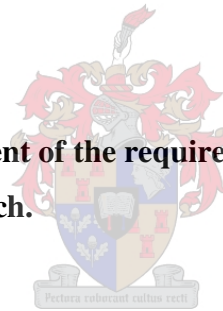# TASK-BASED COURSE DESIGN FOR CAMPUS COMMUNICATION IN ISIXHOSA

By

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Study leader: Prof. M.W. Visser

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Declaration

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Date: 22 February 2011

Abstract

The central purpose of this study is to investigate the nature and properties of communication tasks employed in generic communication in isiXhosa on a university campus in South Africa within the framework of current second language theories of task-based language learning and teaching, and syllabus design for analysing those tasks, taking into account the needs of second language learners of isiXhosa in the context of campus communication.

The study aims to explore questions relating to how meaning-based approaches to language teaching such as Task-based language learning and teaching have contributed to the teaching and learning of a second language in regard to the performance of the learner. One of the main aims of the task-based language learning and teaching (TBL and T) approach is to provide learners with input that are relevant to their everyday life in and outside of the language learning classroom. The aim is to further provide teachers with theorectical principles of teaching in order to influence the second language development and performance of the learner in an optimal manner. Thus the concern of TBL and T is to promote the motivation of the learner, negotiations of meanings among the learners and teacher in the classroom and optimal language development. The performance of the learners are thus positively influenced because they are now in more control of their own learning and the teacher no longer has to be the only provider of information and interaction to the language learning classroom.

In order to explore the various possibilities that exist in the designing of tasks for the context of a university campus in regards to learning isiXhosa as a second language or additional language, this study investigates several components of tasks relating to cognitive and linguistic complexity, the effects the manipulation of these components might have on the language learning and elements and components of designing a syllabus, and how they influence the teaching and learning of the second language. Furthermore analyses regarding various complexity properties are conducted on the isiXhosa dialogues in order to determine criteria for syllabus designers on how tasks can be graded and sequenced within a task-based language learning and teaching syllabus for second language learners of isiXhosa.

Opsomming

Die sentrale fokus van hierdie studie behels die ondersoek in die natuur en eienskappe van kommunikasietake wat gevind word in generiese kommunikasietake in isiXhosa by 'n universiteit kampus in Suid-Afrika, binne die konteks van hedendaagse tweede taal teorieë van taakgebasseerde taalleer en onderrig sowel as syllabus ontwerp en die analisering van daardie take aan die hand van die behoeftes van tweede taal leerders van isiXhosa in die konteks van kampus kommunikasie.

Die studie beoog om vas te stel hoe betekenis-gebaseerde benaderings tot taal onderrig soos byvoorbeeld taakgebaseerde taalleer en onderrig bydra tot die onderrig en leer van 'n tweede taal in verband met die werkverrigtinge en prestasies van die leerder. Die taakgebaseerde benadering tot die leer en onderrig van 'n tweede taal beoog om die leerders toe te rus met relevante en alledaagse temas wat leerders binne en buite die klaskamer ervaar. Verder beoog hierdie benadering om opvoeders toe te rus met die nodige teoretiese beginsels van onderrig sodat tweede taal ontwikkeling sowel as die prestasies en werkverrigtinge van die leerders in 'n optimale en positiewe wyse beinvloed word. Hierdie benadering tot die leer en onderrig van taal is veral gemoeid met die positiewe bevordering van die motivering van die leerder sowel as die interaksies en vrae van betekenis tussen die leerders en die opvoeders binne die omgewing van die klaskamer sodat optimale taal ontwikkeling plaasvind. Die werkverrigtinge en prestasies van die leerder word dus positief beinvloed omdat die leerder in beheer is van sy/haar eie leer en die opvoeder is nie meer die enigste bron van inligting en interaksie in die klakamer nie.

Verder ondersoek hierdie studie verskeie komponente van take wat verband hou met kognitiewe en linguisities kompleksiteit, die effek van manipulasie op hierdie komponente met betrekking tot die taalleer en die elemente en komponente van sillabus ontwerp asook hoe hierdie komponente die leer en onderrig van 'n tweede taal beinvloed. Hierdie insigte op die komponente van take skep verskeie moontlikhede vir die ontwikkeling van take in die konteks van 'n universiteit kampus met betrekking tot die leer van isiXhosa as 'n tweede taal of additionele taal. Verder verskaf die studie ook ontledings met betrekking tot die kompleksiteitseienskappe van verskeie isiXhosa dialoeë sodat 'n kriteria vir sillabus ontwerpers geskep word waarvolgens hulle take kan gradueer en in volgorde plaas binne die taakgebaseerde leer en onderrig sillabus vir tweede taal leerders van isiXhosa.

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Where do I start?

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I am truly blessed to have walked this journey.

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1. PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the properties of communication tasks in isiXhosa for university campus context within the framework of current theories and practice regarding second language learning and teaching, and syllabus design for second or additional language teaching. The purpose of the study is further to investigate the properties of conducting a needs analysis for second language learners of isiXhosa. The aim of the needs analysis is to establish the needs and objectives of the isiXhosa second language learners in the context of a university campus. In other words, what the learners know about the second language, what they want to know about the second language and what they want to communicate about in the second language. The needs analysis therefore aids in designing appropriate communicative tasks in isiXhosa, relating to the needs of the learners, the objectives relating to why learners want to learn isiXhosa and the grading and sequencing of tasks within a syllabus. This is because a needs analysis provides the syllabus designer with the information regarding which types of conversations, or types of tasks, occur frequently or less frequently in the context of a university campus.

Furthermore, the aim of this study is to demonstrate how theories and practice of TBLT can contribute to the acquisition of a second language and how the various elements and components of TBLT are incorporated for the purpose of designing a second language learning syllabus. TBLT provides learners with the necessary input of the second language that are relevant to their everyday life in and outside the classroom, thus making the learning process more relevant and motivating to the learner. Furthermore, the main contribution of TBLT to the teaching and learning of a second language is the enhanced development of the interlanguage of learners, because TBLT focuses on meaning rather than on the isolated language elements as in traditional approaches. TBLT further aids teachers with applicable and practical principles and practice they can employ inside the classroom and provides them with processes of grading, sequencing and designing of tasks within a syllabus for isiXhosa as a second language.

1.2.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework of this study incorporates the broad spectrum of task-based theory and practice as discussed by renowned researchers across numerous fields in task-based second language learning and teaching. These researchers include Ellis (2003;2005), Samuda and Bygate (2009), Van den Braden (2006), Bygate, Skehan and Swain (2001), Nunan (2003), Willis (1996) and Brown (1994), to name but a few. The psycholinguistic cognitive processes involved in language learning and usage, issues regarding syllabus design and teaching for specific purposes are other subject matters that form part of the theoretical framework of this study.

The development of TBLT resulted because of various shortcomings of the traditional methods and approaches to language learning and teaching. A radical shift took place from the isolated manner in which language features were presented to the emphasis on the role of communication activities in all the learning processes. The main focus point of a TBLT syllabus is tasks and according to Ellis (2003:208) provides a more structured option for meaning-based teaching. According to Ellis (2003:208) meaning-based approaches represent language as "holistic units of communication". Therefore creating more opportunities for negotiation of meaning, interaction and attention to form which, according to Long (1989) and Ellis (2003: 208), should still form part of a TBLT approach.

Van den Branden (2006: 4) provides a definition for a task in a TBLT syllabus which emphasizes that tasks are activities that engage learners in achieving a goal. The task is language related and therefore the language in the task is used as a 'means to an end'. Van den Braden (2006:4) also mentions that teachers and syllabus designers should describe the tasks the language learner needs to be able to do as well as the kind of language that should be used in the performance of the tasks. Ellis (2003: 211-216) classifies tasks by referring to various approaches of language teaching. The aim of the classification is to distinguish between types of tasks in order to ensure interlanguage development and optimal learning. Samuda and Bygate (2009) emphasise that various components and elements of tasks can be manipulated in order to enable progress in complexity and for specific needs that might occur in the classroom. The idea is that certain task types and the manipulation of the various task components influence the learning by focussing the learner's attention to specific aspects of the language. Ellis (2003), Nunan (2003) and Van den Branden (2006) agree with Long

(1989) in that they acknowledge the importance of focus on form in a language teaching approach. Willis and Willis (2007) and Willis (1996) argue for the specific time and place for focus on form and emphasize that the placing of focus on form at the end of the teaching sequence will be the most beneficial to the learning of the second language for the learner.

In order to understand how learners internalise the learning of a second language into the brain, psycholinguistic cognitive processes of researchers such as Ringbom and Jarvis (2009), Ortega (2009) and DeKeyser (2009) are reviewed. The central issues include the perspectives on: (1) the different types of cross-linguistic similarities, the relationships between these similarities and the effects they have on learning a second language; (2) transfer and the implications of transfer for teaching a second language; (3) the relationship between interlanguage, instruction, sequences in grammar and central processes regarding second language input and interaction; and (4) components of second language knowledge, the working definitions and distinctions of the various types of knowledge, and how the components of second language knowledge are used, acquired, learned, monitored and practiced.

In designing a task-based syllabus the basic units are tasks. Robinson (2009:295) states that units are formed according to the domain of knowledge and sequenced in order to satisfy an objective. Tasks are mostly graded and sequenced according to complexity or content and this involves the breaking down of tasks into smaller versions. Analyzing the smaller versions of the tasks according to different content or complex properties ensures that tasks can be graded and sequenced accordingly into the syllabus. Nunan (2003:31) developed six steps in which teachers can create units of work in order to establish a teaching sequence within a syllabus. Willis (1996) also proposed a task-based framework so as to link tasks and their components together within a syllabus. Furthermore, Nunan (2003: 35) notes that several principles guide teachers to monitor their actions in the classroom. Various elements of implementation and the role of the teacher can be manipulated in order to influence learner performance. The manipulation promotes optimal learning and following within the characteristics of a TBLT syllabus.

Last of all, this study includes a discussion of teaching for specific purposes that includes a rationale by Hyland (2009:201) for specific purposes. He states that teaching for specific purposes arose mainly because of the high demands to be "work-ready" from the employer groups. Moreover, Hyland (2009: 201) states that in designing such a program the focus must

be on specificity, needs analysis and the analyses of particular texts and contexts. Basturkmen (2006: 9) examines a foundation for specific purposes approaches regarding the nature of language, learning a language and teaching a language. Basturkmen (2006) also suggests that one should examine the objectives for teaching language for specific purposes to establish a relationship between specific syllabus and the needs and objectives of the learner taking the specific course to become part of a target community.

1.3. ORGANIZATION OF STUDY

Chapter two is divided into four dimensions regarding second language learning and acquisition. The first dimension consists of discussions concerning key issues surrounding a task-based approach to language learning and teaching. This dimension explores relatively up-to-date theoretical perspectives regarding the task-based approach. The second dimension consists of reviews of research of various psycholinguistic cognitive processes involved in language learning and usage. This dimension explores up-to-date research about similarities in language learning, the notion of transfer, and sequences and processes in language learning. It also includes cognitive-psycholinguistic processes involved in second language learning and how these types of knowledge should be used in a second language learning classroom. The third dimension entails key issues surrounding the notion of syllabus design. This dimension consists of various up-to-date perspectives as regards different types of syllabi, with task-based syllabi as the main focus. This dimension also includes various ideas and options on the basis of relatively up-to-date perspectives on grading and sequencing of tasks and procedures within a syllabus. The dimension concludes with a discussion about various elements of a task-based approach that influence learner performance to provide information on how these elements work together and how they can be implemented in order to promote learner performance in a task-based language learning classroom. The last dimension reveals a rationale for the teaching of a second language for specific purposes and also consists of ideas and options for such an approach as well as some objectives for teaching language for specific purposes.

Chapter three includes a discussion of the theoretical basis of complexity analysis in second language tasks and syllabus design. The chapter consists of the theoretical perspectives of the following researchers: Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), Duran and Ramaut (2006), Robinson (2005) and Pica et al (1993). The theoretical perspectives of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006)

are needed in order to determine various types of tasks from long lists of language usage situations and domains in order to cluster tasks together in a syllabus. The theoretical perspectives of Pica et al (1993) show how teachers and syllabus designers can determine various task types and the amount of interaction that takes place in each of these task types according to different interactant requirements and task requirements. The theoretical perspectives of Duran and Ramaut (2006) and Robinson (2005) are needed so as to determine the levels of complexity of different types of tasks. The chapter concludes with a description of the proficiency level needed in order to design relevant tasks according to the complexity of the tasks for beginner learners. This information was gained from two different references, namely the Common European Framework of reference for languages (CEF) (2001) and the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) (2010).

Chapters four and five demonstrate the theoretical perspectives as stated above by applying the theorectical principles explored in chapter three for the analysis of various campus communication tasks between students and their lecturers as well as between students on campus. In each of these chapters, isiXhosa dialogues are analysed by first identifying the various types of tasks present in the specific dialogues/tasks. Second, these types of tasks are analysed according to various complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) in order to determine the place of the specific types of tasks on a complexity scale. This complexity scale reveals the level of complexity of the specific task types and indicates how the various types of tasks can be graded and sequenced within a syllabus. Lastly, the isiXhosa dialogues are analysed according to the theoretical perspectives of Pica et al (1993) to determine the task types, which also reveals the requirement of the tasks *and* the requirement of the interactants of the tasks. Therefore the analyses of the isiXhosa tasks, according to Pica et al (1993), reveal the level of interaction that will most likely take place when completing the tasks. The main findings in chapters two to five are presented in chapter six of this study, which will also include a section on key directions for future research and implications for second language learning and teaching for isiXhosa.

The organization of this study corresponds to the appropriate manner in which teachers and syllabus designers would design a second language syllabus for generic campus communication in isiXhosa. The purpose of this organization is to show how teachers and syllabus designers would also grade and sequence tasks according to various levels of complexity within such a syllabus to promote sufficient optimal learning of a second language.

CHAPTER TWO
TASK-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING: THEORY AND PRACTICE

2. INTRODUCTION

According to Samuda and Bygate (2009: 52) the focus of language teaching in the classroom has undergone a move from the isolated manner in which language features are presented to the emphasis on the role of communication activities in all the learning processes. This 'new' approach to language teaching argues that communication should determine the content and the mode of learning. Therefore teaching has undergone a radical change from the traditional approaches to instruction. Ellis (2003:208) argues that by implementing tasks as the main focus point of the syllabus, task-based language learning and teaching (TBLT) provides a more structured option for meaning-based teaching in the communicative classroom. The tasks implemented should have certain conditions and should, in general, represent "holistic units of communication" according to Ellis (2003:208). These units specify the content of the learning and should be familiar to learners' personal experiences, as far as possible. A task-based syllabus, however, does not exclude the importance of form. In his work on the negotiation of meaning, Long (1989), emphasized that learners should be conscious of form while they are communicating. This can be achieved through a number of different tasks and instructions. Ellis (2003:209) further argues for a rationale for task-based syllabi by stating that the instruction in TBLT syllabi is compatible with the cognitive processes involved in second language acquisition. Ellis (2003:209) also states that tasks make it easier to specify the learners' needs. Therefore meaning-based approaches to language teaching are effective for language proficiency, the negotiation of meaning and giving attention to form – in this way, TBLT *does* promote second language acquisition.

This chapter presents a review of the central aspects surrounding task-based language learning and teaching. Firstly, tasks and task components will be defined; then the aspects surrounding focus on form and negotiation of meaning and interaction are discussed. Secondly, the chapter will review the psycholinguistic cognitive processes involved in language learning and usage. Thirdly, aspects in regards to TBLT syllabus design are discussed and, lastly, aspects surrounding teaching for specific purposes are discussed.

2.1.   KEY ISSUES IN TASK-BASED THEORY AND PRACTICE

2.1.1 Defining a task

Van den Branden (2006:3) states that defining the term 'task' has become very controversial in syllabi over the past few years, so much so that anything that is related to an educational activity is called a 'task'. There is no one clear universal definition of a 'task'. Van den Braden (2006: 3) states that this has the implication of making the term increasingly "fuzzy" in the research of task-based language teaching and syllabus design.

Bygate et al (2001: 2) maintain that the term 'task' can be interpreted in several ways, depending on the different perspectives used to define the term. There are two groups of people who, in turn, try to systematically define the term 'task' from their different viewpoints and perspectives. The one group is the communicative language teachers, and the other group is the second language acquisition researchers. Bygate et al (2001: 9) further maintain that the reason for the contrasting differences in the definitions of the term 'task' comes not only from the different viewpoints but also because the definitions are mostly context free. They (2001: 12) mention that the second language acquisition researchers believe a task to be static in nature, making the task a 'dependable unit' and thus making it considerably easier to justify research that has been done on a certain topic concerning 'tasks'. Communicative language teachers, on the other hand, believe 'tasks' to be more dynamic, which increases the potential of the usage of a 'task' in the classroom. Furthermore, Van den Branden (2006:3) states that the main reason for the differences in the definitions stems from the different purposes for which the concept of 'task' can be used.

In defining a task, Van den Branden (2006: 4) provides the following definition: "A task is an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language". This definition emphasizes that tasks are activities and that the activities engage the learner in achieving a goal. In addition, he also states (2006:4) that the task should be language related, ensuring that the language is used as a 'means to an end'. This means that the language input should result in language output. According to Van den Branden (2006:4), this occurs when the learner interacts with other people in real-life situations by using the language and when doing the given task. In this manner, the goals that need to be achieved by the learner can be realized better. Van den Braden (2006:4) concludes on the matter of

defining a task by stating that, in order to define the language learning goals of a syllabus, one should describe the tasks the language learner needs to be able to do as well as the kind of language that should be used in the performance of the tasks.

To conclude this section, an important perspective should be noted on the definition of a task: as Nunan (2003: 4) states, even though they differ from each other, all the definitions emphasize that a task involves communicative language usage, with the focus being on meaning rather than grammatical form. However, the importance of grammatical form should not be misunderstood as there is a place for form in a task-based language classroom. In order to further the research into the definition of a task, classifying tasks and task components will be examined in the following sections.

2.1.2 Classifying tasks

Ellis (2003: 210) points out that many task types exist in language learning and are usually labelled according to a number of possibilities. This labelling takes place according to: the activity required from the learner (role-play, decision-making, matching, etc.); the specific language skill focused on (listening, writing, speaking, reading); the type of discourse (narrative, descriptive); the way in which the information is organized within the task (information-gap, opinion-gap); or whether the task requires interaction or not (reciprocal and non-reciprocal tasks). The endless lists of task types can make the designing of a task-based syllabus very problematic, which is why Ellis (2003: 211-216) proposes that a classification should be made in order to distinguish between these types of tasks. He examines four approaches for the selection of tasks in a syllabus. This discussion focuses on the four approaches for classifying tasks, which will be followed in the same order as in Ellis (2003).

The pedagogic approach deserves attention first. In classifying tasks, one should keep in mind the rationale for the use of tasks as these tasks should provide opportunities for holistic and experimental learning. Willis (1996: 26-27) discusses six such types of tasks. In each of these tasks she provides a definition and the processes involved. The tasks are labelled according to the activity required from the learner. The six tasks are: listing (involves brainstorming and fact-finding, the outcome being a completed list); ordering and sorting (involves the processes of sequencing, ranking, categorizing and classifying); comparing (involves processes such as matching, finding similarities and finding differences); problem-solving (involves the

intellectuality and reasoning of the learner in order to solve a real-life problem or puzzles); sharing personal experiences (learners can talk freely about shared and personal experiences); and creative tasks (these types of tasks often include a combination of various of the other tasks already mentioned and is considered as a project that should be completed over a longer period of time). Nunan (2003: 57-58) also offers a few more of these types of tasks which are labelled according to the activity required from the learner and can therefore be classified under the pedagogical approach.

The second approach discussed by Ellis (2003) is rhetoric. Here, Ellis (2003: 212) points out that the tasks are classified according to the different discourse domains in terms of structure and linguistic properties, such as the narrative, descriptions and reports. These tasks are often linked with specific language functions and most frequently used in linguistic or functional syllabi as these tasks are implemented in order to elicit free production of language after the specific language structure or function is practiced. Ellis (2003: 212) suggest that because of this aspect, these types of tasks do not entirely fit into a task-based syllabus, yet they do hold some advantage in task-supported syllabi (and in task-based syllabi), since the focus on domain has an influence on negotiation of meaning and the quality of the learner's production. Consequently, these types of tasks are often used in designing a syllabus for specific purposes. Ellis (2003: 212) proposes another manner in which tasks can be classified rhetorically is according to different genres. Ellis (2003: 212) quotes Swales (1990:58) in stating that this entails classifying tasks according to "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purpose".

The cognitive classification of tasks consists of the kind of cognitive activity involved in performing the specific task. Ellis (2003: 215) and Nunan (2003: 57) mention that Prabhu (1987) distinguishes three such types of tasks: information-gap (one participant of the task transfers information to another participant by decoding and encoding the message in order to achieve the goal); reasoning-gap (participant derives new information from information through processes such as inference, deduction, practical reasoning and perceptions); and opinion-gap tasks (participants use factual information to identify and articulate personal preferences and formulate arguments to justify such opinions and there is more than one correct outcome to the task). These tasks should all elicit some form and level of negotiation according to the manner in which the information is organized within the task. Prabhu (1987) indicated that tasks that require learners to formulate their own meanings (reasoning-gap

tasks) bring forth the most negotiation of meaning, thus these tasks account for the performance as well as the fact that reasoning enables acquisition.

The psycholinguistic classification according to Ellis (2003: 209) is based on a typology of tasks and their relation to the potential of language learning. These tasks expect learners to comprehend input, receive feedback and modify their own output/inter-language. Pica et al (1993) formulated this typology on the basis of the Interaction hypothesis of Long (1996). These types of tasks also involve the elicitation of negotiation of meaning but on the type of level where learners will modify their own interlanguage. This is because of the negotiation of meaning, feedback and comprehension of the input that took place during the completion of the task. Pica et al (1993) propose four categories that the learners should be exposed to. Within each of the categories there are several options that have an impact on the learner and the way in which the information is organized, thus resulting in different levels of negotiation. The categories consist of: *interactant relationship* (the distinction between two-way and one-way flow of information is important here because it relates to whether a mutual relationship of request and supply exists between the participants of the task – the more mutual the relationship, the more negotiation of meaning will occur); *interaction requirement* (this refers to whether or not the request and supply of information is required by the task or not); *goal orientation* (does the task require the participants to agree to one single outcome or are they allowed to disagree?); and *outcome options* (does the task require only one single correct outcome or are there several outcomes available?). From these categories Pica et al (1993) conceived five types of tasks that elicit different kinds and levels of negotiation required form the learner. These tasks are known as: jigsaw tasks, information gap, problem-solving, decision-making and opinion giving tasks.

Firstly, Ellis (2003: 210) argues that classifying tasks by manner of approaches ensures the existence of a number of tasks. Secondly, he argues that it enables syllabus designers to include a number of types of tasks into the syllabus to ensure interlanguage development and optimal learning. Teachers can experiment with these tasks by manipulating aspects of tasks in order to enable progress in complexity, or they can use different types of tasks for specific needs that might occur in the classroom. Implementing these task types into the task-based language teaching classroom is very important, since task types promote effective learning. The idea is that certain task types influence the learning by focussing the learner's attention to specific aspects of the language. This can be done by manipulating the components a task consists of. The following section will explore task components.

