locative preposition *ku* - noun with descriptive possessive, which is the adjective –*dala*
Instructing client to follow to resources: *ukuyalela* (instructing)
(i) ... *landela mna ndize ndikubonise.*
(ii) ... *ndilandele.*
(i) imperative + applicative -*el-* with absolute pronoun and successive action in the subjunctive mood
(ii) object concord + imperative

Identifying resources: *ukufanisa* (identification)
(i) *Apha sinazo iincwadi ezimbalwa ngeAIDS.*
(ii) *YiWêreld Fokus le.*
(i) locative demonstrative *apha* and preposition -*na-* + pronoun with noun with relative -*mbalwa* and prepositional clause with *nga*
(ii) stative identificative copula concord + noun with demonstrative

Expressing appreciation: *ukubulela* (thanking)
(i) *Enkosi kakhulu, oku ngumangaliso.*
(ii) *Enkosi ngoncedo lwakho, Mirelda.*
(i) *enkosi* with adverb and impersonal demonstrative with stative identificative copula *ng-* + noun -*umangaliso*
(ii) *enkosi* with prepositional phrase with *nga-* + noun -*uncedo,* as complement

Describing the use of the encyclopaedias: *ukuchaza* (explaining)
(i) [*Uza kuyibona ngemva ezincwadini*] (ii) [*ukuba zicwangciswe ngoonobumba abalandelelanayo.*] (iii) [*Ngoku sikhangela uV. ...*] (iv) [*Umntu kufuneka asebenzise incwadi yesalathisi. ...*] (v) [*Esi sityilalwazi sisebenza njengeWorld Series ...*]
(i) future tense verb -* bona* with prepositional phrase with *nga-* + locative with locative noun
(ii) complementizer clause with *ukuba* with the indicative passive in the past tense and prepositional phrase with *nga-* + noun and verbal relative
(iii) sentential adverb of time *ngoku* and verb -*khangel* with noun
(iv) third person noun and kufuneka with subjunctive clause with noun with descriptive possessive
(v) demonstrative with noun and verb –sebenza with prepositional clause njenga- + noun, as complement

Denying availability of information: ubungekho (absence)
(i) Ngelishwa andifumani nto apha.
(ii) ... akukhangeleki ngathi kukho ulwazi nalapha.
(iii) ... - hayi, akukho nto
(iv) ... kujongela ingathi andizokwazi ukukunceda ngenye yeencwadi zokukhangela.
(i) sentential adverb with preposition nga- and negative verb indefinite noun phrase and locative demonstrative apha
(ii) impersonal subject concord aku- + negative neutro-passive and sentential adverb of comparison ngathi with kukho with noun and na- + locative demonstrative apha
(iii) hayi with impersonal subject concord aku- + existential copulative –kho and indefinite noun phrase
(iv) impersonal subject concord ku- + verb –jong- + applicative –el- with ngathi negative future tense verb –azi with infinitive ukunceda with second person objectival agreement and prepositional phrase with nga- + quantifier –nye with descriptive possessive with descriptive possessive

Expressing sufficiency of information: ukwanela (sufficiency)
(i) [Ndicinga ukuba ezi ncwadi, ozibonisa kum,] (ii) [zona zanele.]
(i) verb –cinga with complementizer clause with ukuba and demonstrative with noun with verbal relative that has objectival agreement with the antecedent and locative preposition ku- + first person pronoun
(ii) indicative clause with absolute pronoun and stative perfect verb

Refusing to lend books: ukulandela (denying)
... akuzokwazi ukuboleka iincwadi.
second person negative subject concord + future tense verb -azi with infinitive
ukuboleka and noun phrase

Explaining refusal to lend books: ukuchaza (explaining)
Ngenxa yokuba akulilo ilungu lethala leencwadi.
sentential preposition ngenxa ya- + ukuba and second person negative subject
concord + stative identificative copula concord + pronoun with noun with
descriptive possessive with descriptive possessive

Identifying options for acquiring information: ukhetho (choice)
(i) [Kuza kufuneka usebenzele apha okanye wenze iikopi.]
(ii) [Okanye ungalilungu ...]
(i) future tense kufuneka with subjunctive clause and copulative demonstrative
and co-ordinated clause with conjunct okanye and subjunctive verb with noun
phrase
(ii) okanye and potential -nga- + stative identificative copula concord + noun

Asking and identifying duration of time for acquiring membership: ubude
bexesha (duration)
(i) Ithatha iintsuku ezingaphi?
(ii) Malunga nesine.
(i) verb -thatha with noun iintsuku and question word -ngaphi, as adjective
(ii) malunga na- + number

Asking number of books allowed to be borrowed: ukubuza (asking)
Zingaphi iincwadi endiza kukwazi ukuziboleka ngxesha elinye?
Question word -ngaphi with noun and verbal relative clause in the future tense
-azi with infinitive, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent of the
relative, denoting ability and prepositional phrase with nga- + noun ixesha and
adjective -nye
Identifying number and type of books allowed to be borrowed: imvume (permission)
(i) [...] sivumela iincwadi ezine kumntu ngamnye.] (ii) [kodwa akunako ukuthatha iincwadi zokukhangela phandle kwethala leencwadi.]

(i) verb -vum- + applicative -el- with noun phrase with adjective -ne and locative concord ku- + noun and nga- + adjective -nye
(ii) conjunct kodwa and negative second person subject concord + -na- + pronoun -ko of the infinitive ukuthatha, denoting inability, with noun with descriptive possessive and locative with possessive kwa- + noun and descriptive possessive

Explaining requirements: kunyanzelekile (obligation)
(i) [Kubulungu, kukho ikhadi ekufuneka ulizalise.] (ii) [Kuza kufuneka izingqiniso.] (iii) [Singathanda ukuba uhlala eHermanus, ukuba usinike ikopi yamanzi ...]

(i) locative concord ku- + noun ubulungu and kukho with noun with verbal relative clause -funeka and verb in subjunctive mood with objectival agreement with antecedent of the relative
(ii) future tense with neutro-passive -funeka and complement noun phrase
(iii) potential morpheme -nga- + verb -thanda with complementizer phrase with adverb of time ukuba, denoting precondition, with situative clause -hlala, and complementizer ukuba with subjunctive clause -nike with noun phrase with descriptive possessive

Requesting a card for membership application: ukucela (requesting)
... ndinike elinye laloo makhadi.

object concord + imperative -nike and quantifier -nye with possessive descriptive + demonstrative with plural noun

Explaining how to complete the card: ukuchaza (explaining)
(i) ... kukho indawo nalapha yesingqiniso – lowo ngumntu ongahlali naye kwidilesi enye nawe.
(ii) *Nceda bhala phantsi igama kunye nedilesi yakhe kule migca.*

(i) *kukho* with noun, and *na-* + locative demonstrative, with descriptive possessive and demonstrative with stative identificative copula + noun with negative verbal relative clause with *hlala* and *na-* + pronoun, for emphasis, and locative preposition *ku-* + noun *idilesi* with quantifier *nye* and preposition *na-* + second person pronoun

(ii) *nceda* with imperative *bhala* with locative and coordinated noun clause with *kunye na-* and possessive concord + third person pronoun and locative preposition *ku-* + demonstrative with noun

Requesting to make photocopies: *ukucela* (requesting)

*Ngoko ke ndingathanda ukukopa amaphepha amathathu kwezi ncwadi.*

Sentential adverb of time and potential morpheme *nga-* + verb *thanda* with infinitive clause with complement noun phrase with noun and adjective *thathu* and locative preposition *ku-* + demonstrative with noun

Identifying price of a photocopy: *ixabiso* (price)

*Lishumi elinesibini ikopi nganye.*

Stative identificative copula concord with noun and adjective with *na* + numeral with noun and *nga-* + quantifier *nye*

**TASK FIVE** (See Dialogue Five under section 3.2.2)

Answering the phone: *ukufanisa* (identification)

*Molo, nguMagerman apha.*

*molo* and stative identificative copula concord *ng-* + noun, the name – *uMagerman* and demonstrative locative *apha*

Identifying the caller: *ukufanisa* (identification)

... *ngunkosikazi Swart kwisebe lokugcina imali.*
stative identificative copula concord + noun and locative preposition ku- + noun
-isebe with descriptive possessive, the infinitive -ukugcina, and noun

Asking for help: uncedo (help)
(i) ... ungakwazi ukundinceda.
(ii) [Ungandinceda?] (ii) [Kufuneka ndenze ntoni?]
(i) potential morpheme -nga- + verb -azi which has objectival agreement with
the infinitive -nceda
(ii) potential morpheme -nga- + first person object concord + -nceda
(iii) impersonal subject concord ku- + neutro-passive -funeka with subjunctive
clause -enze and question word ntoni

Describing the problem: ukuchaza (explaining)
(i) [... xa bendifika emsebenzini ngale ntsasa,] (ii) [ndiye ndafumanisa ndiye
ndabeka isitshixo sedrowa yedesika yam] (iii) [endaweni engeyiyo] (iv) [kwaye
ngoku andikwazi ukusifumana.]
(i) sentential preposition, adverb of time xa with situative clause in the compound
recent past tense -fika and prepositional phrase with nga- + demonstrative and
noun, denoting time
(ii) successive actions in the past takes the consecutive mood ndafumanisa and
ndabeka, and noun phrase with descriptive possessive, with descriptive
possessive and possessive concord + first person pronoun
(iii) locative phrase with locative noun with negative relative clause with
-ngе- + stative identificative copula concord + pronoun
(iv) sentential conjunct kwaye and adverb of time ngoku and negative verb -azi
with objectival agreement with the infinitive -fumana

Describing the kind of key: uhlobo (type)
Lolunye uhlobo olutsha lweeqhagi zedrowa.
stative copula concord + quantifier -nyе with noun uhlobo with adjective and
descriptive possessive with descriptive possessive
Asking about the availability of the type of key: ubukho (presence)
Unalo uhlobo lweso sitshixo?
-na- + pronoun with noun and descriptive possessive + pronoun with noun

Asking about the location of the problem or the position of the desk lock: indawo (position)
(i) Ngubani uNkosikazi Swart?
(ii) Indawoni idrowa?
(i) stative identificative copula concord + question word –bani with noun
(ii) noun indawo + -ni, denoting questioning, and subject noun

Describing the location: icala (direction)
Ukwiofisi eseealeni kweofisi kaDesiré.
locative preposition –ku- + noun –iofisi with relative, which is in the locative form,
with possessive concord kwa- + noun –iofisi and possessive concord ka- + noun

Naming the necessary tools: ukudwelisa (listing)
... thatha isikrufeli sakho, esisentsimbi kunye nesitara ...
imperative with noun and possessive concord with second person pronoun, and
relative, which is a descriptive possessive, in a coordinated clause with kunye na- + noun

Giving instructions for the work procedure: ukuyalela (instructing)
(i) ... yenza isikhumbuzo ukuze sikwazi ukwenza ...
(ii) ... yiya kuPrag Lock And Heel Bar kwaye umfune isitshixo uMnumzana.
(iii) Unike uMnumzana Neethling uluhlu lwesitshixo esithengiweyo ...
(i) imperative and noun and conjunct ukuze with subjunctive complement –azi,
which has objectival agreement with the infinitive ukwenza, denoting ability
(ii) imperative and locative preposition ku- + noun phrase and kwaye with
successive action in subjunctive mood, which has objectival agreement with the
direct object with the indirect noun phrase adjacent to the ditransitive verb
(iii) successive action in subjunctive mood with direct object adjacent to the ditransitive verb

Asking about the work order: ukubuza (asking)
*Ingaba iodolo yomsebenzi seyenziwe?*

*ingaba* noun with possessive descriptive and auxiliary verb *se-* + situative past tense

Confirming the work order: ukuginisekisa (confirming)
*Ewe Louis, yenziwe.*

*ewe* with the passive past tense verb *-enza*

Inquiring about comprehension: ukugonda (understanding)