2.1.3 Task components

All tasks consist of clear components. Specific task components are proposed by Samuda and Bygate (2009:13-16). This proposition is an improvised summary of the components suggested by Ellis (2003: 17-20), where the viewpoint is that all tasks will consist of holistic activities. This is because the tasks will be considered as being in a task-based syllabus, derived from the distinction made by Breen (1989) from which Ellis (2003: 17) insists that a task should be distinguished as a work plan, having the learner focus on meaning rather than grammatical correctness. As a result, the holistic activity is the first general component suggested.

The second general component suggested is that of outcomes. Samuda and Bygate (2009) and Ellis (2003) differ in this regard to Nunan's (2003: 40- 56) identification of components, mainly for the reason that the outcomes of a task are unpredictable. According to Ellis (2003: 19), Nunan (2003: 41) distinguishes a task as being a task in process and not as a workplan, which makes the prediction of outcomes complex in nature. Nunan (2003: 41) prefers to refer to the term 'goal' as relating to a set of general outcomes or to directly describe the teacher's behaviour. Ellis (2003: 19) also suggests this component as the general purpose of the task, which contributes to certain aspects of communicative competence. With regards to the component of outcomes, Ellis (2003: 19) states that, in order to qualify as a task, a task should have predicted product outcomes, which are also called target outcomes by Samuda and Bygate (2009:14), and refer to the modality such as verbal or non-verbal solutions of the task outcome.

Samuda and Bygate (2009: 14) suggest that the component 'phases' refers to Ellis' (2003: 20) feature of process outcomes. This type of outcome is much more unpredictable than the aforementioned target outcome, for it involves the actual strategies that the learner will employ at different stages of the activity. Nunan (2003: 52) refers to this component as the procedures and draws a considerable amount of attention to the different procedures employed by the learner when the input is authentic and non-authentic.

Two other components, according to Samuda and Bygate (2009: 14) that should be present in a task are the input materials and the conditions. They (2009: 14) state that input materials are

essential elements as it consists of all the objects and the instructions in the task. The manipulation of the objects and instructions changes the language usage procedures that the learner will follow in order to achieve the target outcome of the task. Conditions in this regard according to Samuda and Bygate (2009: 15) refer to the external pressures such as time pressures, the atmosphere of the classroom, etc. The manipulation of the conditions of the task can have an effect on the way in which the learner works. Ellis (2003: 19) states that tasks may have the same input materials but different conditions, which results in different outcomes or procedures. On the other hand, tasks can have the same conditions but the input materials may differ, which will also result in different outcomes and procedures.

The manipulation of the task components assist teachers of a task-based language teaching and learning classroom to focus on aspects of the language that the learners should acquire at certain stages during their language development. The following section entails aspects regarding the focus on form in some of these components and how focus on form can be integrated into various task components.

2.1.4 Focus on form

There are many theories in second language acquisition regarding focus on form and they all come to the conclusion that focus on form should not be excluded in the teaching and learning of a second language. It should however not be the main focus point of the approach, especially if the approach to the language teaching is a meaning-based one. Form-based approaches will disagree with this statement, as the focal point of the language teaching is the focus on form and therefore grammatical features.

In the earlier approaches to teaching a second language, the focus was firstly on the grammar elements and then followed by the meaning. The traditional approaches introduced the learners to grammar elements of the language first, supporting methods like drilling and mechanical techniques. The learners did not have enough exposure to real world communication as the grammar elements of the second language were introduced in an isolated manner. This resulted in the second language not being internalized and the learner would not be able to speak the language fluently and accurately because meaning and pragmatics did not receive considerable attention. The learner could not manipulate the

language so that it could be used outside of the classroom where it suits his/her language needs and goals.

Today, task-based language teaching and learning is employed in order to solve aforementioned problem by putting the focus on the meaning of communication and using linguistic elements as enhancement. This means that the learners can manipulate the second language in a much more efficient manner. They are then able to internalize the language, because rote learning is no longer a method of learning the target language. Brown (1994:18) emphasize that rote learning refers to a learning method where learners take isolated bits and pieces of the input into the brain without it being linked to existing structures. Therefore he argues (1994:18) that learners resort to memorizing the input resulting in the second language not being internalized. TBLT is concerned with meaningful learning, where the learner takes the information into the brain and links it with existing structures. The focus is on consciously being aware of the language, understanding the language, its meaning and pragmatics. Thus the learners are able to internalize the language and they have longer retention.

Before moving on to establishing a place for focus-on-form in a task-based language teaching classroom, one should first understand the different perspectives that exist in the second language acquisition research about focus-on-form. Ellis (2005: 9) provides a critical analysis of the different perspectives on focus on form. The perspectives include the pedagogic sphere, the discoursal perspective and the psycholinguistic perspective. In pedagogy, Ellis (2005: 9) mentions that focus on form refers to the attempts made by the teacher to intervene in the process of the language being acquired by the learners. According to Ellis (2005: 9), these attempts focus the learners to pay attention to linguistic forms while they are busy interpreting the messages of the input. With regards to the discourse, focus on form involves certain methods to rouse the attention to linguistic forms. The methods mentioned by Ellis (2005) include questions about the specific linguistic forms and different forms of corrective feedback from the teacher and the learners. In terms of the psycholinguistic perspective, focus on form refers to the mental processes that are involved when learners are made aware of linguistic forms while they are busy with the communicative action. One of the most renowned mental processes is noticing.

Second language acquisition researchers have been exploring how to integrate focus on form into the task-based second language classroom and try to establish the best methods that the

teacher can employ as well as its place in the teaching sequence. The integration and place for focus on form is explored in the following section.

2.1.4.1 Integrating focus on form into a Task-based classroom

In a communicative classroom, the focus is firstly on the learner's communicative rather than linguistic needs. The learners first need to hear, see and use the target language in a communicative way before they can try to make links with the linguistic form present in the communicative activity. Willis and Willis (2007:25) suggest that focus on form should be placed at the end of the teaching sequence, reasoning that the learners can make a better understanding of the language that they have already experienced, which provides them with opportunities to use and receive detail about the forms they have encountered in recent communicative tasks. Second, the forms that have been made clear to the learners will become salient and therefore will likely be noticed in preceding communicative activities. Willis and Willis (2007: 25) also state that this provides the learners with the ability to internalize the forms better because of the repeated appearances of the forms in other activities and the noticing of the forms repeatedly. Another reason discussed by Willis and Willis (2007:25) for placing the grammar at the end of the teaching sequence is the motivation that has been triggered in the second language learner. The learners get a better understanding of what they have been offered in a lesson, giving them the opportunity to find the relevance for and benefits of learning the second language and focus on form provides answers to questions that learners develop during the communicative task. Teachers therefore do not have to spend a lot of time on the grammar elements and learners will more likely engage in more natural communication for they will not explicitly focus on memorizing the "rules". Therefore according to Willis and Willis (2007) the method of providing grammar at the end of the teaching sequence enables the learners to make better links between the communicative functions and the linguistic forms. Therefore learners will have better retention and will most likely be better equipped to internalize the language.

In integrating focus on form, Nunan (2003: 37) states that the relationship that grammar has to second language acquisition and to other elements of language should be made clear. He mentions that firstly, the mastering of the grammar is fundamental for communication, but explicit instructions focusing on form are not always necessary. Grammar competence *is* necessary, but it is not the only element of language necessary in order to master a second

language. Nunan (2003:37) points out that grammar provides the learner with the form or the structure of the language, but the meanings and pragmatics of the language are also of importance when learning any language. Nunan (2003: 37) states that in a task-based classroom, or in any communicative classroom for that matter, the learners should be taught in ways that make the relationships between linguistic forms, communicative functions and semantic meanings clear. He emphasizes (2003: 37) that the challenge is to integrate the formal and functional aspects of the language with the communicative activities. This integration has to show a systematic relationship between form, function and meaning. A fair balance needs to be kept between these aspects of language, because no one aspect alone will be sufficient according to him (2003:37).

Van den Branden (2006: 9) states that the grammar in a task-based classroom should be in relation to the task rather than being in an isolated form of the task. Thus the grammar is introduced within a context that makes the communicative use of the structure clear to the learner. Brown (1994: 349) also mentions that the grammar should be embedded into the meaningful, communicative contexts and must be of a benefit to the learners' communicative goals.

The grammar can be introduced in different ways by using different types of techniques. The techniques according to Ellis (2003: 167) can be implicit and thus viewed from an inductive approach. The learner according to Ellis (2003: 167) has to draw his/her own conclusions and explore the form and generalization about the linguistic element. The forms, however, are salient: the learners can notice the forms through patterns. During the lesson, the teacher can briefly draw the learners' attention to these forms without any in-depth explanation. He further states that implicit instruction can be used to provide attention to focus in given tasks by providing feedback such as recasts and clarification requests. Ellis (2003: 168) also mentions that teachers have to use appropriate negotiation of meaning strategies in order to respond to errors made in the communication. The idea is to resolve the errors without providing the learners with explicit information about the language features in the communication. Skehan (2001: 3) refers to Long (1989) in stating that recasts (recasting the learner's utterance by correcting the errors made) and clarification requests (asking questions about the error, such as repeating it with the goal to focus the learner's attention to it) provide the ability to teach grammar in a communicative manner. According to Ellis (2003: 167) the instruction and error correction occur during the process of communication, thus the learners are not aware that the teacher is intentionally focusing on form. Ellis (2003:170) refers to

study done by Ellis and Takashima (1999) which provided some evidence that focused feedback in the form of recasts and clarification checks, which led to more accurate use of certain forms in the following tasks that the learners did. The errors corrected by means of recasts of one learner also aided the accurate use of the form by the other learners in the classroom. The conclusive result of the study indicated that these types of feedback contribute more to automatization of existing knowledge as learners should possess the necessary linguistic knowledge in order to modify the incorrect utterance, but implicit instruction in negotiating for meaning does aid acquisition.

On the other hand, Ellis (2003:170) notes that the grammar can also be introduced explicitly, taking the view of a deductive approach. The teacher explains the linguistic elements in detail and the learners can practice these forms. Nunan (2003:109) states that it is important for the teacher to guide the learners by showing them the form-meaning relationships of the task. Ellis (2003: 170) states that this explicit focus can be provided in two ways, namely by pre-emptive focus or responsive focus. Pre-emptive focus entails that the teacher gives attention to a target feature by asking questions about it or giving metalinguistic comments. Responsive focus refers to a kind of negative feedback in which the teacher gives attention to the target language feature by explicitly correcting an error or giving a metalinguistic question or comment. Ellis (2003: 170) argues that such explicit feedback has been shown to enable learners to form new meanings and mappings. Explicit instruction enables learners to induce linguistic rules and patterns in the language. Ellis (2003: 170) refers to a study done by Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001). This study established that recast (normally associated with implicit instruction and feedback) can have the function of explicit feedback if the recast occurs in the given context of the task and it is clear to the learner that the recast is a reaction to an incorrect form and not the content. They further state that this type of recast works best when recast functions as explicit corrections of learners' utterances.

Ellis (2003: 170) further mentions that teachers should be very conscious and careful when using grammatical explanations. Metalinguistic talk can overwhelm learners and the teacher should be conscious of the fact that the learners might be processing the language to a maximum and introducing elaborative explanations might overload the processing taking place. Brown (1994: 352) mentions a few rules of thumb when it comes to integrating grammatical explanations into the communicative tasks. He states that the explanations should be short and simple and unambiguous. Moreover, individual differences regarding

cognitive styles should also be kept in mind when giving grammatical explanations as some learners might think analytically and others holistically.

Brown (1994: 351) states that the inductive approach will be preferred in a TBLT classroom as this approach is in line with the naturalistic notion of language acquisition. This is because grammar elements and form should be acquired subconsciously, along with the other language aspects, without breaking the communicative flow of the task at hand. The subconscious acquirement of grammar elements and forms is more relevant to the concept of interlanguage development. Brown (1994:351) further states that the learners get a communicative feel in respect to the language aspects and that this has a positive effect on the learners' intrinsic motivation without them being overwhelmed by elaborate grammatical explanations.

However, it becomes clear that explicit instruction can be helpful in achieving the goal of tasks as well as enabling acquisition and awareness. Ellis (2003) points out that explicit instruction should not hinder the holistic and natural flow of the communication in the task as it can influence the primary focus on the meaning of the task (influencing the 'taskness' of the task). Ellis (2003:171) stipulates Seedhouse's (1997) notion of 'camouflaged' repair as a type of explicit feedback. This type of feedback entails the repair work done by the teacher that does not hinder the communication and interaction flow of the task. The feedback is short and does not include any metalinguistic questions or comments made by the teacher.

Therefore TBLT should indeed make space for focus on form, yet the learner is free to use any language when completing a task. Van den Branden (2006: 10) mentions that they are not restricted to use specific language forms and structures as long as they achieve the outcome. The combination of focus on form and meaningful activities will often result in interaction among the learners in the classroom and this often occurs due to the 'manipulations' done by the task designers. These manipulations in a task-based syllabus will be on the tasks themselves. The type of tasks that focus on form, such as focused tasks in relation to the task-based classroom, is the next topic up for discussion.

2.1.4.2   Focused tasks, consciousness raising tasks and grammar activities

Grammar can be introduced into the communicative classroom with the aid of focused tasks. A focused task is one of which a particular linguistic form is made clear to learners. Nunan (2003: 95) sates that the linguistic form might not be essential for the completion of the task, but can elicit learners to use the linguistic form during the completion of the task as well as in natural communication in- and outside the classroom.

Ellis (2003: 141) argues that for a focused task to qualify as a task, the main focus should still be the content of the message in the task. The learners may have a choice whether to use the linguistic forms made explicit or acquired through implicit methods, or they may use non-linguistic forms (or a combination of both) to complete the task. Ellis (2003) draws a distinction between focused tasks and grammar activities, for the two have quite contrasting elements and should not be confused with one other. He emphasizes that grammar activities are designed in such a way that the linguistic form can be practiced in a specific context. According to Ellis (2003: 141) the learners are made explicitly aware of the linguistic focus in the grammar activity resulting in learners making special attempts to use the linguistic forms in completing the activities, thus the attention is intentional. He mentions that even though the teacher does not inform the learners of the linguistic focus of the focused tasks, the learners will still use the linguistic form since these tasks are designed in such a way that the learners will give attention to the linguistic forms. Grammar activities are thus not tasks, for the main focus is to practice specific forms and the learners are not free to choose other linguistic forms and non-linguistic methods to complete the activity. Ellis (2003:142) takes this distinction further and states that the main difference between grammar exercises and focused tasks lies in the way in which they are implemented into the classroom which will be discussed later in this section.

Ellis (2003: 142) maintains that there are several benefits of implementing focused tasks into the communicative classroom. The first benefit is that, with focused tasks, teachers and researchers alike can measure whether the learners have acquired specific forms. The second benefit stems from the first in that teachers can use focused tasks for testing rather than using official tests. This is because the tasks suggest what the learners actually do when they focus on using a form correctly, giving the teacher insight into the interlanguage development. The

third benefit is that these tasks provide teachers with the opportunity to teach linguistic forms in relation to a communicative context, therefore "under real operating conditions".

There are several types of focused tasks that can be used in the classroom, but for TBLT, the consciousness-raising tasks are the most relevant. Although the primary focus of focused task are on implicit knowledge, consciousness-raising tasks focus more on explicit knowledge. Nunan (2003:98) agrees with Ellis (2003:163), stating that the intention of consciousness-raising tasks (CR tasks) is to promote the awareness "at the level of understanding rather than awareness at the level of noticing". This implies that the learners should know how the linguistic forms work. Another difference between normal focused tasks and CR tasks noted by Ellis (2003: 163) is that the focus of the content is on the language itself rather than content which represent real-life situations outside of the classroom. Ellis (2003: 163) states that the linguistic forms in a CR task are isolated from the task in order to bestow focused attention on them. In some cases, the teacher will provide the learners with the metalinguistic language by providing the explicit rule of the linguistic form along with input materials that demonstrate the specific linguistic feature. The learners will have to understand the linguistic form and may be asked to use the metalinguistic language in order to explain the rules by using the specific linguistic form. The learners can also be asked to solve a problem in order to ascertain how the linguistic form works.

The characteristics of these CR tasks correlate a lot with the characteristics that Ellis pointed out of grammar activities. Thus the question that arises is whether one can actually call a CR task a task. Nunan (2003: 98) tries to answer this question by quoting Ellis's (2003: 163) argument on why a CR task is a task and not an activity. He argues that even though a linguistic feature is the focus of the task, the learners are not required to use the specific linguistic feature to complete the task successfully. The main idea of implementing a CR task is so that the learners can talk about the linguistic feature in such a way that they convey meaning. The focus is not so much on the linguistic form but on the meaningful discussions and interactions that take place in completing the task. Ellis (2003: 163) mentions that researchers who agree with the notion of implementing CR tasks into the classroom justify the usage by stating that the explicit knowledge the teacher gives the learners about the linguistic feature facilitates the implicit knowledge that is required from the learners in order to acquire a language.

Another issue about CR tasks discussed by Ellis is whether or not CR tasks improve the learners' explicit knowledge of the second language. Ellis (2003:165) addresses this question by looking at different studies that have been conducted which compare the aforementioned grammar activities and CR tasks. The former should be seen as a direct method of raising the consciousness and the latter as an indirect method. The studies reveal that both the grammar and CR tasks have a great impact on the development of the explicit knowledge of the second language. None of these methods were made inferior to the other. This does not mean that the learners will be able to use the language in a communicative way inside and outside of the classroom.

Ellis (2003: 165) investigates the effectiveness of CR tasks for promoting communicative language use. Ellis (2003: 165) mentions that some argue that explicit knowledge aids in the noticing of certain linguistic features and that this noticing, in turn, develops the interlanguage development. But for CR tasks to be effective for the classroom, this noticing, which is the result of the explicit knowledge of linguistic forms, should lead to negotiation of meaning; the negotiation of meaning, in return, should promote effective and meaningful communication, which results in improved proficiency of the second language. However, for the latter to take place, Ellis (2003: 166) states that a lot of thought should be put into different aspects of the classroom. For instance, one must know whether or not the learners will be able to use metalinguistic language. Learners must thus have a reasonable proficiency of the second language and must be able to think intellectually and consciously about a language. Ellis therefore states that CR tasks might not be suitable for young learners as they might not be able to think consciously about the language and will also not have a suitable proficiency level in the second language. CR tasks will be more effective if implemented into an adult classroom as older learners are able to and prefer to think consciously about a language.

One of the most important aspects of CR tasks noted by Ellis (2003: 167) is that they should not be considered as alternatives to unfocused and communicative tasks but rather as reinforcing tasks, thus they act as supplements to unfocused tasks. The next section explores tasks that include interaction and others that do not. The comparison stems from the discussions mentioned above, for these types of tasks deal with focused and unfocused tasks and finding the balance between the two for the use in the classroom.

2.1.4.3   Reciprocal tasks and non-reciprocal tasks: finding the balance

The term 'interaction' is often used instead of reciprocal. Reciprocal tasks are tasks that involve a good amount of interaction. These tasks, as defined by Pica et al (1993), consist of a two-way flow of information between two or more participants. In completing such tasks successfully, learners have to comprehend the input by means of negotiating meaning, which results in the acquisition of the second language. Bygate et al (2001: 49) distinguishes non-reciprocal tasks as tasks that involve a one-way flow of information between two participants. These tasks often require the learners to do an action in light of some direction given by the task and involve little to no interaction in order to understand the direction/instruction of the task.

Reciprocal tasks often receive more attention in second language acquisition research, especially in the light of task-based syllabus design. A reason for this, according to Bygate et al (2001: 50) might be because of a lack of understanding of how non-reciprocal tasks can contribute to second language acquisition in an approach that focuses on meaning through communication rather than focussing on linguistic items. Bygate et al (2001:50) state that non-reciprocal tasks give researchers direct insight into the relationship between task performance and acquisition. Through the help of non-reciprocal task, researchers and teachers can directly observe the acquisition that takes place while the learner is completing the task (the correct action in regards to the direction/instruction given by the task will show comprehension of the input). Byagte et al (2001: 29) state that one should see reciprocal and non-reciprocal tasks on a continuum of tasks consisting of very little to no interaction and tasks consisting of interaction to be entirely dependent on the interaction in order to be successfully completed.

Non-reciprocal tasks have a place in a task-based second language classroom as explained above, because the tasks require a focus on meaning rather than isolated linguistic features. In finding the balance, then, Bygate et al (2001) suggest that a combination of non-reciprocal and reciprocal tasks in a syllabus is suggested in order to successfully acquire a second language. Tasks should allow teachers to focus on linguistic features and direct the learning process but, at the same time, tasks should create opportunities for the natural process of learning. Learners should acquire specific linguistic items while they are engaging in communicative tasks.

The notions in the following discussion serves as an introduction to the psycholinguistic models involved in language learning which is explored in order to shed some light on these processes that take place when learning a second language.

2.1.4.4   Noticing, attention and consciousness

The concepts of noticing, attention and consciousness are closely related as each of these concepts entails some degree of explicit and implicit knowledge. Regarding Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (in Skehan, 1998), this explicit knowledge facilitates the acquiring of implicit knowledge through noticing and noticing-the-gap. Schmidt argues that, if a learner has explicit knowledge of a certain grammatical structure, he/she will notice the structure in a task more easily than a learner with no explicit knowledge of a grammatical structure. Ellis (2003: 149) states that the noticing results in the grammatical structure being learned implicitly. He further argues that explicit knowledge results in the learner noticing-the-gap. According to Ellis (2003: 149) this means that if a learner has explicit knowledge about a certain grammatical structure, the learner will be able to better compare what they know about the structure they are using and how they are using it in the communicative activity.

On the matter of conscious attention (which is known to many as noticing), Ellis (2005: 7) takes note of Schmidt's view that conscious attention is necessary in learning all input. Schmidt states that conscious attention is very important and beneficial for learning as it aids learners to process certain features of the second language that they otherwise would not have noticed and thus not acquire. Although many of the research on noticing as conscious attention has been on input, Swain (2001) states that the concept of noticing also has an effect on the output. According to his output hypothesis, Swain states that the processing needed to produce output mostly requires the learner to produce syntactic language, and this type of processing requires attention. This statement, as made by Swain, is supported by Robinson (2005), who adds that the degree of attention will depend on the complexity of the task at hand and the more complex the task the more attention is required.

To explore the concept of noticing, Schmidt argues that a certain degree of attention is necessary in order for information to be processed into the interlanguage. This argument is the main focus of this noticing hypothesis of Schmidt according to Skehan (1998: 48). He

proposes six influences that have an impact on noticing. The first influence involves the notion that the more frequent a form occurs in a task, the more likely the form will be noticed. This repetition result in the learner having more opportunities to notice the form even though there might be attention placed on other forms. This means that the form will be integrated into the learners' interlanguage. The second influence discussed is concerned with how prominent the form is in the input. In other words, the focus is on whether or not the form "stands out". The more prominent the form, the more likely it is that the learner will notice it. This prominence has nothing to do with explicit instruction but rather with the perception of the learner. Skehan (1998: 49) states that the forms will draw attention to themselves in the input, which will result in the conscious learning of the forms. The third influence regards the role of instruction. The previous influences did not entail explicit instruction as the forms could be noticed because of their frequency and saliencies. Skehan (1998) states that instruction can make other less salient forms more obvious to be noticed and further provides the learners with the ability to give attention and awareness to forms in other tasks and situations.