*... uyazi ukuba isebenza kanjani, kulungile?*

*verb* *-azi* with complementizer phrase with *ukuba* with indicative complement and adverb *ka-* + *njani* and impersonal subject concord *ku-* + stative verb *-lungile*

Reporting that the problem is solved: ukubika (reporting)
*Kulungile Nkosikazi Swart, yonke into ihlenga-hlengisiwe ngoku.*

impersonal subject concord *ku-* + stative verb *-lungile* and quantifier *-onke* with noun and verb, where root is dubbled to denote emphasis and adverb of time *ngoku*

**TASK SIX** (See Dialogue Six under section 3.2.2)

Stating the purpose for the meeting or the hearing: injongo (purpose)

(i) *Sidibene apha namhlanje sizokuva ngoluleko lukaNkosikazi Marais.*

(ii) *[Siza kuphanda intshukumo soluleko ngokudibene nexwebhu lesimangalo ngokuchasene nommangalelwa, uNkosikaza Marais,] (iii) *[ukugqiba ekubeni khange kubekho kungakhathali kubandakanye.]
(i) perfect verb and locative demonstrative with adverb of time, and future tense verb -va with prepositional phrase with nga- + noun phrase –ululeko with possessive concord –ka- + noun
(ii) future tense verb –phanda with noun phrase with descriptive possessive with prepositional phrase with nga- + nominal infinitive with prepositional phrase with na- + noun phrase with descriptive possessive and prepositional phrase with nga- + infinitive with na- + noun phrase
(iii) clausal infinitive and conjunct ekubeni and auxiliary verb khangen with negative subjunctive complement clause with verbal relative

Introducing the participants and stating their roles: ukufanisa (identifying)
(i) [Mna ndinguElsabé Viljoen wesebe lezobuntu] (ii) [ndiza kuba ngusihlalo wale komiti.]
(iii) Ummangali unguMnumzana Passens.

Expressing the intention of self-representation: ukuzimela (self-representation)
... ndiza kuzithethela ngokwam.
reflexive –zi- + future tense verb –theth- + applicative –el- and prepositional phrase with ngokwa- + first person pronoun, to express "self"

Inquiring whether enough notice was given: ukwaneliseko (satisfaction)
... uxorile kuba unikwe ixesha elaneleyo lokuzilungiselela olu dliwano-ndlebe?
stative verb and conjunct and noun phrase with verbal relative with descriptive possessive, which is a clausal infinitive with reflexive –zi- and double applicative –el- with demonstrative with noun
Confirming that enough notice was given: **ukucinga** (opinion)

*eće,* *ndicinga ukuba ndibe nexesha elaneleyo.*

*ewe* and verb **-cinga** and complementizer phrase with **ukuba** and indicative past tense copulative verb with **na-** + noun phrase with verbal relative

Instructing the complainant to read the charge sheet: **ukuyalela** (instructing)

*ndakucela ummangali afunde uxeshe lesemangalo ...*

future tense verb **-cela** with noun and subjunctive complement clause with noun phrase with descriptive possessive

Reading the charge sheet: **ukufunda** (reading)

(i) *[Uxeshe lwetyala lufunda ukuba ...]* (ii) *[... ngomhla wesine kuSeptember ...]*

(iii) **Uzithethelela njani: unetyala okanye awunatyala?**

(i) noun phrase with descriptive possessive and verb **-funda** with complementizer phrase with **ukuba** and indicative past tense

(ii) prepositional phrase with **nga-** + noun phrase **-umhla** with descriptive possessive, which is an ordinal number **isine** and locative preposition **ku-** + noun

(iii) reflexive **-zi-** + verb **-theth-** + double applicative **-el-** and second person subject concord + **-na-** + noun **-tyala** and second person negative subject concord + **-na-** + noun **-tyala**

Asking the accused to state her case: **ukucela** (requesting)

(i) *[Ekukhanyeni kokuzithethelela kwakho ekungabi natya/a,]*

(ii) *[sakukunika ngoku ithuba lokubeka isehlo sakho kuthi]*

(iii) *[ucacise ngamazwi akho ukuba kwenzeka ntoni ngalo mini.]*

(i) locative nominal infinitive with possessive concord **kwa-** + clausal infinitive with possessive concord + second person pronoun and verbal relative with prepositional phrase with **na-** + noun

(ii) future tense verb **-nika** with indirect object **ithuba** with descriptive possessive, which is a clausal infinitive with noun phrase with possessive concord and second person pronoun and locative preposition **ku-** + first person plural pronoun
(iii) successive verb in the subjunctive mood with prepositional phrase with nga- + noun phrase with possessive concord + second person pronoun and complementizer phrase with ukuba and indicative past tense neutro-passive verb with question word ntoni and prepositional phrase with nga- + demonstrative with noun

Describing the event in question: ukuchaza (explaining)
(i) [Ndixelele izihlobo zam, iNkosazana Steyn, ukuba ...] (ii) [Kwigungi lokulindela likaqgirha lalizele kakhulu kwaye kwanyanzelekile ukuba ndilinde. (iii) Ebesentlanganisweni kwaye khange ndicinge ukuba ...

(i) past tense verb -xelel- with noun phrase and complementizer with ukuba and indicative complement clause in the future tense
(ii) locative preposition ku- + noun phrase -igumi with descriptive possessive with possessive concord -ka- + noun and remote past compound tense with successive action in consecutive mood, verb -nyanzelekile with ukuba and subjunctive complement clause
(iii) recent past compound stative copula + locative noun and khange with subjunctive complement clause, verb -cing- with complementizer phrase with ukuba with indicative complement clause in the future tense

Asking for extenuating circumstances: ubukho (presence)
(i) [Ingaba kukho iimeko zokuxolela ongathanda ukuba singazicinga] (ii) [phambi kokuba sibuye nesigwebo?]