Skehan (1998: 50) maintains that the other three influences relevant concerns the individual, the ability to process, the readiness of the learner and the different task demands. The processing ability in this sense refers to the ability of the learner to process input effectively. According to Skehan (1998: 50) the readiness of the learner refers to some learners' interlanguage that is in the correct state to notice certain forms in input. Skehan (1998: 50) mentions that according to Schmidt, readiness means that a prediction can be made that the learner will be able to notice a particular form and that they will be able to integrate the form into their interlanguage. The last influence involves task demands, which are more controllable than the previous two influences, as task demand consist of more predictable external factors. Task demands refer to the features of the task which places certain demands and expectations on the learners that are doing the task. Skehan (1998: 51) states that these demands may have implications on the processing ability of the learner, for the task demands may result in an overload of information to be processed into an interlanguage system. Skehan (1998: 51) states that Schmidt emphasizes that familiar tasks will have low task demands and more complex tasks will have higher task demands. Tasks have characteristics that might result in making some forms prominent and salient and others not. Skehan (1998: 51) thus argues that the nature of a task may be associated with a particular form which in turn enables targeted noticing.

Consciousness (also referred to as awareness) with regards to noticing also refers to the perceptions that the learner has on the interlanguage and the processes mentioned above. These perceptions can influence how the learners process information. This consciousness refers to explicit learning and Schmidt proposes that it is the awareness of the learning itself that results in several advantages to the learner. Skehan (1998:56) states that this conscious awareness of the process of learning itself enables learners to notice-the-gap between the state of their current interlanguage and the language that occurs around them. Skehan (1998:56) believes that the awareness and instruction of the input may result in the learner being able to transform and compare the information to other information and, in so doing, develop his/ her interlanguage system in a very sufficient and necessary manner. Learners can thus acquire knowledge parallel to each other according to Skehan (1998: 56).

The output of a task can also result in conscious awareness of certain forms, language elements and to notice-the-gap. Skehan (1998:58) proposes that by comparing and analyzing the output with the input provided the learner becomes aware where his/ her interlanguage needs to be extended and also which language elements need more attention. The output and feedback furthermore make learners aware of the metalinguistic element of learning the second language. Other benefits discussed by Skehan (1998:58) are that the output of the tasks regarding noticing and awareness are pushed output. This motivates the learners to explore the syntactic processing of the language in order to come to meaning and to restructure the interlanguage state to clear any mismatched conclusions made about certain language elements. The following section explores the psycholinguistic models involved when learning a second language. Several of the previously mentioned notions will be salient in this discussion.

2.1.5 Psycholinguistic models of language learning and acquisition

One of the most famous controversial theorists doing research into the psycholinguistic models of language learning and acquisition is Stephan Krashen. He proposed four hypotheses in which he represented some of the earliest psycholinguistic models and, although the hypotheses received much criticism, many theorists today still relate and compare their hypotheses to those of Krashen.

Nunan (2003: 77-79) discusses Krashen's four hypotheses in a detailed summary. Krashen's first hypothesis is known as the acquisition-learning hypothesis. The main focus thereof is on conscious learning and subconscious acquisition. Conscious learning refers to the learners memorizing grammatical rules and doing drills. Subconscious acquisition supports the notion of how one acquires a first language, referring to the process that is in motion when the learners focus on using the language when they communicate. What makes this hypothesis so controversial is the fact that Krashen emphasizes that subconscious acquisition and conscious learning should be seen as two separate processes and not that the one causes the other. This basically means that the language learning does not result in language acquisition. Nunan (2003: 77) states that this hypothesis serves as an implication for the TBLT classroom as the focus should be more on the subconscious acquisition than the conscious learning, where the learners are motivated in taking part in meaning focused activities and communicative tasks rather than the drills emphasized by Krashen. Schmidt's noticing hypothesis is in total contrast with this hypothesis proposed by Krashen. The reason for this contrast is because Schmidt acknowledges that a degree of awareness is necessary in order to develop one's language competence. Skehan (1998: 48) stipulates Schmidt's argument that input is only internalized and effective for processing when noticed.

The second and third hypotheses proposed by Krashen are known as the natural order hypothesis and the monitor hypothesis. Nunan (2003: 78) states that the natural order hypothesis takes the position that learners will acquire grammatical features of a language in a certain order and that learning is not dependant on the first language and the order in which the grammatical features are presented in the syllabus. The monitor hypothesis holds that conscious learning cannot guarantee language acquisition and that the subconsciously acquired language can only be monitored by the learner and can, thus, be guaranteed according to Nunan (2003: 78).

The fourth – and most controversial – hypothesis proposed by Krashen is the input hypothesis. Ellis (2003: 23) states that the input hypothesis holds that language is acquired incidentally and subconsciously, depending on whether the input is comprehendible to the learner or not. Nunan (2003: 79) states that this hypothesis holds the claim that language are acquired when the input is a little beyond the current level of competence already acquired. Krashen developed the formula L+1 to demonstrate this process of acquiring languages.

In addition to the input hypothesis, Merrill Swain suggests the output hypothesis. Edwards and Willis (2005: 21) note Swain's argument that output reflects the language that has been acquired and is a sign that learning is at work. Furthermore, the term *pushed output* has been coined in this hypothesis. *Pushed output* refers to the interlanguage of the learner being stretched in order to improve linguistic knowledge. Edwards and Willis (2005: 22) mention that this 'stretch' occurs because the output forces the learner to analyse the target language syntactically instead of semantically. In this way the learner notices a gap between what they can produce and what they want to produce. The main argument of this hypothesis, according to Nunan (2003: 80), is that even though input is necessary, learners need opportunities to produce the target language as the production of the language requires a different psycholinguistic process from the comprehension of a language.

The interaction hypothesis proposed by Michael Long, as stipulated by Edwards and Willis (2005: 21), is an integration of both the input and the output hypotheses since it makes provision for comprehensible input and modified output. Ellis (2003:81) and Nunan (2003:80) note that Long places equal emphasis on input and output by coining the term *negotiation of meaning*, stating that the best input is that which motivates opportunities to negotiate meaning. The output or production of the second language is modified or adjusted in situations where a communication breakdown has occurred, which makes the communication more comprehensible. Edwards and Willis (2005: 21) state that these adjustments enable the learners to pay more attention to linguistic forms while they produce the language. Skehan (2003:3f) distinguishes between three approaches to interaction. The first approach he identifies is the psycholinguistic approaches that entail Long's interaction hypothesis. Therefore, it will also entail the input hypothesis and the output hypothesis as the interaction hypothesis integrates both these hypotheses. The psycholinguistic approach, as discussed by Skehan (2003), involves much discussion on the notion of negotiation of meaning and will thus not be discussed here but only later in this section.

The second approach proposed by Skehan (2003) is the socio-cultural approach, which stems from what Vygotsky accounted for language learning. Ellis (2003: 24) notes Vygotsky's argument that language is socially constructed, which provides learners with opportunities to interact with others learning the second language. These opportunities enable the learners to produce language functions that they at first cannot perform on their own. As the learners practice these functions, they internalize the functions and are thus able to perform the functions without collaborative interaction. Edwards and Willis (2005: 24) mentions that this

approach involves learners collaboratively constructing knowledge as a joint activity. Skehan (2003: 5) emphasizes that the focus is on "how learners co-construct meaning while engaging in interaction" in the socio-cultural theory. The outcomes are personal and unpredictable, since learners modify the activities to suit their own goals and also take part in interactions with other second language learners in order to solve communication breakdowns. As a result, this approach focuses more on internal processes than the external processes in language learning.

The third approach proposed by Skehan (2003: 5) concerns the cognitive perspectives of language learning. This approach is concerned with the psychological processes that take place while learners are completing tasks. According to Skehan (2003: 5) the focus is mainly on: the elements and resources to which the learners give attention when completing a task; the task components that may influence the performance of the learners; and the effect that certain external conditions may have on the learners while they perform a task. He identifies three aspects having an influential effect on learner performance, namely: fluency, accuracy and complexity. Edwards and Willis (2005: 23) explain that fluency refers to the learner communicating in real time. They state that the goal of learner fluency is to be able to communicate without hesitation and communication breakdowns. They also state that accuracy refers to the learner's ability to use the language in such a way that the use satisfies the norms of the second language. Here, grammatical features, functions and notions play an important role for the learner. Lastly, they state that complexity refers to the learner communicating in such a way that he/she makes use of elaboration, and complex language structures. Edwards and Willis (2005: 23) mention that in identifying these three aspects, Skehan (2003) argues that one can use them in order to manipulate tasks to result in different types of performances and communication.

The following section serves as an elaboration of the interaction hypothesis of Long (1989; 1996) discussed above. This discussion on negotiation of meaning is important as it plays a vital role in the TBLT classroom and the acquiring of a second language.

2.1.6 Negotiation of meaning and interaction

Linguistic conversational adjustments also known as negotiation of meaning is argued by Michael Long as important for promoting comprehensible input. Input that is

incomprehensible is made comprehensible by the negotiation of meaning therefore adjusting and reformulating the utterance in such a way to clear the communication breakdown. Samuda and Bygate (2009: 116) state that the adjustment and reformulation of the speakers of the conversation check for clarity in order to understand their own and other's messages.

Skehan (1998:20) argues that the communication in tasks, which initiates interaction and negotiation of meaning, gives the teacher insight into the learner's interlanguage regarding its limitations and extensions needed. In this regard, the teacher can provide appropriate feedback and scaffolding at the appropriate time. He further states that scaffolding is a term widely used by researchers of the socio-cognitive approaches to second language acquisition. Scaffolding, in this sense, relates to the participants and/or teacher scaffolding the interaction by means of giving support and helping each other to negotiate for meaning together. Scaffolding is discussed in more detail in section 2.4.3.2.

Samuda and Bygate (2009: 117) suggest a constructivist process which relates to the socio-cognitive approaches to second language acquisition in that the learners work together in finding clarity to messages. This also holds the term scaffolding, but another term also features there, namely 'recasting'. Skehan (2003: 3) defines recasting in the psycholinguistic approaches to acquiring a second language. Recasting is an implicit feedback strategy used by teachers to initiate and sustain negotiation of meaning. It entails the teacher to repeat the utterance made by the participant of the conversation. In this repetition the teacher will rephrase the incorrect utterance, changing it so that it will be correct. Recasting can also occur by the participant of the conversation himself/herself. This is called self-initiated recasting. The learner is aware of the incorrect utterance and corrects it before moving on with the conversation.

However, there are other strategies to initiate and sustain interaction during negotiation of meaning. Learners will make use of certain moves in the conversation. These moves are according to Long (1996) clarification requests, comprehension checks and confirmation checks. The employment of these conversational moves ensures opportunities for the learners to restructure their interlanguage systems which, in turn, ensure better language development. This allows the learners to come to a better understanding of their limitations and difficulties.

In exploring negotiation of meaning, Nunan (2003:83) invokes Martyn's three ratios in which the density of negotiation can be measured. The elements featuring in negotiation of meaning

is the number of signals per negotiation sequence, the number of responses per negotiation sequence and the number of signals per response. These elements play a part in a four-stage process which can be manipulated in such a way as to influence the complexity of certain tasks. The first stage is the trigger. The trigger begins the sequence, followed by the signal. The signal indicates that there is something that the speaker said that the listener does not comprehend which is followed by a response. The response is the speaker's attempts to make adjustments to his/her initial utterance to repair the miscomprehension. The follow-up closes the sequence. This step may take a bit of time depending on how many responses are necessary. A task would thus be classified as difficult or complex depending on how many times the elements will play a part in the utterance and the conveying of meaning.

The output hypothesis of Swain is also relevant as the adjustment that the learner makes might entail more grammatical features than the initial utterance might have had. Therefore the result will be what Swain calls "pushed output" because, as Ellis (2003: 72) further states, "'pushed output' is output that reflects what learners can produce when they are pushed to use the target language accurately and concisely".

Nunan (2003:84) uses Pica et al (1993) to classify four conditions for optimizing the opportunities for the negotiation of meaning. These conditions first include that each learner participating in the task must hold a different part of the information needed to complete the task. Second, the information has to be exchanged in order for the task to be completed successfully. Third, each learner that participates in the task must have the same goals in order to complete the task successfully. Lastly, only one outcome is possible to the task. Activities that consist of causalities, reasoning and complex sentences will also illicit more negotiation of meaning.

According to Samuda and Bygate (2009: 17), the researchers investigating negotiation of meaning were interested in finding out whether or not tasks could be designed to stimulate negotiation. The implication for this is that the investigations did not involve whether or not the negotiation results in language learning, therefore the assumption is that if a task does not initiate negotiation of meaning or the negotiation did not lead to acquisition, the task would not qualify as a pedagogic task. Skehan (1998: 20) provides further criticism noted by Aston (1986). Aston argued that tasks initiating negotiation of meaning through scaffolding and the extensive recasting of the teacher could have a negative effect on the learners' language development in that the negotiation of meaning may not fit into the natural discourse of

communicative tasks. In other words the tasks might feel too artificial and in that sense not applicable to the outside world and thus not motivating to the learners. Aston further stated that the negotiation of meaning might confuse learners while they are busy implementing other processing strategies or overload their processing systems. Aston argued that this may result in effective scaffold negotiations of meanings which stimulate more complex language being used, but may not have an impact on the interlanguage and language development, for the processing systems are overloaded and thus do not enable sufficient time to consider the significance of what has been negotiated.

To summarize the section above, we discussed all the issues surrounding finding a proper definition in relation to various viewpoints in second language research of a task in a TBLT syllabus and also what such a task should consist of. This section also points out the focus on form aspect of TBLT and how focuses on form and grammatical aspects should be used and viewed in a TBLT syllabus. The following section deals with the psycholinguistic cognitive processes involved in language learning and use, where the last few aspects around TBLT will be discussed. We shall look at issues surrounding various psycholinguistic models involved in language acquisition and learning as well as several notions and aspects regarding these models, such as noticing, attention, consciousness and negotiation of meaning. The following section thus focuses on issues surrounding the psycholinguistic cognitive processes involved in language learning and use.

2.2. PSYCHOLINGUISTIC COGNITIVE PROCESSES INVOLVED IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND USE

2.2.1 Cross-linguistic similarity in language learning

This section explores research perspectives on the different types of cross-linguistic similarities and the effects they have on learning a second language. Thereafter the section explores views form recent research of the cross-linguistic relationships that exist between two languages. The section is brought to a close by discussing the different types of transfer regarding the first and the second language and the implications that transfer has for teaching a second language.

According to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009:106), similarities between languages have a much more direct effect on language learning than the differences between languages – this can be seen in the way in which learners try to create links between the second language and the first language or to prior knowledge that they have of the second language. The similarities that they perceive from prior knowledge is called *intra-lingual similarities*, but in the beginning stages learners do not have a lot of prior knowledge of the second language and thus mostly rely on first language knowledge for perceiving linguistic similarities.

Ringbom and Jarvis (2009:107) maintain that *perceived similarities* are usually the inaccurate or incomplete awareness of actual similarities that exist between the first and the second language – that is, what the learners perceive as similarities between the first and second language is incorrect. On the other hand, they state that *actual similarities* are the perceived similarities between the first and second language that are accurate. Actual similarities play a positive role in the acquisition and proficiency of the second language as these similarities remain constant. Learners will only rely on certain actual similarities depending on how language specific they consider the language features to be and therefore actual similarities have some constraints. *Assumed similarities*, according to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009) have a far more direct effect on the learning and performance of the second language than the actual similarities in that there are different assumed similarities that work differently in comprehension and production. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 107) further note that perceptions of similarities between languages change as the learners' second language experience and proficiency increases, thus assumed similarities have the strongest and most direct impact on second language learning and performance.

In comprehension, perceived similarities entail that the learners become aware of features of the second language and then recognize them as having a resemblance to a language they already know. These similarities are known as *formal similarities* and involve that the similarities between the languages are related to spelling, pronunciation etc. Learners tend not to assume these similarities until they have actually perceived them. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 108) also argue that the distance between the two languages and the learners' proficiency in the second language influences the perceived similarities to a great extent. For example, the distance between Afrikaans and English is not as great as the distance between Afrikaans and isiXhosa or English and isiXhosa. Therefore learners might be able to perceive more similarities between Afrikaans and English than Afrikaans and isiXhosa or English and isiXhosa. However, Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 108) argue that when the learners produce the

second language, they are not engaging in perceiving the similarities – they are rather encoding their ideas into the language structures they have previously learned or into language structures that they have created in the absence of learned knowledge (the similarities that they assume exist). Note if learners only assume that the second language works in the same manner as the first language, it might result in a lot of errors. Accordingly, some assumed formal similarities have a positive effect on second language learning. According to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 108), learners have a strong tendency to assume semantic and pragmatic similarities between the first language and the second language without ever perceiving those similarities. They further mention that it is also the case that learners will over-assume similarities. One will especially find an overuse and mostly incorrect use of loanwords in the early stages of learning a second language.

Three different types of cross-linguistic similarity relationships are distinguished by Ringbom and Jarvis (2009). The first type of cross-linguistic similarity relationship that might exist between two languages is that of a *similarity relation.* Similarity relation refers to an item or pattern in the second language that is perceived as formally and/or functionally similar to the form of the first language. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009) state that full-scale similarity in both form and function is very rare to find between two languages. The second type of cross-linguistic similarity relationship is that of *contrast relation*. Contrast relation according to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009:109) refers to the learner perceiving that the second language patterns differ from the first language forms/patterns but that the two languages *do* have some similarities, for example they might belong to the same language family. Therefore they argue that varying similarities and differences are encountered while learning the second language as this foundation of similarities allows them to contrast what is different.

The third type of cross-linguistic similarity relationship that might exist between two languages is that of *zero relation.* First, Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 110) maintain that zero relation does not necessarily mean that there is no relevant knowledge that can be transferred from the first language, because there are some linguistic universals common to all languages. An important aspect is the varying levels of abstraction: when the abstraction between the languages is high, the learner cannot easily notice features in the second language that are common to those of the first language. They argue that if the level of abstraction is low the learner will find it easier to find these features. This means that, in the early stages of learning the second language, the learners will have little or no perceptions of items and patterns that may relate to the first language. As their proficiency develops they become more aware of the

points of contrast between the two languages. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 110) point out that as a result, there is a zero relation in the beginning that later becomes a contrast relation by the learner. The process of perceiving similarities between languages is called **transfer** and is discussed in the following section, because this process influences language development.

2.2.1.1   Transfer

Ringbom and Jarvis distinguish three types of transfer. Before one can explore the impact that transfer has on learning a second language, distinctions are necessary between the types of transfer. The first type of transfer proposed by Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 111) is that of *item transfer*, relating to the one-to-one relationship that exists in the mind between an item in the second language and an item/concept in the first language. This type of transfer is encountered especially in the early stages of learning a second language since learners usually take on an item-by-item basis in all the areas of the language learning in the beginning. Normally, beginner learners combine perceived similarities of form combined with assumed similarities of function/meaning. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009; 111) further argue that the reason for this is because the second language is still insufficient to make use of intra-lingual similarities. They maintain that beginner learners tend to map function/meanings of the second language items directly onto the existing first language items during comprehension and vice versa. Moreover, the learners tend to focus on form rather than on meaning/function. This is because meanings and functions are more abstract and less accessible to direct observations. According to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009) item transfer does have a positive effect on learning, especially on comprehension and in the case where learners have insufficient prior knowledge of the second language.

The second transfer type distinguished by Ringbom and Jarvis (2009:111) is *procedural/system transfer*. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 111) state that "Learners assume there is cross-linguistic functional equivalence but they do not necessarily assume any formal item similarities between the languages," Regarding procedural transfer, a further distinction is necessary between *negative transfer* and *positive transfer*. Negative transfer according to them refers to the absence of relevant, concrete, positive transfer, meaning that learners make the wrong assumptions of similarity between the first and the second language. On the other hand, positive transfer refers to the use of at least partially correct perceptions/ assumptions of the similarities between the first and the second language. The negative or positive transfer

with regards to procedural transfer in comprehension according to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009:111) will depend on the extent to which the assumptions actually work and to what extend the learners assume the second language works the same as the first language. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 112) argue that the procedural transfer that takes place in the production can either be intrusive (the inappropriate use of first language based items and structures), inhibitive (prevent the learner from learning how to use new words and structures) and facilitative (boosts the ability to access, process and organize the target language information due to similarities between the first and second language systems).

The third type of transfer identified by Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 112) is *overall transfer*. Learners rely on conceptions of both formal similarities and functional similarities between the underlying systems of the two languages. TBLT tries to promote the second and third type of transfer because the focus is on parallel learning and focussing on meaning (procedural and overall transfer) rather than form (item transfer).

Aforementioned types of transfer clearly result in different types of learning, Ringbom and Jarvis (2009:113) name them: item learning for comprehension, system learning for comprehension, item learning for production and system learning for production. The reason for this is that the transfer has different effects on the learning process as well as the production and comprehension.

These different types of learning, cross-linguistic similarities and relationships and types of transfer hold some implications for teaching in that teachers should make use of actual similarities in the early stages of teaching the second language. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 115) argue that if the languages are closely related, the teacher should outline the systematic recurring correspondences and also concentrate more on the actual differences that do exist. They further argue that if the relationship between two languages is relatively distant, mid- and high frequency loanwords may facilitate learning. In conclusion, cross-lingual similarities are important for comprehension and production, but when teaching, the teacher should keep in mind individual characteristics. There should be a balance between encouraging learners to use actual similarities and preventing the reliance on only assumed similarities. A relationship between the processes of transfer, interlanguage and other aspects such as grammar exists in language learning and is discussed in the following section.

2.2.2 Sequences and processes in language learning

This section presents a review of some key research by Ortega (2009: 81) on the relationship between interlanguage, instruction, sequences in grammar and central processes regarding second language input. First the concept of interlanguage is discussed in terms of what it is and the different domains of interlanguage that exist in second language learning research. The discussion addresses questions of how learners move from interlanguage to sequences or systematic patterns in grammar. The discussion further review research perspectives on how learners move on from these sequences to several central processes regarding the input and instruction.

Ortega (2009: 82) proposes that interlanguage is a language system that a learner constructs during language development. This construction can occur during any time of language development and differs from learner to learner. According to him an interlanguage can be characterized as systematic and a natural language in its own right. In this sense, interlanguage follows the same principles as in learning any other language. Ortega (2009: 82) maintains that the interlanguage of a learner reflects his/her competence of certain elements of the first and second language and also how the learner perceives or understands the various second language concepts and elements. Ortega (2009: 81) states that not only does the interlanguage reflect competence of elements in the first and second language but it contains elements that go beyond both the languages. The concept of interlanguage according to Ortega (2009: 82) awakes a question in second language learning research that has been asked for many centuries. This question involves the different perspectives on how a language is learned and deals with the theories of Universal Grammar and the behavioural perspectives of Skinner. The question involves whether all learners have a 'specific human language faculty' that is inborn/generic (Universal Grammar) or whether constraints are provided by the same general cognitive learning mechanisms that help them to process and learn any kind of information (Behaviourist perspective). Ortega (2009:82) argues for the second option in that language is learned by means of general cognitive learning mechanisms. This perspective is used to show how second language learners develop their grammar knowledge in order to communicate.

According to Ortega (2009: 82) the construction of interlanguage entails a build of mental representations of input provided. These representations of input may differ according to the

surrounding environment of the learner. Ortega (2009:82) further states that during the process of language learning and practice, learners produce errors that cannot be picked up from the input. These errors are not forms/meanings that can be learned from a textbook. He further argues that the knowledge of a first language does have an influence on interlanguage in various ways since many errors can be traced back to the first language, but the first language cannot be the correct explanation for the errors that occur during the learning of a second language. Consequently, Ortega (2009: 82) states that one cannot explain interlanguage errors that are directly attributable to the input of the first language and second language.

Ortega (2009) thus investigates how interlanguage errors can be explained. In order to answer this question, Ortega (2009: 83) mentions that one should refer back to the definition of interlanguage in that it is the systematic **innovations** that learners **independently** create when they are trying to figure out the workings of a new language system. In other words, interlanguages differ from individual to individual. This may also be the answer to why there are so many errors concerning the different elements of language. Ortega (2009: 83) further maintains that forces such as syntactic, semantic-discoursal and statistical, conceptual and sensor motor processing and social incentives learners experience also play a role. To conclude, interlanguages are more than just input and the influence of the first language.

According to Ortega (2009: 83) in the development of interlanguage, learners go through several stages/sequences. Five interlanguage domains are distinguished by Ortega (2009:84) that illustrate these second language sequences. The first sequence is named the systematisation in the development of accuracy. This sequence involves the mastering of some elements of language in a specific order, and this order represents the point at which learners across studies reached a conventional level of accuracy for each of the forms. Ortgea (2009: 84) states that the accuracy order has shown to be similar for both young and older learners, instructed or not and regardless of first language background. The systematisation according to him reflects properties in language input such as frequency and perceptual and functional cues. The domain tries to state that all learners will eventually master elements of the language in a particular order no matter the order of instruction.

The second domain entails the sequence of focus on complex form-function mappings (the sequenced development of temporal expression). Ortega thus investigates how the learner

expresses a given function in the second language through a range of forms available. Ortega (2009: 85) believes that there are three phases that are the same for each learner. The first phase is the marking of tenses only by means of pragmatic devices, which is why a chronological order of events is followed. The second phase is the adding of more lexical devices and expressing temporal relations in a more explicit manner as the learners' language repertoires expand. The last stage is the use of morphological forms to express grammatical notions related to time. Not all forms emerge at once; only one function/meaning is expressed initially and the three phases unfold in a gradual process.

Ortega (2009: 88) proposes that the third domain of interlanguage involves the developmental sequences of negation syntax which also unfolds in predictable sequences in production. These negation stages reflect the learners' internal grammar representations. According to Ortega (2009: 88) learners build on and revise them until they are able to use the language successfully. He mentions that learners 'outgrow' each stage as they develop to go to a more advanced solution/error stage.

The fourth domain proposed by Ortega (2009:89) consists of the sequences revolving around the development of word order and questions. Here, some learners develop high levels of accuracy and they are able to shed ungrammatical errors at certain stages; others, however, will not. Learners need to gradually develop their psycholinguistic capacity so that it can match the grammatical information they encounter. Ortega (2009: 90) states that in the beginning stages this capacity is very limited.

The last domain proposed by Ortega (2009: 90) consists of the implicational, hierarchical acquisition. This domain is concerned with the markedness of certain functions. Ortega (2009:91) argues that some functions are more complex than others and some learners take a while to master them while others acquire them easily and are ready to move to the next element/function. In isiXhosa, for example, moods like the relative and subjunctive are more complex than the indicative and imperative. Some functions and tenses are also more complex than others; for example, in many languages the past tense is more complex than the present.

During the developments through the aforementioned sequences, learners move and undergo several processes in order to develop their internal grammars. Ortega (2009: 93) distinguishes five such central processes. The first is *simplification*. Simplification according to him involves the usage of vocabulary and sentences that consist of very little syntax. The second process is *overgeneralization*. This process entails the over usage of a new learned form, function or word. These newly learned forms, functions and words are often also used in contexts that are not suitable. The third process distinguished by Ortega (2009: 95) is that of *restructuring*. This process involves the occurrence of errors in the learners' language production that they previously did not make. Ortega (2009: 95) suggests that this process can also be described by a fourth process, namely the *U-shaped behaviour*. This behaviour consists of the mastering of a certain form – but once another form is introduced, errors regarding the previously mastered form occur. The last process is that of *fossilization*. Ortega (2009: 96) states that learners stop anywhere along a given sequence of development. Some may even stop permanently. The learner has thus not achieved optimal learning conditions. Many learners learn a second language for years, some may achieve a native-like ability and others not.

To conclude the discussion of interlanguage, sequences and processes, five generalizations that influence second language teaching can be made according to the information provided above. These generalizations can mostly be made about the relationship between inter-language development and instruction. The generalizations have implications for instruction as well as for developmental sequences and processes. The first generalization discussed by Ortega (2009: 98) is that instruction cannot affect the route of second language development in any fundamental way. The development is unpredictable and no form of instruction can guarantee a specific outcome. This is also because learners learn in different ways.

Ortega (2009: 99) states that the second generalization entails that instruction can have some effect on processes, fostering some and inhibiting others. This is especially the case in classrooms where the grammar is made explicit to the learners. Learners are focused on being grammatically correct and are drilled in such a way that some processes are enhanced but others inhibited (spontaneous talk will not take place in a 'natural' way). Thirdly, Ortega (2009: 99) states that instruction can be ineffective when the teacher ignores developmental readiness. The learners need to be ready to move to the next stage. They do not have to be

100% accurate, but they have to have a manner of control/mastery over the specific element of the language before they can move to the next stage, otherwise they might feel overloaded. Not only can this influence their motivation to learn the second language but their overall development, as well. Therefore (the fourth generalization), not all sequences present equal challenges for instruction. This is because interlanguage development differs from learner to learner. According to Ortega (2009:100) the last generalization is that instruction does have a positive effect on the rate of development. Instructed learners progress faster to a more native-like use of the second language and they typically become more accurate overall in contrast to uninstructed learners.

Knowledge about sequences and processes of interlanguage development can help teachers regarding errors in a different manner. Errors reflect the learner's interlanguage and are, as Ortega (2009:101) states, 'healthy signs of learning'. It is of great importance that learners should be developmentally ready in order to progress to different developmental stages. In defining the processes in second language learning the following section entails a discussion on the various distinctions regarding cognitive-psychological processes in second language learning.

2.2.3 Cognitive-psychological processes in second language learning

In this section, components of second language knowledge are discussed in order to establish working definitions and distinctions, how the components of second language knowledge is used, acquired, learned, monitored and practiced. The distinctions discussed are: the competence-performance distinction, the declarative-procedural distinction, the explicit-implicit distinction, item-rule, and the knowledge-use distinction as proposed by DeKeyser (2009: 119).

DeKeyser (2009:119) states that the competence-performance knowledge distinction formulated by Chomsky in 1965 is the oldest and most widely known in second language psycholinguistics. Many researchers feel that this distinction is not necessary or important for second language acquisition research since it is outdated and consists of competence as a philosophical concept and performance with a collection of restrictions. The knowledge distinction of representation-processing, according to DeKeyser (2009: 120), should rather be

used here because the distinction involves the processing in the mind in real-time as the communication takes place. The distinction (DeKeyser, 2009: 120) is concerned with the processes that bridge the gap between the form in which the knowledge is stored in the mind and the form in which the knowledge is produced, represented or visually perceived. Logically, the representation of the knowledge stored in the mind is determined by the processing of the information in the mind.

In order to understand the distinction of declarative-procedural knowledge, one should first have a good understanding of the different components the distinction consists of. Firstly, declarative knowledge according to DeKeyser (2009: 120) should be understood as the type of knowledge determining that 'something is' and is divided into two vital parts, namely: *semantic memory*, consisting of the knowledge of words, concepts and/or facts; and *episodic memory*, consisting of the knowledge of experienced events. Secondly, DeKeyser (2009: 121) proposes that procedural knowledge should be understood as the type of knowledge of how to 'do' something and can be divided into two vital parts: *psychomotor skills* and *cognitive skills.* He maintains that psychomotor skills entail the knowledge of the physical aspects of knowledge how to 'do' something, for example how to swim or screw on a light bulb. Cognitive skills, on the other hand, involve the cognitive aspects of knowledge of how to 'do' something, for example solve a math problem or listen or read a text. DeKeyser (2009: 121) argues that this distinction is central to the acquisition of skills in the second language. Through various studies and experiments, results have shown that there should be a shift from the reliance on declarative to the reliance on procedural knowledge during the learning process within an individual. This means that both these types of knowledge (declarative and procedural) should work in conjunction in the learner's mind when he/she are busy completing a task. One type of knowledge should not be seen as superior or inferior to the other but rather as knowledge that assists and aids each other in second language acquisition. In TBLT the manner in which the second language is taught reflects this reliance on both of the types of knowledge. Learners focus more on how to use the language than learning about the language.

DeKeyser (2009: 121) identifies the distinction of explicit-implicit knowledge. Although the above distinction overlaps this distinction to a great extent, DeKeyser (2009: 121) argues that explicit knowledge is not exactly the same as declarative knowledge, due to the fact that explicit knowledge is not necessarily accessible to the awareness of the learner. He further states that implicit knowledge is not exactly the same as procedural knowledge as implicit

knowledge can be the result of proceduralization and automatization of declarative knowledge. Explicit knowledge according to DeKeyser (2009: 121) is the type of knowledge that is made explicitly aware to the learner and is thus conscious and can be verbalized. Implicit knowledge is the type of knowledge that the learner should imply from the input given to him/her. DeKeyser (2009: 121) distinguishes that implicit knowledge is indirectly acquired from behaviour (outside of awareness) and cannot be verbalized. In a TBLT classroom, learners mostly have to acquire knowledge implicitly, but there *is* a place where some grammar knowledge will be made explicit. The grammar rules explicitly made depend on the type of functions or notions the learners find in the task and, in most cases, how complex they are. TBLT tries to create a balance between the two types of knowledge since, as DeKeyser (2009: 122) suggests, one cannot design classroom techniques or instructions that are 'purely' implicit or explicit. Rather, DeKeyser believes that a continuum exists between the explicit and implicit knowledge – the reason being that when techniques and instructions are purely implicit, the learners might never internalize the language correctly. When the techniques or instructions are purely explicit, the learners might never be able to use the language in a natural way during communication.

The term metalinguistic knowledge or awareness is also discussed by DeKeyser (2009: 122) in conjunction with the distinction of explicit-implicit knowledge. The term metalinguistic knowledge has three different meanings. First, DeKeyser (2009: 122) mentions that the learner has knowledge or an awareness of what is right and wrong in a given sentence without knowing why. This meaning involves a restructuring or reorganization of information into a format that is accessible to certain tasks outside normal input-output relations, but does not necessarily have a metalinguistic explanation. Thus the meaning of metalinguistic knowledge is entirely implicit. The second meaning to metalinguistic knowledge according to DeKeyser (2009: 122) entails that the learner has a metacognition about the language, which means that the learner is explicitly aware of grammar rules through instruction. The third and final meaning to metalinguistic knowledge entails metalinguistic in the sense of language about language. DeKeyser (2009: 123) points out that this is the ability to verbalize for which the explicit knowledge of language rules and functions is a necessity but not a sufficient condition.

The distinction of item-rule identified by DeKeyser (2009: 123) consists of the shortcuts learners employ while acquiring the second language. Learners make shortcuts by saving some verb forms as items in the brain. According to DeKeyser (2009: 123) items can often be

entire strings of words or single words. Single words saved as items aid in vocabulary learning, yet what is of greater concern here is the saving of entire word strings as items in the brain. These strings are often referred to as holistic chunks/ multi-word phrases or formulaic expressions. DeKeyser (2009: 123) suggest that the shortcut is created by saving these strings as an item rather than having to put them together on the basis of a rule. These strings are usually high-frequency forms, since learners will encounter them in various continuing tasks. This item saving and learning of formulaic expressions is an aid to the beginner learner who has to first build a basis of the second language before the second language can be analysed according to various rules.

2.2.3.1   Knowledge-use

In discussing how the distinctions outlined above are used in second language acquisition, the distinction of knowledge-use used must first be understood. DeKeyser (2009: 124) argues that the term 'use' should not be confused with performance. Use refers to the social as well as cognitive constraints of a second language that are often outside of the scope of grammatical competence. Learners might have knowledge of all the rules of the second language but cannot speak the language. DeKeyser (2009: 124) states that this is not because there is a gap between competence and performance, but a gap between insufficient proceduralized/automatized explicit knowledge on the one hand and very limited implicit and/ or automatized knowledge on the other. That is, learners may be able to perform the language because of the grammatical competence that they have but not be able to use the language outside of the classroom because of a lack of social or cognitive constraints.

DeKeyser (2009: 126) says that implicit knowledge is the main focus in a second language classroom, but he argues that explicit knowledge, declarative, procedural and automatized knowledge also aids to the acquiring of implicit knowledge. Therefore the presence of the one type of knowledge is conducive to or plays a causal role in the development of the other. DeKeyser (2009: 126) distinguishes between a strong as well as weak position for this usage of the various types of knowledge. The strong position (DeKeyser, 2009:126) demands that explicit knowledge on its own will not necessarily lead to proceduralization, while the same is true for implicit knowledge. In order to achieve a high degree of proceduralization in the use of a structure, learners should evolve parallel with declarative knowledge about the specific structure. As a result, explicit declarative knowledge leads to proceduralization. DeKeyser

(2009: 127) maintains that the weak position implies that explicit knowledge is merely helpful in speeding up the implicit knowledge processes. The learning and acquisition of a second language is often conceived of as implicit learning for some elements and explicit learning for others.

According to DeKeyser (2009: 130), practice and monitoring links with the use of the different distinctions of the types of knowledge explained above also aid in the acquisition and development of the second language. DeKeyser (2009: 130) states that practice refers to the specific activities in the classroom with the goal of developing knowledge and skills in the second language. The practice involves implicit and explicit learning, and declarative and procedural knowledge. DeKeyser (2009: 131) suggests that the repeated use of the same structures and communication drills in different tasks is essential, especially when little declarative knowledge is available. He further mentions that the repeated use of these formulae helps learners to practice and also notice them in an implicit manner. These are high-frequency strings that are stored in the mind as items/formulaic expressions and are thus proceduralized through production. Monitoring one's speech production plays an important role in language development while also playing an essential role in the competence of second language knowledge (DeKeyser, 2009: 131). DeKeyser mentions that one can monitor this by comparing the output of knowledge to the knowledge input. Monitoring is done in various ways by both the learners (monitoring their own language development) and the teachers (by means of corrective feedback and evaluations).

To summarize this secion on psycholinguistic processes involved in language learning and usage, we discussed various important aspects: the similarities that exist between languages; how transfer can have a positive effect on acquiring a second language; the sequences and domains in which the inter-language in developed; and the various types of knowledge and how this knowledge can be used. The following section presents a review of recent research on features that should be understood when designing a syllabus. This includes: what a syllabus is; types of syllabi; the grading and sequencing within a syllabus (tasks and issues regarding instruction); and various elements that can be implemented in order to promote learner performance. The discussions in the previous sections are thus also relevant because the syllabus design revolves around designing a task-based syllabus of second language learners of isiXhosa.

2.3.   SYLLABUS DESIGN

2.3.1 Defining a syllabus

Nunan (2003: 4) states that in many instances the word 'syllabus' can be synonymously used with 'curriculum'. In some instances syllabus is used to refer to a particular program of study. In the broader sense it is a design that can be used to carry out a language program. A syllabus consists of goals and objectives for the particular program being taught. Nunan (2003:4) suggests that these goals and objectives need to be identified, listed, organized, graded and assessed. Brown (1994: 51) puts it differently by stating that a syllabus is concerned with certain linguistic- and subject matter objectives/outcomes that have to meet the needs of a particular group of learners. As a syllabus includes considerations to objectives and outcomes surrounding specific needs of a particular group of learners, different types of syllabi can be indentified. Different types of syllabi are needed in order to ensure effective and maximun learning.

Basturkmen (2006: 21) states that in the broad spectrum of syllabi, a distinction can be made between synthetic and analytic syllabi. Synthetic syllabi (Basturkmen, 2006: 21) entail that the "language is segmented into discrete linguistics items for presentation one at a time." This type of syllabus turns the focus of the learners to the grammar elements of the language and the syllabus will not insist on focusing too much on the communicative aspect of the language. An analytic syllabus, on the other hand, consists of the language being presented without any insisted focus on linguistic or grammar elements of the language as the language is seen as a holistic phenomenon. Robinson (2009: 295) states that synthetic syllabi relate to a focus on specific language elements (such as grammatical structures and/ or language functions) being learned and acquired in a linear and separate sequence from easy to complex. The syllabi thus assume that the learner will be able to use these parts of the language together in a communicative and meaningful way in real-world situations, even though they have been presented separately in the classroom. Robinson (2009: 295) further states that analytic syllabi hold the argument that language in the real world does not follow in a linear way, thus the language elements in these classes will not be taught in separation but rather combined in holistic language. The holistic language will be performed in communicative activities. According to Robinson (2009: 295) the learner has to analyse the different aspects of the

language usage and structure as the communicative activity requires of them in terms of their interlanguage development, their different learning styles, and so forth.

Robinson (2009: 296) mentions that the traditional approaches to syllabus design such as grammar syllabi and notional-functional syllabi will follow a synthetic approach in that with the grammar syllabi the grammar structures will be taught in isolation of each other. Robinson (2009: 296) states that the syllabi will not consist of communicative activities where the learners will have to use these grammar structures in combination to have a communicative and meaningful conversation with each other. The notional-functional syllabi work in more or less the same way. Instead of learning grammar structures Robinson (2009: 297) believes that the learners will learn and acquire notions and functions in isolation. The units (grammar structures and functions /notions) are graded in terms of tense or moods or from simple to complex. Basturkmen (2006: 24) also states that a functional-notional syllabus is organized around separate functions and notions. Functions, here, will include functions such as identifying, reporting, denying, accepting, etc. while notions will refer to abstract concepts such as time, space, dimensions, frequency, etc. Brown (1994:67) argues that the functional-notional syllabus differs from the structural syllabus in that the focus of these functions and notions will be on the pragmatics. According to Robinson (2009: 298), contemporary syllabi will follow an analytic approach to learning a second language.

Robinson (2009: 300) further proposes that a skills-based syllabus is much like aforementioned two syllabi as it is organized around particular skills the learner will need to use in learning the second language. These skills will include listening, reading, writing and speaking skills. The learner will thus learn (in isolation) how to write an essay in the second language or how to speak to another speaker of higher status.

Brown (1994: 230) holds that following an analytic approach, content-based and theme-based syllabi are organized according to specific contents and themes regarding the second language. This allows learners to acquire skills and knowledge of a language in a holistic manner. The same approach is relevant to a task-based syllabus. Brown (1994: 230) maintains that task-based syllabi differ from content- and theme-based syllabi since even though the main focus is on the communication and meaning, the goal is still linguistic in nature. Linguistic, according to Brown (1994: 230), refers to a centrality of function present and pragmatics in learning the language is also of great importance. The task-based syllabus is a type of syllabus that is currently very popular in language teaching institutions. This thesis is

primarily concerned with this type of syllabus and the methodology behind a task-based syllabus. In the next section, the designing of a task-based syllabus will be explored.

2.3.2 Designing a task-based syllabus

In investigating the design of syllabi, Robinson (2009:295) states that the basis of any syllabus is the units of the activities and the sequence in which they will be performed. These units will be formalized according to a domain of knowledge and sequenced or arranged in a certain order to satisfy an objective. Logically then, the units and sequencing will differ depending on the type of syllabus. Robinson (2009: 295) suggests that the units will be analysed according to the language to be learned and, in most cases, will be graded according to difficulty and sequenced from simple to more complex. The choice of sequence can also be in terms of the frequency of certain lexical items.

Robinson (2009: 302) refers Long and Crookes (1993) who stated that the steps taken in designing such a syllabus might include conducting a needs analysis to determine what has to be learned. This is especially essential for a specific purpose syllabus and to identify the real-world tasks that the learners will have to do. Next, Robinson (2009:302) states that a categorization of the tasks into types of tasks (according to the domain or language use situation) is necessary. Once this is done it is also possible to derive different types of pedagogic tasks. The syllabus, according to Robinson (2009: 302) and Long (200), should have a balance between methodology and pedagogy (including focus on form and different methods of feedback). Robinson (2009: 303) states that the last step is to sequence and order the tasks.

Robinson (2009:301) holds that the common choice of unit for a task syllabus is tasks. The tasks used in the classroom are often referred to as target tasks and pedagogic tasks. Robinson (2009: 301) mentions that these tasks are units of real world activities involving language usage identified on the basis of a needs analysis. The tasks will then be broken down into smaller versions and sequenced according to complexity. Nunan (2003: 1) states that *real world tasks /target tasks* are those tasks that stretch beyond the classroom and involve the uses of language that occur in the real world. *Pedagogic tasks* (Nunan, 2003: 1) involve the uses of language in the classroom. Nunan states that both these task types represent realizations of communicative language teaching and opportunities for learning should thus be

created in the classroom in order for the language teaching to be effective. Nunan (2003: 1) suggests that *real world tasks* have to be adapted in such a way so that it is possible to complete the tasks in the classroom. The adapted tasks still need to have a clear relationship with the real world tasks. This is where the pedagogical tasks come in. Nunan (2003:1) states that these tasks are fit for the classroom yet also prepare the learners for "outside" communication.

Brown (1994:228) reflects on Nunan's (2003) five characteristics in defining a task-based syllabus. Nunan (2003) proposes that there should be an emphasis on learning to communicate by means of interaction. Learners should be motivated to become part of their own learning processes. The third characteristic is that, as contribution to the learning, there should be an enhancement of the learners' own personal experiences – this means that familiarity plays a fundamental role. Authentic text should be introduced in this type of syllabus and, lastly, the language of the activities in the classroom should have a link to the language outside of the classroom. In light of these characteristics then, a task-based syllabus broadly agrees with the analytic approach in that grammatical elements are not taught in isolation but might be found in communication activities without the teacher explicitly drawing their attention to these elements. The leaner will be exposed to these grammatical elements in combination with a lot of other structures in the same communication activity, making the acquisition a parallel and holistic one. Nunan (2003:30) also refers to a great amount of naturalistic recycling that takes place. This is because the grammatical elements in these communicative activities will reappear not only in the same communicative activity but in other activities as well. He mentions this as being an "organic view of acquisition" and, in this manner, learners will grow into the language.

In designing a syllabus, as mentioned before, a needs analysis should be conducted in order to establish what should be learned. A needs analysis is a procedure or, as Hyland (2009:204) puts it, "a kind of educational technology, carried out by the course designers or teachers in order to establish 'with precision and accountability' the necessary learning goals and needs surrounding the syllabus to be designed." Brown (2009: 269) states that a needs analysis is a collection of all the information needed for a 'defensible curriculum'. This type of curriculum/ syllabus satisfies all the necessary learning and teaching requirements and information of the students and the teacher in a particular situation. According to Brown (2009: 271), one should first establish the purpose of the needs analysis. Hyland (2009: 204) argues that the reason for this is that the needs analysis functions as a basis from which

teachers will make decisions on how and what the learners will learn. In order to establish the purpose of the needs analysis Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 25) suggest that the domains and language usage situations can be identified. According to them, domains can include work/ business, education/ training, informal/ informal socializing, etc. Language usage situations include situations where there is a requirement to use the second language in the domain in a comfortable way between the participants of the communication action.