(i) ingaba with kukho and noun phrase with descriptive possessive and relative phrase with complementizer phrase with ukuba and indicative complement clause, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent noun phrase of the relative
(ii) phambi kokuba with subjunctive complement clause -buy- with prepositional phrase with na- + noun isigwebo
Pronouncing the verdict: *isigwebo* (verdict)

*Ndifanza phantsi kwale meko isilumkiso somlomo esikubophelela iinyanga ezintandathu, sanele.*

reflexive concord –zi– + verb –va and locative with possessive concord kwa– + preposition with noun and noun phrase with descriptive possessive and verbal relative phrase with noun *iinyanga* and adjective –thandathu with verb phrase –anele.

Expressing satisfaction with the verdict: *ukwaneliseko* (satisfaction)

... ndixolile sisiggibo.

stative verb with stative copula concord + noun

**TASK SEVEN** (See Dialogue Seven under section 3.2.2)

Stating the purpose of communication: *injongo* (purpose)

*Ndizele imvume yekhefu lokugula.*

past tense verb –ze– + applicative –el– and noun phrase with possessive descriptive with possessive descriptive

Reporting that sick leave is exhausted: *ukubika* (reporting)

*Ndiyaxolisa ikhefu lokugula lakho liphelele.*

-ya–, which denotes emphasis, + verb + causative –is and noun phrase with descriptive possessive and possessive concord + second person pronoun with stative verb

Explaining sick leave: *ukucacisa* (explaining)

*Ufumana iintsuku ezilishumi ngonyaka ...*

verb and noun with relative phrase, with stative identificative copula concord + -ishumi, and prepositional phrase with nga– + noun –unyaka
Naming conditions for taking sick leave: kunyanzelekile (obligation)
(i) … kufuneka uxelele umongameli wakho.
(ii) [Kodwa nokuba kunjalo ukuba uggirha ebenokukubhukisha ungaphangeli usuku …] (iii) […]uthathe njengekhufu elingahlawulelwayo okanye usebenzise ikhefu leholide lakho lesiqhelo.
(i) kufuneka with subjunctive complement clause and noun phrase with possessive concord and second person pronoun
(ii) sentential conjunct kodwa and conjunct nokuba with indicative complement clause, with impersonal subject concord ku- + -njalo and complementizer ukuba with recent past compound tense verb with -na- + infinitive, denoting ability, and subjunctive mood that coincides with the purposive clause of the negative verb -phangeli with noun
(iii) subjunctive mood of verb -thathe and preposition phrase with njenga-, denoting comparison, + noun phrase with negative verbal relative and conjunct okanye with subjunctive mood of verb with noun phrase with possessive descriptive with possessive concord + second person pronoun with possessive descriptive

Describing reason for leave: ukuchaza (explaining)
(i) … ilungu losapho luthe Iwasweleka kwaye ndifuna ukuya emngcwabeni.
(ii) Uza kuba kulo Lwesibini eMonti.
(i) noun phrase with possessive descriptive with past tense verb and conjunct kwaye with verb -funa with clausal infinitive and locative noun
(ii) future tense copulative verb -ba with locative preposition ku- + demonstrative with noun and locative noun

Explaining the conditions for special leave: ukuchaza (explaining)
(i) Unelungelo iweentsuku ezintathu kwimvume eyodwa ngonyaka …
(ii) … kwimeko zokufa kumalungu osapho athe ngqo, anjengomama …
(iii) … okanye mhlawumbi xa inkosikazi yakho ibeleka.
(i) \(-\text{na-} \) + noun \textit{ilungelo} with possessive descriptive with adjective \(\text{–thathu} \) and locative preposition \(\text{ku-} \) + noun \(\text{-imvume} \) with relative, which is the quantifier \(\text{-odwa} \) and prepositional phrase with \(\text{nga-} \) + noun

(ii) locative preposition \(\text{ku-} \) + noun phrase with descriptive possessive and locative concord \(\text{ku-} \) + noun phrase with possessive descriptive and relative, which is \(\text{-the} \) with the ideophone and preposition \(\text{njenga-} \), denoting comparison, + noun \(\text{-umama} \)

(iii) sentential conjunct \textit{okanye} and adverb \textit{mlawumbi} with conjunct \textit{xa}, with noun phrase with possessive concord + second person pronoun, with situative complement clause

Stating the number of days available: \textit{ubukho} (presence)

\[ ... \text{uneentsuku ezimbini elungelweni lakho} ... \]

\(-\text{na-} \) + noun with adjective \(\text{-bini} \) with locative noun and possessive concord + second person pronoun

Requesting special leave: \textit{ukucela} (requesting)

\textit{Ndingathanda ukubeka iintsuku ezimbini zekhefu elilodwa}.

potential morpheme \(-\text{nga-} \) + verb \(\text{-thanda} \) with infinitive and noun with adjective \(\text{-bini} \) and possessive descriptive with relative, which is the quantifier \(\text{-odwa} \)

Explaining the leave request form: \textit{ukucacisa} (explaining)

(i) \[ ... \text{ukuba likhefu lokugula ngoko ke kufuneka uncamathisele iphepha likagqirha ukuba ubungekho iintsuku ezingaphezu kwesibini}; ... \]

(ii) \[ \text{ubhala phantsi isizathu sekhefu elilodwa ngezantsi kwalapha apha kulo mgca}; ... \]

(iii) \[ \text{umongameli wakho kufuneka asayine kulo mgca}. \]

(i) sentential conjunct \textit{ukuba}, denoting condition, and stative identicative copula concord + noun phrase with possessive descriptive and adverb of time \textit{ngoko} and \textit{kufuneka} with subjunctive complement clause with noun with possessive cocord \(-\text{ka-} \) with noun and conjunct \textit{ukuba}, denoting condition, with negative
compound recent past tense existential –kho and noun phrase with negative relative, which is a locative with possessive kwa- + numeral -isibini
(ii) verb –bhala and locative phantsi and noun phrase with descriptive possessive with relative, which is the quantifier –odwa with prepositional phrase with nga- + locative with possessive kwa- + locative demonstrative and locative demonstrative with locative preposition ku- + demonstrative with noun
(iii) noun phrase with possessive concord + second person pronoun and kufuneka with subjunctive complement clause and locative preposition ku- + demonstrative with noun