The second step is to identify the type of needs involved for the syllabus. Hyland (2009: 204) finds the term 'needs' to be an umbrella term in that it can consist of various elements, learners' goals and backgrounds, language proficiencies, etc. Brown (2009), according to Hyland (2009: 204), sees the term 'needs' as involving what learners know, don't know or want to know. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 20) suggest that one should describe the needs by making a distinction between subjective and objective needs, as learning a language is an activity which is goal-directed. They argue that the subjective needs are statements made by the learners themselves. According to them, subjective needs can involve social situations of a formal nature, the goals for the learners, and how and what they want to learn from a second language. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:20) state that the objective needs consider the personalities of the learners, their proficiency levels and their choices regarding the second language use. Once the needs, domains and language usage situations are identified, they suggest that one can start doing the needs analysis research in order to determine what people think of the second language and what they need from learning the second language.

Once the needs analysis has been conducted and the various task types within the syllabus are determined, the tasks should be graded and sequenced within the syllabus in order to promote optimal learning. The following section includes a detailed discussion on how one goes about grading and sequencing tasks within a syllabus.

2.3.3 Grading and sequencing tasks

As mentioned previously, the basis of any syllabus is its units and how they are sequenced. Robinson (2009:295) states that units are formed according to the domain of knowledge and sequenced in order to satisfy an objective. The units and the sequencing of the units will differ depending on the type of syllabus. Tasks are logically the choice of units for a task-based syllabus. There are several types of tasks that can be used in the classroom but they will

mostly be sequenced and graded according to complexity or content. This grading and sequencing often involves the breaking down of tasks into smaller versions. The smaller versions of the tasks aid the analyzing of the task according to different content or complex properties in order to grade the complexity of the particular task and sequence it accordingly into the syllabus.

Nunan (2003:113) quotes Richards, Platt and Weber (1986:125) in defining the notion of grading:

> Grading is the arrangement of the content of a language course or textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way. Gradation would affect the order in which words, word meanings, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skill etc. are presented. Gradation may be based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken English, or its importance for the learner.

Nunan (2003:124) states that in most cases, tasks will be graded according to how cognitively demanding they are and then sequenced in an order from less cognitively demanding to more cognitively demanding. The more cognitively demanding tasks are challenging to learners but are still doable. The complex tasks according to Nunan (2003: 83) reflect the minimum requirement for the learners to successfully complete the syllabus. In sequencing tasks, Nunan (2003: 125) suggests that one should also consider the fact that the tasks should logically follow up on each other (flow from and into each other forming a link). This concept is also referred to as **task chaining.** Tasks are chained/ tied together through the units of work. Nunan (2003: 125) states that tasks can be "tied together topically/ thematically, through the macro functions, micro functions and grammatical elements they express". This is also known as **task continuity** because each independent task should support the components and enable skills that will be needed to complete the next task.

According to Nunan (2003: 116), pedagogical tasks in a TBLT syllabus are often chained by means of topics. Another aspect that should be kept in mind is the proficiency level of the learner that will perform the particular task. Thus in grading input one should consider the complexity of the input. Grammar factors will be important here, because texts consisting of simple sentences are less complex than texts consisting of longer sentences that often consist of complex embedded clauses. Tasks that require the learner to multi-task (reading and thinking at the same time) will make it more difficult to comprehend. Other things that play a

role in grading input are the length of texts, the density, the vocabulary, the speed at which the text is spoken, the number of speakers involved, the genre of the text and the amount of support given to the learner. Nunan (2003: 116) states that the grading and sequencing of tasks also depends on learner factors such as motivation, strategies, interest and prior knowledge. Nunan (2003: 116) suggest that before one considers rewriting a text, one should remember that the meaning should still be the same and the learners have to experience these complex sentences in order to promote language development. It is better to elaborate than to simplify.

Pedagogical tasks as well as target/real world tasks should prepare learners to use simple and complex sentences that they will encounter in natural language outside of the classroom. Van Gorp and Bogert (2006: 89) argue that learners should be "pushed" to reach higher levels of proficiency. This means that tasks should contain a gap between learners' current proficiency abilities and the language proficiency that is required for the performance of the task. For each learner this gap is different, thus the learners may experience different difficulties in completing the task, resulting in learning different things from the task. However, Van Gorp and Bogert (2006: 89) suggest learner motivation should not be influenced in a negative way by making this gap too big. It is essential that learners employ mental effort in completing the task so that they can solve some comprehension and production difficulties, but the gap between the proficiency of the learner and the proficiency of the task should be doable for the learners in order to motivate them to perform in more complex tasks. They further mention that if the gap is too small learners will also not be motivated to complete the task. An appropriate balance should be kept regarding the size of the gap (the proficiency level of the learners in the classroom often gives the teacher an indication of how big this gap should be).

Nunan (2003: 124 – 125) argues that grading can also be done by giving sets of specifications for learners regarding their proficiency levels. The specification for a beginner on a social level, for example, will entail that the learner must be able to introduce himself/herself, talk about his/her family, greet etc. On an informational level, the learner must be able to ask about and state prices, give directions, etc. Beginner learners also sing songs and recite rhymes at an affective level. Nunan (2003: 124 – 125) states that, at a pre-intermediate level, the specification could entail that the learner must be able to do more complex things such as talking about interests, discuss personal habits, discussing plans, describing other, etc. At an informational level they must be able to make reservations, discuss job experiences and education, etc. They can identify an individual's emotional state from the tone and intonation

at an affective level. On the other hand, Nunan (2003) mentions that, at a high intermediate level, the specification for a learner could entail that the learner must be able to express satisfaction, use a conversational style that suits the audience, etc. At an informational level, they must be able to discuss problems and offer solutions, report what others said, etc. At an affective level, they must be able to listen to imaginative texts for pleasure (or read) and write short, imaginative texts.

The focus of this thesis is the grading and sequencing of tasks according to complexity. The following sections address research perspectives on often misunderstood phenomenon when dealing with grading and sequencing of tasks. These sections include discussions on the difference between task complexity and task difficulty and how teachers can develop a teaching sequence.

2.3.3.1   Task difficulty and task complexity

Difficulty not only has something to do with the task itself but, according to Nunan (2003: 85), also has something to do with the sequencing of the items in the syllabus. Task difficulty refers to learner factors, task factors and text or input factors in other words the external factors. Learner factors (Nunan, 2003: 85) include confidence, motivation, access to prior learning experience in completing similar tasks, if the learner can learn at the required pace, if the learner has the necessary language skills to complete the task and if the learner has cultural knowledge of the second language. Nunan (2003: 85) distinguishes task factors as factors which include the level of cognitive complexity, the number of steps necessary to complete the task, the amount of context available to the learner, the amount of other support the task provides, requirements of grammatical correctness and planning time available to complete the task. Nunan (2003: 85) states that text/ input factors include aspects such as length, number of facts provided, and the clearness of the tasks, textual clues and familiarity. The difficulty of a task is measured according to a scale depending on the level and presence of each of these factors that play a role in completing the task.

Task complexity is measured in performance regarding the aspects distinguished by Skehan (2003) such as accuracy, complexity and fluency. Nunan (2003: 88) states that this performance refers to what the task requires from the learner. Different task types require that learners perform and concentrate on different aspects during the completion of the tasks. For

example, Nunan (2003: 88) states that information exchange and decision making tasks require more accuracy from the learner than narrative tasks, because in narrative tasks learners only have to tell a story in different tenses, whereas in information exchange tasks accuracy regarding the information is needed in order to complete the task more successfully. In determining the requirement of accuracy of a particular task type, the term includes whether the learner has to be lexically accurate or if the flow and intensity of the language is more important for the particular task. On the other hand Nunan (2003: 88) states that (for example), for information exchange tasks the requirement of fluency is a lot higher than in decision making tasks. The fluency is higher because the learner has to use a lot more embedded clauses in sentences that are more complex. Logically then, tasks that require learners to use complex sentences, different tenses, causal sentences, give their own opinions and own perspectives entails a higher cognitive demand from the learner and is more complex.

Procedural factors (Skehan, 2003: 5) also influence the complexity of the task. These procedural aspects include the relevance of the task to the learner, the number of steps the task requires from the learner, the complexity of the instruction, and the processibility of the language in the task. Planning time is another aspect that influences the complexity of tasks. Other aspects that influence the complexity of tasks are the grammatical complexity of the task and feedback.

In chapters 4 and 5 the various tasks relating to campus communication between learners and between learners and lecturers are analyzed according to the complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). Many of the factors mentioned above play a role in grading the tasks according to complexity.

2.3.3.2   Developing a teaching sequence: The role of the teacher

By developing units of work a teaching sequence is developed inside a syllabus. Nunan (2003: 31) describes how teachers can develop such units of work in six steps. The first step he proposes is called *Schema building or Scaffolding*. Nunan (2003: 31) states that the topic of the task and the context will be introduced to the learner. A few of the most frequently used vocabulary on this topic is given to the learner as a starting point to complete the tasks.

Controlled practice is the second step proposed by Nunan (2003: 31). In this step the learners will be able to use the vocabulary, structures and functions that have been introduced to them. Controlled practice according to Nunan (2003: 31) implies that the learner will not be able to use the language freely but through a controlled manner. Techniques often used for controlled practice includes: reading aloud, providing pictures in order to aid the processing of the language and items being discussed and using the interrogative. Nunan (2003: 31) explains that controlled practice provides beginner learners with a 'safe' environment to make mistakes and develop the new language, thus controlled practice aids the scaffolding process.

The next step explained by Nunan (2003: 32) involves the language skill of listening, which is called *authentic listening* practice. In the classroom, Nunan (2003: 32) suggest that the teacher read a text aloud in order for the learners to experience how the second language sounds. A technique used to elicit listening practice suggested by Nunan (2003: 32) is that learners try to listen to natural language outside of the classroom and report on what they have heard in the classroom. This technique comes with a warning by Nunan (2003: 32) that learners should be developmentally ready to process natural language to a certain extent outside of the classroom.

Focus on form or the *grammar stage* is the fourth step described by Nunan (2003: 32). In this step the learners exercise certain linguistic elements of the second language. The learners analyze the linguistic elements that they have heard and seen in or outside the classroom. Nunan (2003: 32) argues that this step must help the learner to see the relationship between the communicative elements (meaning) and the linguistic form of the second language. This means that the linguistic elements should not be presented to the learners in an isolated form but in an implicit or explicit manner where the meaning is still the primary focus.

In all the aforementioned steps the learners were only reproducing information or working on lower levels of cognitive processing in the second language, therefore a controlled environment existed. The step explained by Nunan (2003: 33) as *freer practice*; however, suggest that learners can be more creative with the language. This step often includes working in pairs and doing role plays. Learners are provided with a chance to move closer to normal communication. Nunan (2003: 33) calls this "pushed output" for the learner has to produce the language in order to successfully complete the task. From this step Nunan (2003: 33) suggest the introduction of the *pedagogic task*. After following aforementioned steps Nunan (2003: 33) argues that the learners usually find it quite easy to complete the task or are at least

very motivated to complete the specific task. Nunan (2003: 33) states that the goal is to use the new information they have been introduced to in the class like the vocabulary, functions and grammar in completing the task.

These steps can be used as a guideline to teaching a second language, thus they are not fixed and can be improvised in order to adapt to learner, teacher and educational program needs. Steps such as these are needed in order to justify teacher actions in the classroom. The task cycle introduced by Willis (1996) to the research of developing a teaching sequence within a syllabus also corresponds to the steps mentioned above and follows below.

2.3.3.2.1   Task cycle

Jane Willis' (1996) proposed Task-based framework has been popularly used and referred to by many research studies throughout the years and is still relevant in recent studies where the implementation of tasks is at the order of the day. A task cycle is necessary in order to form a linkage between tasks and components within a task. By implementing a well planned task cycle, one can promote essential tasks and repetition of certain functions.

The framework consists of three components, namely the pre-task, **task cycle** and the language focus. In the pre-task phase Willis (1996:38) propose that the teacher introduce the topic, might highlight some vocabulary that they will encounter during the task cycle, give clear instructions on what they should do and the teacher can show examples of how the task has been done by learners of previous years. Norris (2009: 583) calls this phase the *task input* phase and argees with Willis insomuch that, in this phase, the teacher initiates the teaching sequence before any pedagogic activities is done. In this way learners can familiarize themselves with the new topic by being exposed to language in use because the target task is introduced as it is realized in actual communication.

The language focus or post-task phase consists of analyses done by the learners. Willis (1996: 38) maintains that this forces them to examine and discuss some of the features that they have encountered during the task cycle. The learners practice new words and phrases that occurred during the completion of the task or words and phrases that might also occur in the next task. Norris (2009: 585) calls this phase the *task follow-up* and states that, here, the learners and the teacher reflect on what they have learned, which often serves as a repetition or expansion of

the target task. The teacher can provide the guidance necessary in the case of problems with identifying gaps. Follow-up activities also allow learners to practice/focus on form or to repeat the target task.

The **task cycle** phase is according to Willis (1996: 52) of most concern since the real implementation takes place in this phase. The task cycle consist of three components namely *task*, *planning* and the *report*. In the *task* component the learners do the task in pairs, groups or as individuals. Willis (1996: 52) sates that the teacher can also embark on different roles (facilitator, manager, etc.) during the completion of the task. In the *planning* component the learners will get a chance to prepare their report for the classroom. During this stage the teacher can facilitate the groups by giving them feedback and act as 'scaffold' where necessary. The last component in the task cycle explained by Willis (1996: 52) is the *report* stage. The teacher may select certain groups to present their reports to the rest of the class. Once again the teacher will give appropriate feedback on the content and form. Lastly, Willis (1996: 52) suggests that the teacher should sum up the task by linking some of the information from the different groups so that all the learners in the classroom come to the conclusion together.

Norris (2009: 583-584) divides the aforementioned phase into two seperate phases: the *pedagogic task* work and *the target task performance*. In the *pedagogic task* work phase, the teacher elaborates on the topic by raising learners' awareness of new language forms and functions. The teacher can also divide the classroom in different groups in which learners elaborate on the topic of the task. Learners are interactive in that they try to overcome some information gaps, solve problems, make decisions, negotiate meaning and provide feedback to each other. In this phase Norris (2009: 583) suggests that the teacher adopt certain roles in order to scaffold the learners while they are trying to interact on various pedagogic tasks. In the *target task performance*, the learners can deploy what they have learned during their interaction with each other in order to achieve the outcome of the task. Learners therefore get a chance to practice the use of the language in a meaningful manner.

Regarding Willis' (1996) framework, she also suggests that teachers should remember other principles or conditions of task-based language teaching and learning. These conditions are stated by Willis (1996: 11) as follows: **exposure** (the input should be rich and comprehensible and where more helpful, authentic)**, use** (learners should use the language in the classroom as often as possible to convey meanings)**, motivation** (learners should be motivated to learn and

use the language; this motivation can be achieved by the design of the task or by the teacher) and **instruction** (the teacher should try to instruct the learners in the second language as much as possible)**.**

This framework is good for teachers to use as a guide to how the task procedure should follow and how a language lesson can be developed following a task-based approach. In regards to choosing appropriate actions in the classroom, Nunan (2003) proposes several principles teachers can follow, which are described below.

2.4.3.3 Teaching principles: teachers' choice of actions inside the classroom

The principles proposed by Nunan (2003: 35) should be seen as a guideline to teachers in helping them to monitor their actions in the classroom. These principles can be modified in order to adapt the learner and teacher needs so that the principles benefit both the learner and the teacher. Teachers have a lot of procedures, approaches and techniques to their disposal. The principles aid in creating a combination of these procedures, approaches and techniques that fits the understanding of the approach to teaching a second language of the teacher.

The first principle introduced by Nunan (2003:35) is *scaffolding* and is the most important principle. Nunan (2003: 35) states that this principle implies that the teacher should provide a supporting framework. This framework can be removed at a certain point as the learner progresses. Nunan (2003: 35) proposes that it is very important to know when it is sufficient to remove this scaffold as this can mean the success or failure of a learner. In the case of TBLT, the teacher must do a sort of 'balancing act' as it depends on the teacher's judgment when to remove the scaffold. Nunan (2003: 35) explains that in the beginning stages the learners depend mostly on the teacher as he/she is their only source of information of the target language therefore the scaffold is of high importance in the beginning stages.

The second principle is *task dependency*. Task chaining plays a role in this principle. Nunan (2003:35) states that "within a lesson, one task should grow out of, and build upon, the ones that have gone before". One task depends on the previous tasks. Nunan (2003: 35) suggests that the tasks should lead the learners to be creative and communicative in the second language. He maintains that the tasks should start fairly simple and end with more complicated elements. This corresponds to what Nunan (2003: 36) calls *recycling* which has

to do with the different forms, patterns and structures in tasks that can be seen continuously and are reintroduced when dealing with a topic. The recycling of the second language creates more opportunities for learning. This will make it clear to the learners that the particular forms, patterns and structures are not restricted to a certain topic but that the linguistic items can be used in a range of different environments. Nunan (2003: 35) states that learners can also see how the particular linguistic items work in different contexts and form relationships. This principle is often referred to as repeated exposure or task repetition.

The fourth principle is *active learning*. According to Nunan (2003:36) learners have to use the language actively. This is possible through communicative activities. Communicative activities according to Nunan (2003: 24) represent a kind of "half-way house between language exercises and pedagogical tasks". By doing these activities the learners will develop in using the language more sufficiently because they are actively using the language to complete an activity. Nunan (2003: 36) suggest that most of the class time should be open for such activities, yet the teacher's role should not be forgotten as the teacher will still be needed to give explanations as well as input to the topic. Nunan (2003: 36) proposes that role plays are a good way for the learners to use the language because in pairs the learners can feel safe in practicing. Brown (1994:24) argues that learners will try to add a bit of 'spice' to their dialogues by doing some risk taking and by being creative with their language knowledge. Risk taking involves attempting to use language (productively as well as receptively) that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty. Nunan (2003:37) calls this *reproduction to creation.* The learners should move from reproducing language that is given to them by the teacher to being more creative with the language. Nunan (2003: 37) states that reproductive tasks help learners to master forms, meaning and functions, but in creative tasks learners can combine elements to create something of their own. The learners are thus more in control of their own learning.
The fifth principle proposed by Nunan (2003: 37) is *integration*. Nunan (2003: 37) states that in TBLT, the learners should be taught in ways that make the relationships between linguistic forms, communicative functions and semantic meanings clear. He also mentions that the mastering of grammar is fundamental for communication, but an explicit focus on form is unnecessary. The challenge, according to Nunan (2003: 37), is to integrate the formal and functional aspects of the language with the communicative activities. He argues that this integration has to show a **systematic** relationship between form, function and meaning because it can mean the success or failure of both the teacher and/or the learner.

Reflection (Nunan, 2003: 37) relates to the opportunities the learners have to reflect on the work they have done and learned. Nunan (2003: 37) states that this reflection can be done by reporting on what they have found while completing the task or to give a summary of the task that they have done. Brown (1994:20) argues that these opportunities give learners the ability to invest in different learning strategies. Strategic investment is the method (or methods) that the learner uses outside or inside the classroom to internalize and produce the language.

The aforementioned principles indicate that a lot of planning should be done in order to teach a second language successfully. In summary then this section regarding syllabus design presented a review of the questions addressed in recent research on grading and sequencing within a syllabus. The following section entails elements that should be kept in mind when teaching a task-based second language syllabus and when designing tasks for such a syllabus. These elements, when used appropriately can have very positive effects on learner performance. Furthermore teachers can manipulate these elements within tasks to achieve a desired type or level of performance from learners.

2.3.3 A framework for implementing elements in a task-based approach into the classroom which have an effect on learning performance

2.3.4.1 The importance of task repetition

Task repetition can involve repeating a task as a whole or repeating some parts of a task. Logically, learners will not be expected to perform the repeated task in the same way as the first task but to work differently with the same (or slightly different) input. Also within tasks and follow-up tasks, Nunan (2003: 36) suggests that one can find the repetition of some language functions, themes or content (also known as the recycling of texts or redundancy in a task). Another form of task repetition is rehearsal tasks. According to Nunan (2003: 20), rehearsal tasks do not have to be a repetition of a previous task but can involve that the learners rehearse something that might occur outside of the classroom. Follow-up activities, as explained by Norris (2009: 585), may involve that the learners report on what they have done and learned in the previous tasks, and therefore a form of repetition occurs. Providing a more theoretical definition, Ellis (2005: 45) states that repetition has two phases; the first phase entails the "enactment" of a task. This "enactment" demands that the learners organize cognitive content, think of grammatical rules and process "on-line" (without planning time).

In the second phase the learner can build on the first "enactment", for the first task will then serve as planning for the second (repeated) task. In the second task the cognitive organization will be less, giving the learners more time to concentrate on the other aspects of the task such as fluency, complexity, accuracy and the quality of the performance.

Ellis (2003: 134) states that researchers with cognitive perspectives on tasks have done studies about task repetition in order to establish the effects repetition has on learner performance. Ellis (2003: 134) reflects on one of the early studies done by Plough and Gass (1993) that shows to be negative toward task repetition in that they found no improved performances whether the same task or task type were repeated, stating that there was no transfer of effects. Ellis (2003: 135) further refers to Lynch and McLean (2000, 2001) who conducted a study on learners who were doing a specific purpose English course and found that by repeating tasks, the learners showed greater accuracy and fluency. The repetition of tasks had different benefits for the individual learners, but the most important benefit is that the learners felt that they learnt from repeating tasks. Skehan (2003: 6) suggested that this is because they could notice useful language, improve their own language usage and felt more confident doing the task the second time round. Bygate (1996, 1999, and 2001) strongly values the implementation of task repetition and has done several studies on task repetition, finding positive results for learner performance. Ellis (2003:134) states that he found that rehearsal tasks had a positive effect on complexity because the learners used more lexical verbs and were concerned with using the appropriate language, but found no effect on fluency. Ellis (2003:134) suggests that this may be because the learners were more concerned with using appropriate language, resulting in pauses and self correcting.

To sum up, Ellis (2005: 66) believes that learners can get a better grasp of what they are communicating when repeating. By allowing learners to repeat tasks the learners learn to notice linguistic elements and functions, but they can also build on and improve their language resources, which in turn is good for their interlanguage development and performance.

2.3.4.2   Task and interlocutor familiarity

According to Samuda and Bygate (2009:111), several options arise when referring to task familiarity. A familiarity with the content of the task may exist and not necessarily with the

task itself. Samuda and Bygate (2009:111) state that familiarity of the content can be distinguished between the content familiarities in the context of the second language classroom as an activity, or there could only be an existence of familiarity with the content excluding a familiarity with the context. Another option they discuss involves familiarity with the type of task, meaning the procedure that has to be followed in doing the task but not having to do with the content. The familiarity of both content and the specific task can in fact also be possible. Samuda and Bygate (2009:111) state that these variables make it difficult to test the impact task familiarity has on the performance of the learner. The different variables that exist can (depending on how they are implemented) enable learners to promote their fluency or accuracy or enable them to improve their linguistic complexity. They note that in a study done by Plough and Gass (1993:51) the results on task familiarity were very unclear. From the research they concluded that even though learners enjoy working with familiar types of tasks, unfamiliar tasks elicit more involvement and negotiation of meaning.

A second aspect of familiarity according to Plough and Gass (1993:37) which has received little attention in second language research but has shown to have a great effect on learner performance is that of the familiarity of the interlocutors. Plough and Gass (1993:37) note a study of Varonis and Gass (1985) on the topic of the influence that interlocutor familiarity has on interaction among the second language learners. Varonis and Gass found that there is less negotiation among members of a group where the interlocutors do not share the same linguistic or cultural backgrounds. The results of the study show that unfamiliar interlocutors were more involved and thus imply that greater acquisition will take place. Plough and Gass (1993:43) maintain that this does not mean that the more familiar interlocutors are with each other that they will hinder acquisition and involvement. Contrastingly, in interaction, the study shows that familiar interlocutors in the groups tend to use more clarification checks and confirmation checks. A reason for this may be, as Plough and Gass (1993: 45) explain, that the learners are less worried about making mistakes because they feel "secure in expressing lack of comprehension". Plough and Gass (1993: 45) further suggest that there is a possibility that the familiarity of a task could affect the performance of the learner, but even though the studies have resulted in no significant findings, these findings should be seen in a positive light as they leave room for more exploration into the topic of task familiarity. According to Plough and Gass (1993), there are some aspects of familiarity, such as interlocutor familiarity, that have proven to have an effect on the way in which learners will address each other and negotiate. Still, the research does not yield concrete answers.

2.3.4.3   Planning

Ellis (2003:134) proposes that learners' attention to fluency, accuracy and complexity of tasks can be manipulated according to the type of planning the task demands from the learner. Two types of planning can influence learner performance: *pre-task planning* (referred to as strategic planning by Ellis) and *on-line planning*. Ellis (2003: 133) refers to *pre-task planning* as the planning that takes place before the task is performed. Research on this type of planning has shown that learners have greater fluency and use more complex language during the task when they had sufficient time to prepare and plan. Samuda and Bygate (2009: 113) state that the complexity which stems from pre-planning does, however, depend on the nature of the task. Tasks which have no potential for being complex will not result in learners using more complex language if they have time to plan before the task but will rather result in fluent and accurate language use. Ellis (2003: 133) concludes on pre-task planning by stating a probable reason for the effects that this type of planning has on performance. He states that the learners are more concerned with what has to be communicated than how it should be communicated.

On-line planning, on the other hand, is referred as the type of planning that takes place while the task is being performed (Ellis, 2003: 134). The research on this type of planning has showed that learners have a greater accuracy and complexity in their performance and that on-line planning hinders the fluency of the communication. On-line planning gives learners time to monitor what they want to say. Samuda and Bygate (2009) state that learners try to monitor and use their knowledge about linguistic forms in order to be more accurate in their performance. In their attempts to be accurate, the learners use more complex language. However, the awareness of linguistic forms and language structures hinders fluency because the learners will pause and think about using a certain linguistic form or they will correct each other or rephrase the utterance and have false starts.

These types of planning have a significant effect on the learner performance and teachers can use this knowledge about planning to their advantage. By implementing these types of planning, teachers can focus on different aspects of performance such as fluency, accuracy and complexity.

2.3.4.4 Participant roles and the distribution of roles

In TBLT the participants are required to take part in the action to complete the task (Samuda and Bygate, 2009: 109). The participant does not learn about the action but does the action required by the task. Pica et al (1993) propose that the design of the task will pose different requirements/ roles from the participant in order to achieve the goal of the task. A proposed typology of tasks by Pica et al (1993) states that participant roles can be define in terms of whether the task is: a required exchange task (information should be exchanged from one participant to the other); a one way task (one participant has all the information); a two-way task (all the participants have necessary information that should be exchanged); an optional exchange task (the exchange of information is not required but optional to be exchanged to achieve the goal of the task); a convergent task (all participants work towards the same goals); or a divergent task (the task has multiple outcomes and each participant can come to a different outcome). Robinson (2001), for example, sees these requirements as task conditions while others such as Pica et al see these requirements as properties in task design. Either way, these requirements initiate some form of interaction and negotiation of meaning which is one of the central characteristics of TBLT.

Another issue surrounding the participants is the distribution of roles. The teacher can manipulate the roles of the participant by the way the task is implemented. Samuda and Bygate (2009: 109) recall studies done by Yule and McDonald (1990) on the roles of participants with different proficiency levels. This study suggest that's, before teachers implement a task into the classroom, thought should be put into the relative proficiency, confidence and attitude of each of the participants in the group in order to achieve maximum results. Mixed groups of high and low proficiency levels will result in adequate negotiation of meaning and problem solving in cases where communication breakdowns have occurred, and also enough support will be provided from the higher level proficiency participants to the low proficiency participants.

2.3.4.5 Error correction

In second language acquisition research, error correction has received valuable attention from different views such as the behaviorist theories, cognitive theories, structural and communicative approaches to second language learning and resulted in various controversial

issues. Ellis (2009: 3) argues that the main question in the second language acquisition research is whether error correction (corrective feedback) aids second language acquisition. According to Ellis (2009: 3) both the cognitive and behaviorist theories view this type of feedback as an aid to language learning, whereas the structural and communication approaches to language teaching view this feedback as an aid to ensure linguistic accuracy and fosters learner motivation.

Corrective feedback according to Ellis (2009:3) can either be positive (the feedback confirms that the learner's response to the language tasks is correct and thus provides affective support) or negative (the feedback reveals that the learner's response to the language task lacks some aspects; this might often be a linguistic error.) Ellis (2009:3) maintains that corrective feedback is a negative type of feedback for it will be a response to a learner's linguistic error made in completing a language task. The response may include one of or a combination of either an indication that an error has occurred, providing the correct language form or giving meta-linguistic information about the language form.

The choice of corrective feedback is one of the controversial aspects often questioned by researchers and language teachers. The choice of corrective feedback depends on the type of error made by the learner. Brown (1994: 264) states it is necessary to make a distinction between local and global errors when the choice of feedback is of concern. Global errors, according to Brown (1994: 264,) usually need to be corrected as they prevent the message from being comprehended by the hearer in the conversation. He states that local errors refer to an affect made to a single element of the sentence, but the message is still carried over because the context in which the utterance is made adds to the meaning of the utterance. For this reason, local errors need not always be corrected because the correction might interrupt the learner while he or she is in the flow of productive communication. Ellis (2003: 99) differentiates between types of feedback by mentioning meaning-centered and form-centered feedback, which in turn corresponds to Brown's distinction of local and global errors. Local errors will then trigger form-centered feedback for the error that has been made by the learner will be a grammatical one. Global errors, in contrast, will trigger meaning-centered feedback as the meaning of the utterance was hindered.

Skehan (2003: 4) notes a type of corrective feedback supported by Long (2001), namely recasting. The teacher recasts/ rephrases the incorrect utterance made by the learner in order to correct the errors that have been made. In this way the learner can notice and learn from

his/her mistakes without the teacher explicitly telling the learner that he/she made an error. Recasting does not hinder the communication because the teacher can employ this method implicitly providing a supporting framework attributing to affective aspects in the process of negotiation of meaning. Skehan (2003: 4) further notes self-initiated recasting. The learners themselves will recast an incorrect utterance during the process of negotiation of meaning in order to correct their own mistakes. Ellis (2009: 7) investigates whether self-correction and peer correction is an aid or danger to language learning. Nowadays self-correction is viewed as being possibly beneficial to the language acquisition because of learner-centeredness. This self-correction or peer-correction occurs during the process of negotiation of meaning through clarification checks and recasting. Ellis (2009: 7) argues that self-correction is beneficial for it probes the learner to be in control of his or her own learning process, making them more aware of their language usage while communicating and, as a result, aiding language acquisition. Negative aspects regarding self-correction is pointed out by Ellis (2009: 7) stating that learners often expect the teacher to correct the errors for them and that learners can only self-correct or correct others' mistakes if they have the necessary linguistic knowledge to their disposal. Ellis (2009: 7) notes a suggestion made by Doughty and Varela (1998) that teacher correction and learner correction/self-correction can happen in combination. The teacher should first encourage the learner to correct his or her own mistake, and if the learner fails in doing this, the teacher can provide the correction.

Ellis (2003: 99) provides some criticism in choosing a type of feedback. He sites Pica's (1988) research by stating that most errors made by learners are grammatical and therefore teachers will 'modify' the learners' output by making the utterance grammatically correct. This aids language acquisition, because the learners are now provided with correct language. Therefore an appropriate type of corrective feedback is indeed needed. However, Ellis (2003: 99) discusses the study done by Van den Branden (1997) on whether or not negative feedback that pushes learners to modify their output, benefits the performance of the learners. The results showed that no matter which type of feedback (form-centered or meaning-centered) was employed, there were no significant differences regarding their grammatical correctness and, most importantly, that learners treat feedback as meaning-oriented while in the process of negotiating.

Choosing the corrective feedback to be used, if used, entails whether the corrective feedback should be focused (where the teacher should only correct one or two errors made by the learner) or unfocused (where the teacher corrects all or most of the errors made). Ellis (2009:

6) states that the choice to correct or not to correct very much depends on the teacher's judgement and perspective about error correction. Many advise that not too much negative feedback (which interrupts the learners while communicating) should be employed by the teacher, for this can result in learners not making attempts in communicating at all. On the other hand, Ellis (2009: 6) argues that giving too much positive feedback such as praising and letting certain errors pass as being correct, may result in learners not developing their language competence and may also hinder their communication to be understood by native speakers, hence the disability to be accurate. Ellis (2009: 6) mentions that it is widely accepted that teachers should ensure that the type of corrective feedback they employ is focused. Ellis (2009: 6) suggests that teachers should select the errors that they want to correct based on what they want the learners to learn from the lesson. The attention is on a few error types rather than all the errors that the learners make. Reasons for this advisement are that correcting all the errors is time consuming and that it hinders communication, which is the central focus of learning a second language. Still, corrective, focused feedback has proven to be effective in promoting language acquisition.

Another important aspect discussed by Ellis (2009: 4) is the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Many teaching methodologies acknowledge that corrective feedback has an influence on the cognitive process of language acquisition but, in the same breath, they also acknowledge the damages corrective feedback can do to the motivation. Ellis (2009: 4) states that teaching methodologies thus argue for a place for corrective feedback, but it comes with a warning that corrective feedback should not be overestimated. According to Ellis (2009:5) the behaviourist view to corrective feedback is that teachers should rather invest their time in avoiding errors than correcting, then this aids implicit language learning.

In dealing with the efficacy of corrective feedback, the issue of accuracy versus fluency also deserves some discussion. Ellis (2009:5) argues that corrective feedback has a place with accuracy and not fluency. The reasons for this are that grammatical errors, in most if not all cases, are the main focus when corrective feedback is employed, focusing on being accurate in the language usage whereas in correcting errors teachers can intervene in the communication when they tell learners that they made a mistake and demand accuracy. This in fact does hinder the fluency of the communication. Ellis (2009: 5) thus investigates the best time to correct errors. He notes that some researchers argue that corrective feedback is best made in the context at the exact time that the error has occurred.

The role of corrective feedback in second language acquisition also plays a major part in determining whether or not corrective feedback is effective for language acquisition. Considerable disagreement exists on its role in the second language acquisition research. For example, Ellis (2009: 5) refers to Krashen (1982) who views corrective feedback as a big mistake for error correction which has an immediate effect on the learner, and this results in him or her being on the defensive. Ellis (2009: 5) mentions Krashen's argument that learners will rather avoid making mistakes by avoiding the use of complex structures in their communication in the classroom, and this can ultimately result in them not wanting to communicate at all. He further states that error correction only aids with the development of "learned knowledge" and does not aid "acquired knowledge" and thus error correction made to correct simple rules can be a value for the learners because this makes them focus on the form. In contrast with Karshen's views, Ellis (2009: 5) states that the interventionists view corrective feedback as being facilitative to language acquisition. This is because correcting some focused errors can aid in the learners noticing some errors in communication which may result in the learners constructing form-meaning connections. Although there are still many controversial aspects surrounding corrective feedback, it is a topic that has status in the second language acquisition. Most theorists, such as Long (2001), do admit that corrective feedback for example recasting deserves a place in the TBLT classroom but should be employed with great care by the teachers in order to create a perfect balance.

To summarize, the first half of this section explored questions from recent research relating to how to define syllabus, different types of syllabi, elements regarding the designing, grading and sequencing tasks within a task-based syllabus. The second half of this section entails the implementation of various aspects which can have various effects of learner performance. These elements can be manipulated by teachers and syllabus designers in order to promote optimal learning. The following section involves discussions regarding aspects of designing a syllabus for teaching language for specific purposes and implies that much of the information of the previous sections play a role in the following section.

2.4. TEACHING FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

Hyland (2009:201) holds that teaching for specific purposes arose mainly because of the high demands to be "work-ready" from the employer groups. The basic focus of a specific purpose syllabus is to represent the specific language features, discourse practices and communication

skills (interpersonal and technical) needed for a specific group of people/ learners. Furthermore, Hyland (2009: 201) states that the focus is on teaching particular subject matter needs and appropriate content for a specific professional context which is determined from the expertise of the learners or the context that they will be working in, in the future. In designing such a program, it is only logic that the focus must be on specificity, needs analysis and analyses of particular texts and contexts.

2.4.1 The rationale for a specific purpose syllabus

In building a case for specific purpose programs, Hyland (2009: 203) suggests that one should look at the teaching and learning that takes place. The teaching is not just concerned with teaching of words, structures, lexical items, and phrases, divorced from the real context. Hyland (2009: 203) proposes that they explore language as a carrier of disciplinary and professional values as a result of frequency and the importance of such structures and phrases to communities that employ them. Thus according to Hyland (2009) learning is the induction into a new culture rather than the extension of existing skills.

In a task-based specific purpose classroom, learners will acquire language features as they need them and not in a specifically represented order (Hyland, 2009: 203). These specific purpose programs reject the idea that low proficiency learners (beginner learners) should first acquire certain core features before they can progress to other language features. If there is a need to attend more to sentence level features at a lower level of proficiency, there is no need to ignore specific language uses at any stage as students are likely to notice, understand and use particular features in the course of communicating in their field.

Hyland (2009: 203) states that the difficulties that arose in designing a specific purpose program include the various perceptions about similar tasks and situations that may result in different objectives and needs. The decisions on what and how to teach specific purpose programs are not always concerned with the same things, thus the decision-making in such a program can have serious consequences for learners attending. Teachers, however, provide learners with the necessary skills and resources to aid them in succeeding in these unfamiliar and difficult situations and to become part of a target community of people who all have (mostly) similar needs and objectives (in a certain environment, such as the field of business, doctors or campus, for example). Hyland (2009: 203) maintains that teachers empower

learners to take on new roles and to improve their chances in life. In solving the problem of varying perceptions about needs, objectives, tasks and situations, Hyland (2009: 203) points out that the involvement of the learners that are doing the specific purpose programs are key in the decision making process of the specific purpose program. This analysis involves the results of specific questions regarding the specific aspects of the program and the findings of a needs analysis conducted. In this way learners have more authority in the learning process, resulting in more motivation and a positive attitude towards learning the second language.

Basturkmen (2006: 4 and9) provides several advantages that are relevant when teaching language for specific purposes. First, the learners are exposed to authentic texts (genres) used in the particular community that they want to belong in. The texts represent the forms of communication used in the second language, which will equip learners to interact with members of the target community. Lastly, these types of courses are more effective regarding time and energy in covering the relevant part of language necessary for the learner to interact in the second language.

2.4.2 Types of specific purpose syllabi

Hyland (2009: 209) suggests that there are three ways in which one can organize the specific language instruction. The first specific purpose syllabus he identifies (Hyland, 2009:209) is a process syllabus. The instruction is essentially learning focussed and relatively learner-led. The second is a text-based syllabus or content based syllabus. Hyland (2009:209) states that the instruction in these types of syllabi is organized around genres that learners need to deal with and the social context in which they will operate. These syllabi (especially text-based syllabi) opt for scaffold pedagogy. Hyland (2009:209) suggests that the teacher guides the learners toward control over key *genres* based on a whole text selected in relation to learner needs. Texts and tasks are selected according to learners' needs and sequenced according to the real world interactions, levels of difficulty and the skills needed to complete the task. Hyland (2009: 209) explains that a TBLT syllabus, including specific purpose programs all suggest that there is a specific teaching–learning cycle that should be followed in order to set the context, make joint and independent constructions and to draw comparisons in the classroom. Furthermore, this cycle ensures that tasks can be repeated. This repetition is very important in language learning in order for learners to reflect and critique on the learning as mentioned previously. Hyland (2009: 210) believes that feedback on the texts is also

important for learning so that, when a text or task is repeated, learners can improve on their skills or develop other skills. In a second language learning classroom, this cycle encourages that the teacher and learners can take on different roles in order to perform different pedagogic tasks.

Content-based syllabi differ from that of text-based syllabi in that the programs adopt different themes for tasks. Hyland (2009: 211) states that this provides sheltered assistance and also more general strategies the learner needs to participate in while also helping them to reflect on the anxieties that exist in learning a second language. In such second language classrooms, learners experience the more familiar learning topics that motivate and encourage them to participate in the exercises with more confidence.

2.4.3 Issues of a needs analysis for specific purposes

According to Hyland (2009: 204), a needs analysis for a specific purpose course requires a study of specific language usage situations. There is a high degree of learner centeredness and communicative needs in a specific purpose course as the focus is on determining the subjective needs of the learners and their expectations in a certain domain. In the steps Brown (2009) points out on how to do a needs analysis, he states that one should "delimit the student population". The syllabus designers narrow the scale of the needs analysis in a specific purpose course because, as Brown (2009) mentions, a needs analysis is situation specific – with a specific purpose program, the situation will be more specific than a general learning syllabus in school (for instance). The focus of the needs analysis must be determined. Ellis (2003: 229) mentions that in planning a syllabus, the goals in terms of the pedagogical focus, the type of skills (whether listening, reading, writing or speaking) that stand as focal points, and the language focus should be determined. The pedagogical focus of a specific purpose course will be specific according to a domain, for example business, doctors, students, etc. The skill focus and the language focus will be determined by the specific objective and subjective language needs and language learning goals.

In determining the objective and specific language needs, as well as the language learning goals, Brown (2009: 278-279) identifies a number of needs analysis data collection procedures that can be followed in order to collect the correct data required to design a specific purpose syllabus. Before selecting the appropriate type of data collection procedure,

one should think of the different characteristics of the needs analysis and the factors that will be affected by the choices of the information gathering procedures. Brown (2009: 277) furthermore states that factors that can affect the choice of the procedures are: characteristics of the information source, the situational characteristics, the type of information needed, the technical measurements criteria and the level of accuracy required from the learner that will be learning the content of the syllabus. Questionnaires, interviews, observations and tests are some of the procedures named by Brown (2009: 278-279). Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 28) advance the procedure of gathering expert opinions and sampling the language learners' experiences. In doing this, one thus asks focus-group questions that are essential to collecting the correct data for a specific purpose syllabus.

In analysing the data of the history of second language research, Brown (2009: 281) discovered that more research has been done for/by qualitative methods than quantitative methods. This conclusion can be drawn depending on the types of questions addressed in these procedures. Brown (2009: 280) lists a few types of questions that can be asked in questionnaires and interviews and states that questions on behaviours, experiences and priorities will result in qualitative methods. Brown (2009: 282) furthermore provides another way in determining whether the data collected is quantitative or qualitative by providing certain aspects that should be analysed. One should ask whether the information gathered is consistent (this means that the data is dependable), valid (the data should hold a certain amount of credibility), verifiable (this means that the data is confirmable) and, lastly, meaningful (that is, transferable to other settings).

By focussing on the subjective needs of the learner, the motivation to learn the second language is positively influenced, for the learner can easily see the relevance of the content to his/her perceptions of what needs to be acquired in that specific domain. However, there are some criticisms and issues surrounding needs analyses for specific purpose courses and syllabi. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) point out that needs are often tied to local contexts and thus subject to change. Needs are also not fixed because of the numerous varieties that may exist in a specific domain, which makes it more difficult to specify them. Basturkmen (2006:19) adds criticism by stating that some institutions have their perceptions on what should be learned, thus the needs analysis will consist of collecting data on these perceptions without considering the expectations of the learners. Basturkmen (2006) points out that another important issue in this regard is that the learners' objective needs will differ extremely from their subjective needs. Not taking this into consideration can result in demotivating the

learners. The same can be said for language needs and learning needs, in that even though learners will have to use certain language structures in specific language usage situations, Basturkmen (2006) maintains that the learners might not be ready to acquire those structures.

Language for specific purposes ensures greater linguistic efficiency in certain environments, which adds to the motivation as previously mentioned. Basturkmen (2006:20) argues that, in training learners of a second language in a spefic domain only, it affects the leaners negatively. She says that the learners will only have low levels of proficiency or sufficient second language proficiency in a few language use situations, marginalizing them in occupations making it difficult for them to acquire higher wage jobs. This means that the course is designed in such a way that the learning of the language becomes more like training than education, ensuring only "a restricted repertoire of the language" (Basturkmen, 2006: 20).

2.4.4 Ideas and options in the language and language uses in language for specific purposes

Basturkmen (2006: 9) examines a foundation for specific purposes approaches. This foundation involves ideas regarding the nature of language, learning a language and teaching a language. The discussion below focuses on the nature of language for specific purposes approaches. The discussion closes with a broad overview on the objectives for teaching language for specific purposes.

In discussing the nature of language, various language systems and language uses are active in specific purpose programs. Basturkmen (2006: 12) refers this to be the first building block for teaching language. The second block concerns that of learning the second language, which will not receive any attention here. The third block deals with the teaching of a language. This concept entails a view of the role of the teacher and what the teaching involves. Various teaching methodologies as well as objectives are discussed below.

2.4.4.1 Language systems

Identifying and describing language systems are an important aspect in teaching for specific purposes. The reason for this is because of the various beliefs surrounding the varieties of

language. Basturkmen (2006: 15) considers two such perspectives regarding varieties of language. The first is called the common core plus. This perspective is based on the idea that all languages stem from a basic core of general language. Therefore the argument is that there is no need for teaching a restricted language if the learners were not taught the basis of the language. The second perspective according to Basturkmen (2006: 17) sees all language as a specific purpose and argues against the previously mentioned perspective in stating that all language is learnt in different contexts and that overlapping does not occur between languages.

Because of the aforementioned varieties and contrasting perspectives about varieties of language, Basturkmen (2006: 35) maintains that analysis and description of language systems is often the first step in teaching language for specific proposes. She further quotes Harper's (1987) definition of a language system in stating that a language system is a set of abstract structures recognizable by all the participants that is a required for the effective use of the language. The following sections discuss three such language systems, namely: grammatical structures, core vocabulary and pattern of text organization.

2.4.4.1.1   Grammatical Structures and core vocabulary

As previously discussed and often referred to in this chapter, task-based language teaching argues for a place in the second language teaching syllabus for focus on form (or grammatical structures and core vocabulary). Accordingly, Basturkmen (2006: 35) notes that second language teaching today involves some traditional ideas regarding the concepts of grammatical structures and core vocabulary, yet the syllabus does not view these concepts as the main focus and central part of the teaching. Basturkmen (2006: 35) notes that these ideas entail that teaching the second language should therefore entail some basic sentence-level grammatical structures as functions, notions, verb clauses and phrases and should be accompanied by some core vocabulary that forms part of the foundation of the language use.