Stating the importance of the supervisor’s role: ukubaluleka (importance)
(i) Umongameli wakho kufuneka axelele kwaye kufuneka alivume ikhefu…
(ii) Khumbula ukuya kumongameli wakho kuqala ulungise kunye naye.
(i) noun phrase with possessive concord and second person pronoun and kufuneka with subjunctive clause complement
(ii) imperative with clausal infinitive and locative preposition ku- + noun phrase and impersonal subject concord ku- + adverb –gala and successive action in subjunctive mood with associative preposition kunye na- + third person pronoun

Asking for a leave request form: ukucela (requesting)
… ndingayifumana enye yezifomu ngoku ndiyacela.
potential morpheme –nga- + object concord, denoting emphasis, + verb –fumana and quantifier –nye with possessive concord + noun and adverb of time ngoku and verb phrase

TASK EIGHT (See Dialogue Eight under section 3.2.2)

Identifying purpose of the call: injongo (purpose)
Ndifuna ukubuza malunga netyala lamanzi eliphezulu endithe ndalifumana kule nyanga.
verb -funa with clausal infinitive ukubuza and associative preposition malunga na- + noun phrase with descriptive possessive and relative, i.e. the locative, and a relative phrase with -the and the consecutive, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent of the locative relative, and the locative concord ku- + demonstrative with noun

Identifying the problem: ukufanisa (identification)
Lityala lamawaka amabini eerandi!
Stative identificative copula concord + noun with descriptive possessive + noun with adjective -bini and descriptive possessive

Describing payment: ukubhatala (paying)
Ndisuke ndafumana ityala, kodwa liyaxhuzulwa ebhankini.
auxiliary verb in past tense -suke with consecutive complement clause and noun and conjunct kodwa and indicative passive verb -xhuzulwa and locative noun

Inquiring about possible causes for the problem: ukubuza (asking)
(i) Awunazingxaki endlwini yakho?
(ii) Khange ukhe wenze imbonakalo yomhlaba?
(i) second person negative subject concord + -na- + noun -zingxaki and locative noun with possessive concord and second person pronoun
(ii) auxiliary verb khexange with subjunctive complement clause, i.e. the auxiliary verb -khe with subjunctive complement clause -enze and noun phrase with descriptive possessive

Denying possibility of these causes: ukulandula (denying)
(i) Hayi, nakanye kwenjalo.
(ii) Hayi, ngokuqinisekileyo azikho iitephu ezivuzayo.
(i) hayi and na- + adverb concord -ka- + -nye with possessive kwa- + -njalo
(ii) hayi and nga- + sentential adverb and negative subject concord + existential -kho and subject noun with verbal relative, as nominal modifier
Asking position of water meter: **ukubuza** (asking)

*Uyayazi ukuba iphi isilinganisi-manzi sakho?*

verb **-azi** with complementizer phrase with **ukuba** and indicative complement clause with question word **-phi** and noun phrase with possessive concord and second person pronoun

Acknowledging position of water meter: **indawo** (position)

*Sisecaleni kwendlu, ewe?*

subject concord + **-s-** + locative with possessive **kwa-** + noun **-indlu** and **ewe**

Instructions for identifying leakage on the water meter: **ukuyalela** (instructing)

(i) *Yiya kwisilinganisi-manzi kodwa kufuneka ungagungxuli isihlalo sangasese ...*

(ii) *...Lijongeka okwesixobo sokubala uzungulezo emotweni.*

(iii) *Phantsi kwaso kukho amavili amancinci.*

(iv) *Ukuba amavili ayajikeleza ethetha into yokuba unamanzi avuzayo.*

(i) imperative with locative **ku-** + noun **-isilinganisi-manzi** and conjunct **kodwa** and **kufuneka** with negative subjunctive complement clause

(ii) neutro-passive with preposition **okwa-**, denoting comparison, + noun phrase with descriptive possessive and locative noun

(iii) locative **phantsi** with possessive **kwa-** + pronoun and impersonal subject concord **ku-** + existential copula **-kho** and noun phrase with adjective **-ncinci**

(iv) sentential conjunct **ukuba**, denoting condition, with complement situative clause **ethetha**

Identifying cause of problem: **unobangela** (cause)

*Ngokuqinisekileyo ibonisa ukuba unethontsi endlweni yakho.*

nga- + sentential adverb and verb **-bon-** causative **-is-** with complementizer phrase with **ukuba** with indicative complement clause, with **-na-** + noun phrase with locative noun with possessive concord + second person pronoun
Explaining that the problem is the client’s responsibility: *imfanelo* (responsibility)

*Ngelishwa ngumthwalo wakho.* ...

*nga-* + sentential adverb and stative copula concord + noun phrase with possessive concord + second person pronoun

Advising seeking immediate professional help: *ukucebisa* (advising)

(i) *Ndikucebisa ukuba ufune umtywini ngokukhawuleza okukhulu.*

(ii) *... nceda tsalela umnxeba umtywini ngoku.*

(i) verb *-ceb-* + causative *-is-* and complementizer phrase with *ukuba* and complement subjunctive clause, to coincide with the purposive clause of the verb *-fune*, and noun with adverb and adjective *-khulu*, modifying the adverb

(ii) *nceda* and imperative *-tsal-* + applicative *-el-* and adjacent direct object with indirect object and adverb of time *ngoku*

Asking advice for settling account: *ukucela* (requesting)

*... ndiza kwenza ntoni malunga neli tyala?*

future tense verb *-enza* with question word *ntoni* and prepositional phrase with *malunga* *na-* + demonstrative with noun

Expressing inability to pay account: *ukungabi nako* (inability)

*... Ayikho indlela endinokubhatala ngayo eli tyala.*

negative subject concord + existential copulative *-kho* with subject noun and verbal relative with *nga-* + pronoun, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent of the relative, and demonstrative with noun

Giving instructions for dealing with high account: *ukuyalela* (instructing)