Regarding these concepts of grammatical structures and core vocabulary, the second perspective surrounding varieties of language mentioned above (under *language systems*) is more applicable. Basturkmen (2006: 35) states that the reason for this is because this perspective proposes that learning a second language from a specific selection of language is

more effective as the learner will acquire language structures in relation to meanings that are used in their specific field of interest.

2.4.4.1.2   Patterns of text organization

The third language system noted by Basturkmen (2006: 38) is that of patterns of text organization and refers to structures of written and spoken texts. There are several ways in which learners can decode texts in order to acquire sufficient knowledge about the structures and deal with the ambiguities of language.

The first manner of decoding texts described by Bastrukmen (2006: 38) results from the external ambiguity of language noted by Schollon and Scholton (1995). External ambiguity refers to the context in which the meaning is to be interpreted. The decoding revolves around the notions of schemata and scripts of experiences in various contexts. Schemata are the knowledge that one has surrounding events, while scripts refer to how these events will progress. Usually, certain words or references to certain events will trigger the learners' prior knowledge of such an event.

The second manner of decoding texts noted by Basturkmen (2006: 38) from the study of Schollon and Scholton (1995) is by making use of the internal ambiguity of a language. Internal ambiguity refers to how different parts of a text relate to other parts of the text. The decoding entails the general sets of patterns of text organization. Learners can identify certain grammatical structures and core vocabulary from prior experience and in such a way make sense of the different part of the text. The ideas on decoding text connect to what is known as the top-down and bottom-up approaches to interpreting texts. Top-down approaches according to Basturkmen (2006: 43) involve that the learners make use of their prior knowledge to try and understand a text. This prior knowledge can consist of knowledge about the topic, the situation or the script. Basturkmen (2006: 43) states that bottom-up approaches, on the other hand, expect learners to decode texts from various levels of language in order to come to a meaning of the text. These levels can include words, sentences and sounds.

2.4.4.2   Language uses

This section focuses on research perspectives about the description of language usage as functional explanations of language. The focus is on the communicative purpose of language and how language is used to achieve that purpose. These functional explanations aim to find ways in which language can be organized outside of the linguistic system of that language. Basturkmen (2006: 47) argues that outside of the linguistic system, language can be organized according to speech acts, genres and social interaction formulas used in various situations. In the discussion that follows below, the concepts of speech acts and genres will receive attention because of its relevance to the thesis and the next chapter.

2.4.4.2.1   Speech acts and genres

Speech acts are often also referred to as functions. Speech acts according to Basturkmen (2006: 48) refers to the communicative intention of the speaker and can be defined by the reason for using the language for a purpose, for example to apologize or to request something. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) refer to speech acts as language functions that are used in certain language usage situations and/ or in various domains, thus one can identify various speech acts in a certain domain or situations as frequent. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) name these frequently used speech acts types of tasks (See chapter 3). These frequently used speech acts and knowledge about them form a fundamental part of teaching language for specific purposes according to both Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) and Basturkmen (2006: 47). It is not enough to only have knowledge about these speech acts; learners should know how to use them in normal conversation.

According to Basturkmen (2006: 53) the term 'genre' is more specific than speech acts. Speech acts can be seen as universal functions that occur in language usage, whereas genre refers to the more specific type of language used in a particular environment, situation or domain. Here, the communicative purpose plays a vital role in distinguishing one genre from the other. Because genres are more specific (but not fixed), it is best to use such an approach for teaching language for specific purposes in a classroom where all the learners have similar needs and aim to work in the same environment. The genre-based approaches focus on the overall communicative purpose and the genre is defined by this purpose.

2.4.5 Broad objectives in teaching language for specific purposes

The following discussion will identify five broad objectives for teaching language for specific purposes, as noted by Basturkmen (2006: 133). These objectives are defined with reference to Stern's (1992) categorization of language education objectives. Stern's objectives include: proficiency objectives (concerns skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking); knowledge objectives (entails the acquisition of linguistic as well as cultural information; this means that the acquisition of language analysis and all aspects of language also to have control over social rules in communication); affective objectives (concern the attitude towards the language learning); and transfer objectives (entails the ability to transfer what has been learnt to other situations).

The first objective posited by Basturkmen (2006: 134) is that teaching should expose learners to subject-specific language. This objective links to Stern's (1992) objectives of linguistic and cultural knowledge. The aim is to show how the language is used in a specific environment. Basturkmen (2006: 134) points out that this objective reveals a direct link between the research and pedagogy, with the teaching focusing on demonstrating to the learners the forms and features that the linguistic research has made clear. This objective has received some criticism regarding the acquisition of language that considers an academic- and a genre-based approach. Basturkmen (2006:135) refers to views of Wharton (1999) to discuss the criticism made. Firstly, genre- and academic acquisition is difficult because learners not only need to develop a conceptual understanding of the language but also need to be exposed to and made aware of certain social norms regarding the language. Secondly, genre learning is often only mastered late, and lastly it is difficult for teachers to explain a particular genre to those who have no knowledge of it. The argument thus stands that teaching should not only focus on applying examples of grammar structures and forms relating to the specific environment. The following four objectives illustrate the previously mentioned statement.

The second objective of teaching language for specific purposes is to develop target performance competencies. This objective, as noted by Basturkmen (2006: 135), links with Stern's (1992) proficiency objectives. By performing a needs analysis, the demands and expectations of a specific environment can be determined. These demands and expectations are the focus of the teaching so that learners can develop the necessary abilities to perform certain actions within that specific environment. The teaching is concerned with what people

do with the language and the skills they need in order to perform these actions. Such courses will therefore be designed around core skills and competencies required in the specific environment.

The third objective posited by Basturkmen (2006: 137) involves the teaching of underlying knowledge. The argument remains that when language is taught for work-related or study purposes the knowledge that is required entails that of work-related and subject specific concepts. Basturkmen (2006: 137) notes that this objective links to the cultural knowledge objective of Stern (1992). In other words, learners need to not only focus on the subject-specific concepts of learning the second language, but also the underlying knowledge of some concepts relating to the language skills that accompany them. These concepts often refer to the way in which the people of a certain language community or people in a specific situation/environment think, and learners need to be made aware of the way of thinking.

Another objective for teaching language for specific purposes posited by Basturkmen (2006: 138) classifies as developing strategic competence. This objective links to Stern's (1992) linguistic knowledge objective. Basturkmen (2006:138) refers to Douglas' (2000) argument that strategic competence acts as a mediator between external situation contexts and internal language background knowledge. Both external situation context and internal language prior knowledge is needed in order to respond accordingly to communicative situations. Basturkmen (2006: 139) states that strategic competence is the link between the context of the situation and the language knowledge. The teaching should thus aim to make use of the learners' prior knowledge of the second language, and opportunities should be created for the learners to use their prior knowledge of the second language.

The last objective posited by Basturkmen (2006: 140) entails the acquiring of critical awareness and is linked to Stern's (1992) cultural knowledge and affective objectives. The aim of this objective is to teach learners about the norms and beliefs of the specific communities they might find themselves in, in the future. Basturkmen (2006: 140) points out that learners should not see these aspects as fixed, but rather that they can be challenged and changed. The aim is to develop critical awareness of the second language and how the norms and social rules have been established in the second language. Learners should be made aware of the negative aspects of the specific environment that they might find themselves in, in the future. The awareness of these negative aspects should make the learners want to change and modify them when they find themselves in such a situation. This objective challenges and

changes the way the learners feel about the second language (negatively or positively). The aim is to change the attitude towards the language positively in order to improve some perceptions about the status and the members of a specific community of people.

2.5. CONCLUSION

To recapitulate the research issues and views addressed in this chapter the following can be concluded: Teaching for specific purpose is a 'newer' approach to teaching language and has become very popular in second language learning and teaching. The first part of the discussion entails more detailed versions of previous elements such as what is a syllabus, types of syllabus and the issues surrounding a needs analysis in the above section made relevant for teaching for specific purposes. The second half of the discussion entail specific aspects regarding the design of a Task-based specific purpose syllabus such as the various language systems involved and the language uses within such as syllabus. The section concludes with a broad discussion of various objectives for teaching language for specific purposes.

The next chapter entails various theoretical aspects regarding complexity in order to apply the information of all the previous section to Scenarios (or tasks) in Chapters 4 and 5. These analyses aim to show how the information in all the previous sections can be used in order to design a syllabus for adult learners for the specific purpose of campus communication. The analyses also aim to show how such specific purpose tasks within a task-based syllabus can be graded and sequenced from less complex to more complex in order to promote optimal learning.

CHAPTER THREE
THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS IN SECOND LANGUAGE TASKS AND SYLLABUS DESIGN

3 INTRODUCTION

The first goal of the analyses in this chapter is to identify the types of tasks in each of the scenarios created by setting them against the parameters that determine the description of the types of tasks stated by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). The second goal is to analyze these types of tasks using parameters identified to determine the complexity. The complexity parameters of Duran and Ramaut (2006) will be used in this section. The purpose of the analyses is thus to show the importance of setting parameters for determining complexity for the ordering and sequencing of types of tasks and how tasks can be used to develop second language learners' interlanguage.

The aim of this chapter is to present the theoretical foundations of complexity analysis in second language tasks and syllabus design. The purpose of this chapter is thus to explore the various perspectives on complexity analysis for second language tasks and syllabus design. The investigation of these perspectives on complexity analysis is necessary in order to grade and sequence tasks within a syllabus to promote optimal learning and the gradual development of the interlanguage.

This chapter will begin with a review of Van Avermaet and Gysen's (2006) study or perspective on determining parameters for type task descriptions. This review is followed by a discussion of their argument for why it is necessary to determine type task descriptions. Thereafter, the complexity parameters, as identified by Duran and Ramaut (2006), will be discussed. This discussion presents the theoretical foundations of the development of the tasks and design of the syllabus properties for adult isiXhosa learners supporting communication. It is relevant here because the parameters of the task analyses can be derived from those of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). With regards to the complexity parameters of Duran and Ramaut (2006), the perspectives on cognitive complexity of Robinson (2005) will also be discussed. Thereafter a discussion of the task typology of Pica et al (1993) is provided in order to classify task types in each of the Scenarios in Chapters 4 and 5. The discussion of Robinson (2005) explores questions on task complexity related to the study of Pica et al

(1993) since they both reveal the importance of tasks in developing the interlanguage of learners learning the second language. The chapter concludes with a description of the various proficiency levels of learners and the proficiency levels required for the performance necessary for the learners who will be performing the Scenarios in Chapter 4 and 5.

In chapters 4 and 5 analyses are done on authentic communicative isiXhosa dialogues between students and between students and their lecturers in the light of the campus context. The dialogues were composed in 2009 and 2010 and the relevant information gathered by doing an appropriate needs analysis, asking expert opinions and asking the students themselves about their personal experiences on campus. Thus these dialogues reflect relevant objective and subjective goals of the students on campus as well as the sufficient language learning needs of both the students and the lecturers.

3.1 VAN AVERMAET and GYSEN'S PARAMETERS FOR DETERMINING TYPE TASK DESCRIPTIONS

The review of the type task study of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) consists of two examples carried out by the Centre for Language and Education. Even though the first study that was conducted by Van den Branden et al (2001) entailed a study of young non-native children in Flanders and the Netherlands learning academic Dutch as a second language so that they can be enrolled into normal Dutch-medium schools, the insights derived from the study can be applied to the learning of isiXhosa as second language for adult learners because it focused on second language learning goals and the attainment goals of the learners. The main goal of Van Avermaet and Gysen's (2006) discussion of these two examples is to overcome some problems such as generalizations, practicalities and long lists of language usage situations that may occur when doing a needs analysis to design a syllabus. The problems and suggestions to clear these problems will be discussed after the explanation of the two examples examined by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006).

The first study includes the defining of various parameters in order to identify type task descriptions. The first parameter of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 32) invoked to serve as a description of types of tasks is concerned with the skill involved to perform the task. In other words, it addresses the question of whether the task required the language learner to speak, listen, read or write in the particular language usage situation. The task can, however, require

the learner to use a combination of the mentioned language skills. In a communicative approach to learning a second language it is thus necessary that the task mainly requires of learners to use their speaking and listening skills.

The second parameter explored by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:32) concerns the genre of the text and what is meant with the genre of the text – that is, what kind of message has to be carried over by the participants of the task. Genres of texts may include instructions, the telling of a story, an answer to a question, asking a question, giving a personal account of something that happened or giving a description of an object, etc.

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:32) state that the third parameter identified in Van den Branden et al's study (2001) relates to the level of processing needed to perform the task. This means that one must ask at what cognitive level the language learner should be able to process the information given in the task in order to use the language communicatively. Four levels of information processing are identified namely: the copying level, the descriptive level, the restructuring level and the evaluative level. All the other parameters stated here will influence the processing of the information.

The copying level introduced by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) requires the learner to reproduce the information presented without having to process the information to come to an understanding of the content. An example of this will be to ask a learner to read aloud. This type of processing can be found at the beginner proficiency levels (also see the section on Duran and Ramaut (2006)). In contrast, Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) explains that at the evaluative level the leaner is required to compare the information presented with other sources that might be available or not. This means that the learner has to work actively with the information at hand in order to complete the task successfully.

At the descriptive level, according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) the learner is required to process the information in the structure as it was presented. The main thoughts and ideas of the task are logically structured so that the learner can easily understand the content. On the other hand, the restructuring level requires the learner to reorganize the information provided in order to come to a conclusion or understanding.

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 32) state that the role of the interlocutor also plays a part in determining the type task description. This parameter was used by Van den Branden et al

(2001) so that one can specify who the participants of the tasks are: oneself, familiar peers, unfamiliar peers, a familiar peer or an unfamiliar peer.

The fifth and sixth parameters relate to the topic of the conversation and the contextual support given in the task. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 32) state that the topic of the task is concerned with whether the task includes physical and mental actions, concrete objects, and *personal* experiences, opinions and feelings or those of *others*.

In addition to the above mentioned parameters, the study includes a list of linguistic features that function at the micro-level of the task. These linguistic features were made explicit by the study of Van den Branden (2001), because there are certain demands made by the tasks regarding the comprehension and the production of specific linguistic features. The linguistic features are often referred to as the textual features and include elements like the vocabulary (frequent word lists), grammar (frequent formulae, basic grammar rules, etc.), the structure and/or the length of the text, the pronunciation and register (basic insights with regards to the four skills of learning a second language), the tempo and the topics of the tasks at hand.

Using the above mentioned parameters, noted by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), teachers can set goals for their second language learners. In most cases the goal of the beginner second language learner in a communicative classroom is to listen and speak at the descriptive level of information processing. This learner must also be able to understand all actions in the here-and-now. The setting of these goals thus depends on the level of the second language learner in regards to his/ her proficiency in the second language. These goal statements are often made with regards to the minimal levels of language proficiency that is required for the second language learner. Another logical conclusion that can be drawn from these parameters is that a different combination will result in a different type task. Teachers can experiment with these parameters in order to achieve maximum levels of learning. As not all combinations are relevant for the goals of the learners, teachers should select combinations that *are* relevant to the second language learners' needs, whether objective and/ or subjective. There is no need to select a combination of parameters that do not constitute the learner goals. This selection can only hinder the learning of the needed goals of the second language learner.

The second study (example two) conducted by Van den Braden et al (2001) at the Centre for Language and Education involved foreign language learners of Dutch. Its principles can once again be applied to the learning of isiXhosa as a second language because the aim of the study

and of this thesis is to motivate syllabus designers as well as teachers in designing a syllabus for a second language. Here, domains were identified from a number of language use situations that played a role in the needs analysis and once again set against a set of parameters. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 34) state that these parameters, used by Van den Braden et al (2001), were inspired by the Common European Framework of Reference among others. The parameters are also based on previous experiences with regards to type task descriptions of the first study discussed in this section, hence the similar terms used. The second study identified five parameters regarding linguistic, socio-cognitive and contextual features.

The first parameter explored by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:34) concerns the language action. This means that the language used in the tasks are more important than the skills involved in performing the tasks, which may give a false or artificial feel to the tasks. The Scenarios in Chapter 4 and 5 focus on listening (receptive) and speaking (productive) skills that can be found in natural language use. The listening and speaking skills are important as they are needed in real-life conversations outside of the classroom. Even though the tasks focus on language skills, the main focus is on the communication and therefore the language used in the performance of the tasks. Learners can therefore find the tasks more relevant and interesting for their learning of the second language because the tasks have a real-life feel to them.

The second parameter proposed by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 34) concerns the interlocutors in a communication task. This parameter includes the distance between the interlocutors. The logic behind it is that the greater the distance between them, the more complex the task will be. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 34) suggest that the interlocutors in the tasks should vary from familiar peers, unfamiliar peers, familiar adults and unfamiliar adults in order to expose the learners to different aspects of real-life communication. The variation of the interlocutors will also ensure a difference in types of tasks and complexity.

The third parameter relates to the level of information processing. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 34) states that this parameter focuses on the cognitive level of the learner, and involves the extent to which the learner has to work with the information presented in the task. The information processing relates to the notion Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 34) identify from other research such as Bereiter and Scadamalia (1987) and Skehan (1998) as 'knowledge telling' and 'knowledge transformation' or 'simple transformation'. Knowledge telling refers

to the learner reproducing the information as presented, whereas knowledge transformation or simple transformation, as Skehan (1998) puts it, refers to the learner using the information and transforming it in order to fit the situation. The learner makes the information his or her own by reorganizing the information presented.

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) explore different levels of information processing which will also determine the complexity of the tasks and the descriptions of types of tasks. The levels of information processing include the copy level, the descriptive level, the restructuring level and the evaluating level. (The levels, as formerly named, vary from less complex to more complex). These levels can be placed on a continuum, which will also be discussed later in this section. The requirement of each level, however, is the same as explained with the first study example in this section. Dealing with the different types of information processing ensures that the learners move from less complex tasks to more complex tasks without them feeling that the tasks are undoable. This is good for language development.

The fourth parameter established by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 35) concerns the clustering of texts according to various genres. The genres also include the same elements as in the first study, such as giving instructions, asking and answering questions, descriptions and giving accounts. The use of various text genres helps the learners to associate themselves with the tasks. This familiarity with the tasks ensures that learners find the tasks interesting and motivating to learn which promotes language development.

The final parameter mentioned by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 35) deals with text features or linguistic features, as named in the first study. This parameter includes the linguistic aspects of the task performance that determine the complexity of the text: grammar, vocabulary, structure, topic, register/ jargon, pronunciation, etc. Tasks for beginner should include frequent word lists, frequent formulae and notions, and grammar rules – all regarding the listening and speaking skills in combination with other less frequent vocabulary. Therefore the learner will not be shocked when dealing with the tasks at first glance. For a less complex task the vocabulary should be that of words, formulae and expressions that can be found frequently in similar language usage situations. The sentences should be predominantly simple, and complex sentences should be relatively infrequent. The structures of the tasks should be clear, the communication must be logical and the sentences must be clear and understandable. The text must be of an acceptable length. Note that long texts are not always more complex as long as the structure is clear. The reason for this is to not confuse

the learners with the information of the tasks, while it also goes hand-in-hand with the type of processing they will need to perform the task. Therefore the textual features should fit in with the level of information processing required from the learners in order to perform the tasks successfully

The aforementioned parameter also relates to the register in the tasks. According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 35), the register will depend on the distance between the interlocutors of the task; for example, unfamiliar peers and adults will have a more formal conversation than familiar peers in a task. The combination of these parameters not only help teachers to set goals for learners but the combinations also help syllabus designers and teachers to cluster types of tasks together and accordingly inspire them to design relevant syllabi.

3.1.1 The Challenges surrounding parameters for determining type task descriptions

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) identify a number of problems that might occur when dealing with the above type task descriptions. The first problem they identify is that the designer of a syllabus might end up with long lists of tassk derived from the language situation (2006: 87). Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) suggested that one way of overcoming this problem is to derive types of tasks from these language usage situations and then cluster the types of tasks that have to do with the same topic together. This might not be as easy as it sounds, according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), for there are some syllabus designers or teachers that might not be able to cluster the types of tasks together because of differences in the elements of the tasks, such as cognitive differences, differences with psycholinguistics and sociolinguistic differences. There might be no links between the tasks, thus making the clustering of types of tasks very difficult and in some cases impossible.

The second challenge identified by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) is that the target tasks derived from the language needs analysis are described in terms of the minimum level of quality and complexity that the learner should be able to master when performing the tasks. Many may think that the minimum is not good enough and that it will not be good enough for the learners to be able to function in the specific language usage situations outside of the classroom. However, Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) emphasise that the learners *should* be

challenged when dealing with the tasks, hence the sequencing and ordering according to the complexity of the types of tasks (this process will be discussed in the following sections). The challenge of performing the task should according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) be consistent with their proficiency level; otherwise they might not even learn anything. The minimum *could* satisfy their needs as identified by the needs analysis. However, they point out, the problem might arise that the learners will not be able to restructure or reorganize the information and transform the information to other language usage situations and needs that they might develop later. The motivation and self-confidence of the learner often plays a big role in this transformation, thus teachers cannot always guarantee that learners will use what they have learned in the classroom in the outside world. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:45) further suggest that clear references to the level of performance need to be made when constructing types of tasks.

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:43), the fact that learners do not know their needs for learning a second language poses another problem, since some learners' language learning needs only become clear to them while taking the course. Therefore task designers should make the tasks in the course as relevant to the learners taking the course as possible. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 43) further suggest that tasks should be designed in such a way that they enable learners to manipulate the information to satisfy other needs.

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 43) state that policy makers also usually describe their targets very generally and describe general language proficiencies that are related to a fixed system. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 43) suggest that responding to the specific demands of the learners increases their motivation in learning the second language, but this can become very difficult if the class consists of many learners who have different second language needs.

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 43), aforementioned challenges directly influence another challenge: that of the practicalities of the type of task. In other words, if a learner is good at reading texts that require a high level of processing, it does not mean that the same learner will necessarily be able to read texts that require a lower level of processing. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:43) therefore state that if a learner has a high level of language proficiency, it does not mean that he/ she can perform extremely well in a task that requires a lower level of language proficiency. Learners performing well in one task might not perform the same in similar tasks. The former is better known as the problem of extrapolation/ generalisations, so named by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:43).

The issue of generalization is the main challenge raised by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 45). This problem deals with the question relating to what extends the language performance in a particular domain or particular language usage situation predicts or guarantees correct/ appropriate performance in other domains or language usage situations. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 45) mention that the motivation and individuality of the learner play a role in regards to this challenge. They furthermore suggest that tasks should be designed in such a way that they motivate learners to succeed in similar tasks and different tasks. However, individual motivation plays a vital role and cannot always be influenced by the task or the teacher but only by the learners themselves.

The question of extrapolation by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) might never be answered because it is very difficult to determine the performance guarantee. The individuality of the learners' second language needs, as well as the levels of proficiency of the various learners influence this performance to a great extent and is something that cannot be controlled by outsiders (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006). Teachers can try to influence learners' way of thinking about their performance and their language development. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) further state that this may result in the learners' performances being improved, but still this will not guarantee that learners will perform the same in tasks that are similar.