(i) *Kufuneka uthumele ileta kwisebe lamatyala kwaye ucacise ingxaki yakho.*

(ii) *Kwakhona ncamathisela nawaphi amaphepha owafumeneyo ...*

(i) *kufuneka* with subjunctive complement clause *-thum-* + applicative *-el-* and direct object and locative preposition *ku-* + noun phrase *-isebe* with descriptive
possessive and conjunct *kwaye* with coordinated subjunctive clause with noun phrase with possessive concord and second person pronoun
(ii) sentential adverb *kwakhona* and imperative and *na-* + the quantitative *-phi* and noun phrase with verbal relative, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent noun

**TASK NINE** (See Dialogue Nine under section 3.2.2)

Stating the purpose of the meeting: *injongo* (purpose)
(i) *[Enkosi ngokudibana nam ngale mva kwemini]* (ii) *[sizokuxoxa izicwangciso zenkqubela-phambili yobomi bakho]*
(i) *enkosi* with prepositional phrase with *nga-* + infinitive *-ukudibana* and prepositional complement clause with *na-* + first person pronoun and prepositional phrase with *nga-* + demonstrative and locative with possessive *kwa-* + noun *imini*
(ii) future tense verb *-xoxa* noun phrase with possessive descriptive, with possessive descriptive with possessive concord + second person pronoun

Asking current qualification: *ukubuza* (asking)
*Nceda ndinike isalathiso sesingqini sakho sangoku.*
*nceda* and imperative with object concord and noun phrase with possessive descriptive, with possessive concord + second person pronoun and possessive descriptive, with adverb of time *-ngoku*

Stating current qualification: *isiggini* (qualification)
... *isiggini sam sangoku, isiggini sesikolo libanga lokuqala.*
noun phrase with possessive concord + first person pronoun and possessive descriptive, and noun phrase with possessive descriptive and stative identificative copula concord + noun phrase with possessive descriptive, which is the ordinal number *-ukuqala*
Asking educational interest: ukubuza (asking)
... lelifi icala othanda ukwandisa ngalo izifundo zakho?
static identificative copula concord + quantitative question word –phi with noun and relative phrase with infinitive and preposition nga- + pronoun, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent noun of the relative, and noun phrase with possessive concord + second person pronoun

Stating career choice: inkqubela-phambili yobomi (career)
(i) ... ndingathanda ukuba ngumtywini.
(ii) ... umdla wam ngokuqinisekileyo uwela ekuben ndibe ngumtywini.
(i) potential morpheme –nga- + verb –thanda infinitive copulative –ba with static identificative copula concord + noun
(ii) noun phrase with possessive concord + first person pronoun and nga- + adverb and verb + applicative –el- with locative nominal infinitive with subjunctive complement clause, coinciding with the purposive clause of the copulative –be and static identificative copula concord + noun

Describing educational needs: imfuneko (need)
Ukwenza uludwe lwezifundo zobutywini, kuqala udinga ukuba wenze uhlobo lwenkqubo yokubhala nokufunda ephakamileyo.
causal infinitive –enza and noun phrase with possessive descriptif, with possessive descriptif and impersonal subject concord ku- + -gala and verb –dinga with complementizer phrase with ukuba and subjunctive complement clause, which coincides with the purposive clause of the verb –enze, and noun phrase with possessive descriptive, with possessive descriptive in coordinated infinitive clause and relative

Identifying time for studies: ixesha (time)
... sicinga ukuyenza nxesha lomsebenzi rhoqo ngoLwesithathu.
verb –cinga with infinitive –enza and prepositional phrases with nga- + noun, denoting time and adverb of time rhoqo
Describing preparations for education: amalungiselelo (preparations)
(i) Inyathelo elilandelayo lam kukubhala ingxelo ...
(ii) Ukuba sinokuba nayo imvume ngoko sakuthi sixelele ikomiti eqeqeshayo ...

(i) noun phrase with verbal relative and possessive concord + first person pronoun and stative identificative copula concord + nominal infinitive and noun phrase
(ii) sentential conjunct ukuba, denoting condition, and -na- + infinitive -ba, denoting ability, with prepositional phrase with na- + pronoun and noun, and adverb of time ngoko with successive verb in subjunctive mood and noun phrase with verbal relative

Explaining training: inggeqesho (training)
Angaqala ukukunikia imisebenzana eqhubela phambili kakhulu ngokukunikia umsebenzi wezandla otyhilekileyo.
third person subject concord + potential morpheme -nga- + verb -gala and infinitive with second person object concord with noun phrase with verbal relative and locative with adverb kakhulu and prepositional phrase with nga- + infinitive and noun phrase with descriptive possessive and verbal relative

Asking current experience: ukubuza (asking)
(i) Kukangakanani ufumana amathuba angako?
(ii) Kulixesha elide kangakanani ulapho?

(i) impersonal subject concord ku- + question word -kangakanani with situative complement clause and noun with relative
(ii) impersonal subject concord ku- + stative identificative copula concord + noun -ixesha with adjective -de with question word kangakanani and second person subject concord + locative demonstrative

Describing current experience: amava (experience)
(i) ... andikawafumani amathuba anjalo.
(ii) ... bendingaphangeli ixesha elide.
(iii) *Ndibe kunye nomtywini ixesha elifutshane kakhulu.*

(i) negative first person subject concord + the exclusive –ka- + object concord + negative verb –fumani and object and relative

(ii) recent past compound tense with negative morpheme –nga- and negative verb –phangeli and noun phrase with adjective –de, as nominal modifier

(iii) past tense copulative –be with associative preposition kunye na- + noun and noun with adjective –futshane and adverb kakhulu

Planning follow-up meeting: icebo (plan)

(i) … *ndakubeka ixesha lentlanganiso yokuwulandela kunye naye.*

(ii) … *ndiyakwazisa ngokakhawuleza okukhulu ukuba enye intlanganiso inini …*

(i) future tense verb –beka and noun phrase with descriptive possessive, with descriptive possessive and associative preposition kunye na- + second person pronoun

(ii) verb –az- + causative –is- and nga- + adverb with adjective –khulu and complementizer phrase with ukuba and indicative complement clause with question word –nini

Identifying attendants for follow-up meeting: ukufanisa (identification)

(i) [Ndicinga abantu abafanelekileyo bakuba ngumongameli wam ngokuthe ngqo]

(ii) [kwaye kwakhona umphathi wesebe endikulo.]  

(i) verb –cinga with noun phrase with verbal relative and indicative complement clause, with future tense copulative –ba and stative copula concord + noun phrase with possessive concord + first person pronoun and nga- + adverb, which is the infinitive –the with ideophone

(ii) kwaye and adverb kwakhona and noun phrase with descriptive possessive, with relative which has objectival agreement with the antecedent
TASK TEN (See Dialogue Ten under section 3.2.2)

Asking a house: ukucela (requesting)

Ndize kufuna indlu.
past tense verb –ze and infinitive with and noun

Denying request for a house: ukulandula (denying)

... mandikuxelele ukuba akukho mathuba ezindlu akhoyo ngalo mzuzu.
hortative mandikuxelele and complementizer clause with ukuba and indicative complement clause with negative impersonal subject concord + existential copulative –kho and indefinite noun phrase with possessive descriptive and relative, which is the existential copulative, and prepositional phrase with nga- + demonstrative with noun, denoting time

Explaining the process of obtaining a house: ukuchaza (explaining)

(i) Into esiqhele ukuyenza kukubeka kwegama lakho kuluhlu lokulinda, ...
(ii) ... kwaye njengemisebenzi emitsha, amathuba, aba khona; oya kuthi uyicingwe.
(i) noun phrase with relative –qhele followed by the infinitive, and stative identificative copula concord + nominal infinitive with possessive descriptive with possessive concord + second person pronoun and locative preposition ku- + noun phrase with possessive descriptive
(ii) conjunct kwaye and prepositional njenga-, denoting comparison, + noun phrase with adjective –tsha, and noun with copulative –ba and existential khona with verbal relative -thi in the future tense with passive situative complement clause, which has objectival agreement with the antecedent noun imisebenzi

Asking waiting period: ubude bexesha (length of time)

(i) Iya kuthatha ixesha elingakanani?
(ii) Ukuba ndifake igama lam kuluhlu lokulinda namhlanje kulindeke ukuba ndilinde ixesha elingakanani?
(iii) Lude kangakanani olu luhlu?
(i) future tense verb -thatha with noun phrase with relative, which is the question word -ngakanani
(ii) sentential conjunct ukuba, denoting condition, with situative complement clause and noun phrase with possessive concord + first person pronoun and locative preposition ku- + noun phrase with possessive descriptive and adverb of time namhlanje, and impersonal subject concord ku- + stative neutro-passive with complementizer clause with ukuba and subjunctive complement clause, which coincides with the purposive clause of the verb -linde and noun phrase with relative question word -ngakanani
(iii) stative copula + adjective -de with adverb question word kangakanani and demonstrative with noun

Instructing completion of waiting list request form: ukuyalela (instruction)

... kufuneka uzalise isicelo sefomu yokulinda ...

kufuneka with subjunctive complement clause and noun phrase with possessive descriptive, with possessive descriptive

Requesting temporary housing: ukucela (requesting)

(i) Mhlawumbi ndingazibekela indawo yam kwenye indawo, ngalo mzuzu.
(ii) Ingaba owona wona mmandla endinokwenza kuwo loo nto okanye ayinamsebenzi?

(i) Sentential adverb, denoting possibility, and potential morpheme -nga- + reflexive -zi- + verb -bek- + applicative -el- with noun phrase with possessive concord + first person pronoun and locative concord ku- + quantifier -nye and noun, and prepositional phrase with nga- + demonstrative with noun, denoting time
(ii) ingaba with emphatic absolute pronoun, which is doubled for emphasis, and noun phrase with verbal relative with -na- + infinitive, denoting potential, and locative concord ku- + pronoun, which has objectival agreement with the
antecedent noun of the relative, and demonstrative with noun and conjunct okanye with coordinated negative verb phrase with -na- + indefinite noun

Explaining temporary structures on private property: ukucacisa (explaining)
(i) ... ukuba uthathe isigqibo sokumisa igumbi kwadade wenu, apho udade wenu anomhlaba ...
(ii) ... kufuneka ufumane imvume yokwenza oko.
(i) sentential conjunct ukuba, denoting time, with situative complement clause with noun phrase with possessive descriptive with noun and locative preposition kwa- + noun phrase with possessive concord + second person plural pronoun, and locative demonstrative apho with noun phrase with possessive concord + second person plural pronoun and relative with -na-
(ii) kufuneka with subjunctive complement clause with noun phrase with possessive descriptive and impersonal demonstrative

Refusing temporary structures on public property: ukwala (refusing)
... asikuvumeli ukuba wakhe isakhiwo sexeshana kumhlaba kawonke wonke.
negative first person plural subject concord + second person object concord + negative verb -vum- + applicative -el- and complementizer clause with ukuba with subjunctive complement clause, which coincides with the purposive clause -akhe and noun phrase with possessive descriptive and locative preposition ku- + noun phrase with possessive ka- + quantifier -onke, which is doubled for emphasis

Noting transit camp as a temporary housing option: ukugwalasela (noting)
(i) Siyazama kwaye senze amathuba okuthatha inkampu ...
(ii) ...ngenkampu yenza amathuba kubantu abathe ngokwendalo abakwazi ukufumana izindlu ngokukhawuleza.
(i) verb -zama and conjunct kwaye and successive action in subjunctive mood and noun phrase with descriptive possessive and noun
(ii) preposition nga- + noun and indicative verb and noun and locative concord ku- + noun phrase with relative and nga- + adverb and negative verb -azi with objectival agreement with infinitive ukufumana, denoting inability, with noun and nga- + adverb

4.4 PROMOTING SELF-RESPONSIBILITY AND SELF-DEVELOPMENT WITH LEARNERS

Breen (1987) explored learning tasks and Grenfell (2000) argued for learning strategies to promote self-responsibility and self-development with language learners. A task-based syllabus for language learning for specific purposes has to include learning tasks that focus on the learner's awareness of language learning. Such learning tasks are presented parallel with communication tasks. They focus on form and prepare the learner for the communication task or aim at solving some earlier problems in communication. Some of these tasks can be sequenced, along with the communication tasks, according to the learners' ability and the level of processability of the language involved. The essential language functions that were identified under section 3.2.3 provide an indication of the content of these learning tasks. Other learning tasks will be unsequenced and determined as they arise during the execution of the communication tasks. The different stages of development of the language learners make such supportive tasks inevitable.

Learning strategies are about learning to learn a language. These include acquiring skills like finding and using resources, for instance dictionaries or textbooks, and sharing meaning and experiences both of and about language. Language, and more specifically vocational language, is as dynamic as the world it functions within and learners have to be able to continuously expand their knowledge and skills in a language. The real language teacher is the world they work in and learners have to be taught how to cope with, and learn from these real life situations.
4.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter a task design for teaching beginner’s isiXhosa at local government departments were illustrated according to the needs identified at the Overstrand Municipality in the Western Cape.

Selecting tasks and the grading of tasks are problems that need to be addressed in task-based language teaching. The selection of ten target tasks in this study was based on the study that was performed at Overstrand Municipality. The population learners were described as to identify the vocational context for language learning for specific purposes. Despite the variety of professions and functions of municipal workers the study at Overstrand Municipality showed common contents of communication. The target tasks were selected as to represent the contents of language functions, notions and acts that were noted in external and internal communication of all the participants of the study.

The tasks were described according to the principles for pedagogic task typology. Suggestions were made in some cases about the possible grading or tentative task complexity according to the principles for referential communication. The target tasks were analyzed according to possible move-structures and essential language structures; and this analysis provides a basis for the grading of tasks and for learning tasks, which should be included in a task-based syllabus.

The emphasis of this interpretation of task-based second language teaching falls on relevancy and self-responsibility. This task-design aimed at providing communication contents that local government workers can identify with as to motivate the language learners to participate in the communication tasks, but also to take responsibility for their own learning and development.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.1 TASK-BASED INPUT AND INTERACTION FOR PROMOTING SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

An approach to second language learning and teaching has to satisfy the conditions of infinite language forms that are acquired in a limited time with finite target language input. It was argued in this study that the Universal Grammar provides a perspective of the second language learner as autonomous with an innate ability to acquire a language. It was also argued that the Input and Interaction approach to second language acquisition (SLA) describes how the effort to make input comprehensible during discourse promotes learning and views the learner as an individual and a social being.

The study has shown that target language input has to be relevant and stimulating in order to engage the learners in authentic interaction and to promote development of their interlanguage. Discourse needs to be purposeful and controlled as to assure referential communication. It was argued in the study that a learner's needs analysis reveals the learner's level of development and describes the learner's communication eventualities. The study analyzed referential communication tasks that were designed as to address the learner's needs and to facilitate authentic interaction between learners.

The study explored communication tasks as the units of analysis of an analytic syllabus, which rely on learners' analytic abilities to recognize linguistic patterns in the target language (TL) and to internalize it within the UG. The task-based syllabus recognizes the catalyst function of instruction and focus on form, but
learning occurs through communication in the language, not about the language. It was argued in the study that metalanguage and learning tasks have an important supportive role to play in the task-based syllabus, and that they provide the learner with learning strategies and autonomy.

The study aimed at identifying communication tasks that are specific for the learner's needs, and task selection and grading of tasks are recognized as problematic. Language teaching for specific purposes or vocational language teaching has to address these problems. The study explored the learner's vocational eventuality as resource for task-design material and task selection. It was argued in the study that task conditions should be manipulated by the course designer or teacher as to elicit referential communication which is on par with the learner's ability.

The study aimed at a dynamic course design that takes account of continuous assessment of the language programme and the learners' development, and that involves the learner in every part of the process. It is argued that language learning should become less about language and more about learning.

5.2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR THE FIELD OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

There is a need for more dialogue between second language teachers and researchers as to identify the needs and goals in each other's fields. A need for applied research was identified. Such research has to involve second language teachers and classroom research. Instructional design features that promote authentic learner interaction and effective learning rely on the creativity of teachers who know their learners' needs. Teachers have to become more aware of the relevant principles of second language acquisition theory and research in order for them to be more critical towards the processes of learning which occur in their classrooms, and in order to contribute to the field of second language acquisition themselves.
A growing need for resources in the field of language teaching for specific purposes is evident in a country where vocationally orientated language teaching is prioritized. Resources for domain specific language knowledge and a repertoire of relevant, authentic referential communication tasks are needed for specific professions. The importance of multilingualism in professions that serve a nation that has the constitutional right to use any of eleven official languages is evident. Multilingualism is instrumental in cultivating cross-cultural awareness that promotes respect for your own and other cultures. The dynamic vocational communication needs of learners compel them to accept self-responsibility and self-development in their learning, and second language teaching has to equip them for this.

The research at the Overstrand Municipality in the Western Cape identified a need for beginners' isiXhosa teaching for the specific purposes of government workers, especially in dealing with the public and with uneducated or low-educated municipal workers. The study revealed that although a certain amount of expertise is reflected in their communication, municipal workers in the different departments have common communication contents and interaction occurs amongst the different departments. The target tasks that were identified cover the communication needs and sample the communication contents of government workers dealing with other personnel and the public. These target tasks need to be graded for pedagogic purposes. The move-structures that were most frequent in the target tasks include identification (ukufanisa), which uses stative identificative copula and the existential copulative language structures; requesting (ukucela), which regularly incorporates the potential morpheme -nga-; and descriptions or explanations (ukucacisa / ukuchaza), which incorporate relatives and adjectives, imperatives and successive verbs, and locative words.

All municipal workers at the Overstrand Municipality will benefit from multilingualism that enables them to communicate more effectively with any of their colleagues and members of the public. The study has demonstrated that
their colleagues and members of the public. The study has demonstrated that task-based teaching can be very effective for the specific language learning purposes of government workers.
REFERENCES