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), in the same class, some learners may have the ability to process difficult or complex information and others not (even though they have been instructed in the same way). They state that these learners with high process ability might then again not be able to deal with simpler information. The fact of the matter is that it all comes back to the phenomenon of 'individuality'. All individuals process information differently, whether in manner, degree or level.

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 45) suggest that the use of types of tasks clustered together might solve the problems mentioned above by using the parameters discussed in both examples one and two of the study done by the Centre for Language and Education. They further suggest that after the clustering of the tasks, one can further distinguish subcategories referring to the complexity of the types of tasks (discussed in the next section). Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) also suggest that the parameters should not be seen as static but rather that their use can vary depending on the specific language usage domain. Domains that are very

specific result in less different tasks, resulting in the parameters varying less – therefore, clustering the tasks into types of tasks might not even be necessary.

The following section looks at the distinction between various subcategories referring to the task complexity of task types. Therefore the section entails a detailed investigation of the perspectives of comlexity regarding the types of tasks by Duran and Ramaut (2006).

3.2 DURAN AND RAMAUT'S PARAMETERS FOR DETERMINING THE COMPLEXITY OF TYPES OF TASKS

The foregoing sections discussed Van Averamaet and Gysen's (2006) argument that one should develop types of tasks form a long list of language usage situations. This type of clustering is done through the use of parameters. This section is relevant to aforementioned sections, for Van Averamaet and Gysen (2006) further argued that to subcategorize the types of tasks one can identify the complexity levels of the tasks at hand. The discussion of Duran and Ramaut (2006) then deals with the complexity levels of the types of tasks to ultimately sequence and order the types of tasks in a syllabus.

Duran and Ramaut's (2006: 47-51) analyses of types of tasks developed from a study that was done in Flanders for the teaching of Dutch as a second language, aimed to develop a syllabus that will promote the second language acquisition of foreign learners arriving in Flanders without having learned Dutch as a mother tongue. In the study, these foreign learners where enrolled into a reception class for a whole year where they were taught Dutch in order for them to eventually be enrolled into the mainstream Dutch medium class. A needs analysis was done so as to determine their specific learning goals for the reception class. These language goals were determined by the domains in which the learners need to function and the specific language usage situations. Duran and Ramaut (2006) mention that a needs analysis provided teachers with the necessary task descriptions that the learners will have to master at the end of the year in order for the learners to be enrolled into the mainstream class. In addition, this needs analysis provided the teachers with the necessary societal language as well as the academic language that the foreign learners need to be able to use to function normally in such a mainstream class. Even though the study focussed mainly on the receptive skills of the foreign learners, it does not exclude the fact that the productive skills are very important in recognizing the potential of the learner. The language output that is required in

this reception class is that the message should be clear even if the utterance consists of grammatical errors. The basic proficiency level, fluency and complexity are more important than accuracy. The teachers of the mainstream classes were made aware of the inter-language problems/ errors that may still occur when these foreign learners enter the mainstream classes, which means that they should be tolerant of them and help them overcome these problems to promote the use of their productive skills.

The discussion by Duran and Ramaut (2006) provides relevant insights to the syllabus design for adult learners of isiXhosa because the syllabus is concerned with the basic beginner levels of proficiency. Furthermore, the designed types of tasks for isiXhosa beginner learners aim to focus on the productive skills therefore also focussing on the fluency and complexity aspects of language and less on the accuracy of the language.

In order to ultimately sequence and order the tasks in a syllabus, Duran and Ramaut (2006) developed a complexity scale that includes much of the same elements of that of Van Avermaet and Gysen's (2006) parameters for determining type task descriptions. The goal is to use these parameters to manipulate the complexity of the types of tasks in order to establish progress in the language learners' language development so as to reach certain language goals set out by the needs analysis. Duran and Ramaut (2006) argue that the tasks in the syllabus should gradually increase in complexity in order to achieve maximum development. The parameters in the study were organized in a complexity scale and were also used to test the foreign learners in the reception class in Flanders at the end of the year to determine whether they were able to move to the mainstream class the next year.

The complexity scale of Duran and Ramaut (2006) can thus be used to characterise the tasks in a syllabus according to these parameters and the tasks can be manipulated to influence the complexity of the tasks. The scale designed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) mostly applies to the receptive skills of reading and listening but can be used for productive skills as well.

The complexity scale of Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52-53) consists of three categories of parameters: the **world** represented in the tasks; the **processing** demands regarding communicative and cognitive processing factors; and the **text** that is the linguistic input features. The parameters of Duran and Ramaut (2006) are set against a scale from simple to complex, which is the ultimate level of proficiency that has to be attained by the language

learner. Duran and Ramaut (2006) maintain that proficiency refers to what the learner should be able to do with the language, whether it is writing, speaking, listening or reading.

The first parameter of Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52 and 60) in the category of the **world** is the *level of abstraction*. It is important not to confront beginners with abstract topics but preferably with concrete topics. Many topics may include more abstract, general insights and descriptions, yet the topic presented in the text can be directly observable in their everyday surroundings. The concrete descriptions according to Duran and Ramaut (2006) can be linked to the *here-and-now*. This also refers to the present tense and familiar settings/topics. The learners should have the appropriate background knowledge and be familiar with the context of the types of tasks at hand. Duran and Ramaut (2006) states that the more abstract topics relate to the *there-and-then* and refers to the past and future tense and unfamiliar topics.

The *here-and-now* in the context is considered easier and less complex than the *there-and-then*. The *here-and-now* aspect is argued by Duran and Ramaut (2006) to allow the learners more opportunities to relate to the text because, as stated before, the context is familiar. The context relates to the language learners' personal experiences and events. However, they states that combinations of *here-and-now* and *there-and-then* features ensure that the learners will be challenged cognitively, yet the learners will still be able to do the task at hand.

Duran and Ramaut's (2006: 52) second parameter in the category of the **world** is that of the degree of *visual support*. The *visual support* builds a conceptual representation of the world in the text. Duran and Ramaut (2006) suggest that one should assess the extent to which support may aid the learners to conceptualize the world and perform the task. If a task is simple enough, *visual support* might not be needed, but if a task is complex in nature or structure, a lot of visual support may help the learner to perform better in the task. Without *visual support* the task may be very complex. Beginners do, in fact, need a lot of visual support with more complex tasks to motivate them to complete the task.

Linguistic context is the third parameter in the category of the **world** proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52). This parameter should support the task performance, especially for beginners. Redundancy (repeating) and low information density levels make tasks less complex. Duran and Ramaut (2006) maintain that limited or low levels of redundancy and high levels of information density make tasks more complex. Therefore more complex tasks require the learners to extract information from the tasks in order to learn and come to an

understanding of the text. This reveals that there is a real relationship between the density of the information and the linguistic means used to convey the information. The higher the density of information, the more complex the task will be. Duran and Ramaut's (2006) *linguistic context* also goes hand in hand with the *here-and-now* and *there-and-then* aspects, because some tenses are more complex for beginner proficiency learners and therefore the tasks will require more information processing from the language learner when trying to comprehend the content of the task. Duran and Ramaut (2006) further suggest that redundancy should not only take place in one task, but some formulae, notions, vocabulary and expressions should repeat in other tasks as well. This repetition ensures that the language learners can extract the necessary information needed for their language development.

The second category proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52 and 55) is the **communicative and cognitive processing demands** and consists of only two parameters. The first parameter is concerned with the *level of processing*. This parameter was discussed by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), who argued that the level of processing can determine the type task description. This discussion can be found in the previous sections. The level of processing in this section follows the same rationale as the previous section of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), except that the parameter will be discussed in terms of determining the complexity of the types of tasks.

The extent to which the learners have to process the information will determine whether the task is very complex or less complex. The processing can be on a *copying level* (also see section above of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006)). This level requires the learners to process information at a simple level because they only have to copy the information presented in order to complete the task. There are no additional cognitive aspects that they have to add to the information to come to a solution; it is only a reproduction of the information given in the task.

According to Duran and Ramaut (2006) the *descriptive level* is the best level for beginners, for although it is a bit more complex than the copying level, it pushes the learners to work more with the information. This means that the information density will be slightly higher than at the copying level even though the information is processed in the same structure as presented. The task may consist of instructions, making the task very factual. At the *descriptive level*, then, Duran and Ramaut (2006) state that the learner will understand the main thoughts and ideas of the tasks without having to reorganize the information given to

come to an understanding of the information (also see section 3.2 above on Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006)).

Furthermore, Duran and Ramaut (2006) suggest that the *restructuring level* is also good for beginners, especially if their have already dealt with the previous levels as mentioned above. Duran and Ramaut (2006) maintain that, in this level, the learners have to reorganize the information that they receive and thus work more extensively with the information at hand. The information becomes more transactional and also pushes the learners to work with and to give personal accounts. Logically then the task will require the learner to process information at a more complex level because the information density will be higher than that of the descriptive level and the redundancy might also be of a slightly lower level. Duran and Ramaut (2006) suggest that, for beginners, the ideal would be a combination of descriptive and restructuring level tasks. The tasks thus include conversations that are both factual and transactional. The tasks should motivate the learners to give personal accounts. The tasks thus 'push' the learners to gradually work more with the information and so they gradually develop their language proficiency.

The *evaluative level* mentioned by Duran and Ramaut (2006) is a lot more complex. Teachers will not expose beginner proficiency language learners to this type of processing in the beginning of the course but rather at the end of the course; if the language learners are cognitively able to process the information in this way, the teacher will not discourage the learners if they process at this level. The different processing levels such as the *descriptive level*, *restructuring level* and the *evaluative level* can be combined in the beginner courses, yet the *evaluative level* processing will be kept to a minimum. According to Duran and Ramaut (2006), at this level of processing the learners will have to reflect on the input by comparing the information in the text with information from another text. The learners thus compare different information sources. Learners can also be required to compare the information to their personal experiences/accounts.

The second parameter in the category of the **communicative and cognitive processing demands** is *modality*. Duran and Ramaut (2006: 55) state that *Modality* refers to the way in which the learners have to produce the solution/answer of the task. Beginner learners will be exposed to tasks which focus on listening and speaking skills, which means that the way in which they produce the outcome will be more specific. Duran and Ramaut (2006) maintain that tasks that require verbal output are generally perceived as being more complex than the

tasks that do not require much or any verbal output. In the case of a syllabus for beginner learners, the tasks that require verbal output are a lot more complex, because according to Duran and Ramaut (2006) they might not have an elaborative vocabulary store or they might not have the confidence to use the language in such a literally productive way.

Duran and Ramaut (2006) state that, in general, productive skills such as speaking and writing are believed to be more demanding than receptive skills (listening and reading). They argue that it is then logically understandable that tasks that require a non-verbal reaction are a lot less complex because they only require that the learners use purely receptive skills. A limited verbal reaction that is found in writing /talking at copying level is a bit more complex, but tasks that require learners to talk and write at a descriptive and restructuring level are more complex for beginner level learners.

The third category proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006: 54) is the **text** and consists of four parameters which are also referred to as the textual/ linguistic features of the task (see section of Van Avermaet and Gysen). According to Duran and Ramaut (2006) there is some controversy around whether or not the linguistic features should be considered when determining the complexity of tasks since the linguistic features are often very closely related to the world of the task. This is because tasks that have concrete descriptions will automatically consist of words and expressions that are less complex than tasks of abstract descriptions. Duran and Ramaut (2006) have included the category of linguistic features in the complexity scale because of the differences that can be found in the beginner language learners' cognitive developments, their knowledge of the **world** and their different proficiencies.

The first parameter in this category relates to the *vocabulary* of the task (Duran and Ramaut, 2006: 54). Words/ phrases and formulaic structures as well as notions that can be found quite frequently in the same and in consecutive tasks are considered to be less complex than the infrequent words in a task/ text (also see Redundancy). The *syntax* of the tasks is the second parameter proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006: 54) and can be analysed separate from or alongside the vocabulary, depending on the complexity of the sentences. Sentences that include reason, long embedded clauses and elaboration will be considered to be more complex than sentences that do not consist of any of the aforementioned. The complex sentences are generally longer, but this does not mean that when a sentence is long that it will be more complex. The complexity will depend on the clauses, notions and functions and the

elaboration involved (Duran and Ramaut, 2006). A sentence can be long but will not include a clause or any difficult words and elaborations/arguments. The syntax is also linked to the tenses (here-and-now and there-and-then: see the above discussion concerning the **world**).

The third parameter Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52 and 56) propose in the category of the **text** is the text *structure.* This refers to whether the texts are explicitly structured or not. Duran and Ramaut (2006) state that a text that contains explicit and clear markers regarding the way the text is structured will be less complex, especially for beginners who do not always know all the vocabulary and sometimes still have to guess what the text is about. They further state that systematic texts are less complex for beginners because they can follow and understand it more easily. The dialogues from tasks are good examples of systematic texts, because the form is familiar to the learners. Texts where the structure is left implicitly are a lot more complex and are generally more suitable for advanced learners of the second language.

The fourth and final parameter in this category is the *text length* (Duran and Ramaut, 2006: 52). Short texts are less complex and suitable for beginners, whereas longer texts are more complex. Duran and Ramaut (2006) notes that long texts are not necessarily always bad for beginners, as long as the in a text structure is systematic and explicitly clear. In dialogues one can also apply this parameter to turn-taking.

Duran and Ramaut (2006:73) maintain that the validity of these parameters remains speculative even though a lot of empirical evidence has been found. The main problem is that the difficulty that the learner will experience in doing the task mostly depends on the learner him/herself. The same can be said for the learner's motivation to do the task, their personal knowledge of the world, the language learner's inter-language development and the actual interaction that takes place.

In the following section these parameters will be used to analyse the types of tasks identified in the tasks designed for use by students and lecturers in campus communication (Chapters 4 and 5). These analyses will show how the parameters of a task in a task-based syllabus can be used to manipulate the complexity of the tasks to suit the proficiency level of the language learners, who constantly needs to be challenged by the tasks presented to them. It will show how the tasks can be sequenced according to the complexity level to ensure that a gradual progression of the second or additional language develops in both the receptive and productive skills.

3.3   THE TASK TYPOLOGY OF PICA ET AL

The following sections first presents a discussion of the task typology of Pica et al (1993) in order to classify task types in each of the Scenarios in Chapters 4 and 5. Another aim is to show how these task and learner requirements of the various task types link to the development of the learners' interlanguage. Interlanguage in this discussion relates to a definition given by Ortega (2009) in Chapter two. Ortega (2009) states that interlanguage is a language system that a learner constructs during language development which can occur during any time in the development of learning the second or additional language. Ortega (2009) further states that the inter-language of a learner reflects his/ her competence of certain elements of the first and second language and also how the learner perceives or understands the various second language concepts and elements.

Thereafter a brief summary of the work of Robinson (2005) surrounding complexity is provided. The aim of this discussion is to show the correlations between the work of complexity by Duran and Ramaut (2006) and Robinson (2005). Another aim is to show the correlations between the work surrounding interlanguage development of Pica et al (1993) and Robinson (2005).

Pica et al (1993) argue for the use of communicative tasks in second language research and instruction. The focus of the rationale for tasks is on interaction, the interactant, and providing second language teachers and task designers with a framework within which they can characterize and differentiate communicative tasks and other activities. In order to define definitions of different types of tasks, Pica et al (1993: 11) take the standpoint that the first component of a task should entail that learners work towards a goal. The participants should therefore arrive at an outcome by interacting with each other. Furthermore, Pica et al (1993: 12) take the standpoint that the second component of a task is an activity, so that participants have an active role in completing the task. Pica et al (1993: 12) state that a task cannot be chosen on the basis of activity and goal alone; because there is no guarantee that the research or instruction will be carried out effectively. They also accept the notion that there are many misconceptions about what qualifies as a task. Pica et al (1993) consider these misconceptions in proposing a description of the different ways in which the features of an activity and goal

can be represented and how these features play a role in their relationship to comprehension, production and inter-language modification.

Pica et al (1993: 13) refer to the task components of activity and goal respectively as interactional activity and communication goal. Each of these components is further elaborated in order to give the components more specificity. In the Table [1] below, interactional activity (category A) is distinguished in terms of the categories of interactant relationship (1) and interactant requirement (2). The communication goal is distinguished in terms of the categories of goal orientation and output options. These distinctive categories provide a framework for linking the learners to the property of comprehension of the second language output, to receive feedback on their production which gives insight into their inter-language, and to respond to the feedback given on their production which gives insight into their interlanguage in order to modify it (Pica et al, 1993: 13). The interactant relationship (A1) refers to the responsibilities given to the participants of the task. They can be required to hold, request, and/or supply the information in order to achieve the goals of the task, thus participants are either mutual or independent information requesters and/or suppliers. The interaction requirement (A2) refers to whether the obligations of the task such as to request or supply task-related information are required or optional (Pica et al, 1993: 13).

Table 1 (Pica et al, 1993: 14): Task relationships, requirements, goals and outcomes and their impact on opportunities for second language learners' comprehension of input, feedback on production and modification

Task activities and goals: Impact on opportunities for learner:	Comprehension of input	Feedback on production	Interlanguage modification
A. Interactional activity: *1) Interactant relationship of request and suppliance activities, based on which interactants hold, request, or supply information directed toward task interaction and outcomes:*			
a) Each interactant holds a different	Expected	Expected	Expected

portion of information and supplies and requests this information as needed to complete the task			
b) One interactant holds all information and supplies it as other(s) request it	Expected if repeated, with roles reversed		
c) Each interactant has access to information and supplies it if other(s) request it	Possible	Possible	Possible
2) Interaction requirement for activity of request-suppliance directed towards task outcomes:			
a) Each interactant is required to request and supply information	Expected	Expected	Expected
b) One interactant is required to request, the other(s) required to supply information	Expected if repeated, with roles reversed		
c) Each interactant is expected to request and supply information, but not required to do so.	Possible	Possible	Possible
<u>**B. Communication goal:**</u>			
3) Goal orientation in using information requested and supplied:			
a) Interactants have same or convergent goals	Expected	Expected	Expected
b) Interactants have related, but divergent goals	Possible	Possible	Possible
4) Outcome options in attempting to meet goals:			
a) Only one acceptable outcome is possible	Expected	Expected	Expected
b) More than one outcome is possible	Possible	Possible	Possible

From Table [1], as seen above, Pica et al (1993) suggest that one can deduce that if participants are engaged in a mutual relationship to request, supply and exchange information,

the exchange of information will be in a two-way direction. They states that if the relationship of requesting and supplying information is less mutual, the information exchange will be in a one-way direction. In regarding the requirements of the interactional activity, Pica et al (1993) states that a task that requires that the information be exchanged among the participants will also promote the interaction. The opposite, in other words a task that gives participants the option to contribute to the information exchange, will therefore not be likely to promote interaction.

The second category (B) proposed by Pica et al (1993) entails that the component of the communicative goal is divided into the goal orientation (3) and outcome options (4). The goal orientation refers to the terms collaborative ("together")/ convergent ("towards one outcome"), independent ("one") and divergent ("more than one outcome"), which is required from the interactant in meeting the goal of the task. Pica et al (1993: 15) state that the outcome options (4) refer to the range of acceptable outcomes available to the interactant in completing the task.

The categories of Table [1] are closely linked. Pica et al (1993) believe that if each interactant holds different parts of the information needed to meet the goal of the task, the interaction requirement entails that interaction is required to take place among the interactants to supply and receive the information – therefore working in a convergent manner to achieve one acceptable goal (see categories a). They suggest that such a task promotes the greatest opportunities for learners to experience comprehension of input, feedback on production and interlanguage modification. The reason for this is that the task creates more opportunities for negotiation in relation to tasks in which the participants are not obligated to exchange information (such as with categories b and c). Pica et al (1993: 15) state that one should note, however, that some task conditions might influence the predictability of the task procedure.

Pica et al (1993: 19) propose a second Table [2] that relates to Table [1] in that the categories in Table [1] are further specified in order to establish different task types. Firstly, the category of interactant relationship is distinguished in terms of the information (INF) holder, INF requester, INF supplier, and INF requester-supplier. These distinctions relate to the different roles that participants can play in completing a task. Pica et al (1993) propose that a combinations of these roles result in different types of tasks. The categories of interactant requirement, goal orientation and outcome options are also represented in this Table [2]. X

and Y in Table [2] represent the various participants participating in the task and can also represent more than one or two participants.

According to Pica et al (1993), Table [2] shows how each of the task types can be distinguished from each other on the basis of the different assumptions made in each category of interactant relationship, interactant requirement, goal orientation and outcome option. In addition, Pica et al (1993) state that Table [2] shows the impact that these categories have on opportunities of comprehension of input, the feedback on production and to their modified output (Pica et al, 1993: 20).

Table 2 (Pica et al, 1993: 19) 1: Communication task types for second language research and pedagogy analysis based on: Interactant (X/Y) relationships and requirements in communicating information (INF) to achieve task goals

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

Table [2] of Pica et al (1993) above indicates that a jigsaw task is categorized as a task where the interactants each hold a part of the information that must be exchanged and manipulated in order to convergently come towards a task goal. Pica et al (1993) state that each participant holds, requests and supplies information and works in a mutual relationship to come to a single goal or outcome. Jigsaw tasks link to the 'a' categories as indicated in Table [1] of Pica et al (1993) and represent a two way flow of information exchange because of the mutual relationship between the participants. In this regard, then, a jigsaw task has a great opportunity for the learners to interact and to work towards input comprehension, feedback and interlanguage modification.

According to Pica et al (1993), Table [2] indicates that an information gap task requires that one participant holds information that the other participant has no knowledge of. They state that both participants should know of or have the same information, thus interaction will take place. The information flow is that of a one-way flow, because one participant holds all the information required (corresponds to 1b and 2b). Nevertheless, Pica et al (1993) states that the participants still work together to find a convergent goal and single outcome, which is why this task type corresponds with categories 3a and 4a in Table 1. According to Pica et al (1993) the information distribution does not result in a mutual relationship. In order for the information flow to be two-way, Pica et al (1993) suggest that the participant who receives the information can add additional information (this should be needed in order to complete the task) that must be confirmed or rejected by the other participant. An information gap task might also result in greater opportunities for learners to interact, to work towards input comprehension, feedback and interlanguage modification.

Pica et al (1993) argue that a problem solving task requires that the participants work towards a single outcome. The requirement corresponds with categories 3a and 4a, therefore resulting in a greater change than decision-making and opinion exchange task regarding interaction and working towards input comprehension, feedback and inter-language modification. They further maintain that a decision making task requires that participants work toward a single outcome though there are several outcomes available. An opinion-exchange task according to Pica et al (1993) entails that the participants take part in exchange of ideas and opinions, thus the task results in elaborate discussions. Still, the interaction is not required and therefore might result in less production. Pica et al (1993: 22) state that these tasks are less restrictive with regards to the categories of the interactant relationship and interactant requirement. In all three task types the interactant starts out with a shared access to the information needed to

complete the task (corresponds with 1c). The information flow is two-way, but the interaction is not necessary to complete the task (corresponds with 1c and 2c).

Pica et al (1993) notes that it is possible to change the tasks by manipulating one or more of the features of the task. They further note that by manipulating the task features, one can manipulate participant roles and ultimately the production of the tasks, which results in a modification of the interlanguage.

In the various scenarios that follow in Chapters 4 and 5, an overall task type classification is provided for each of the scenarios according to the classification of Pica et al as explained above. In other words, Table 1 and 2 of Pica et al is applied to each of the individual Scenarios in order to establish what type of task type is predominant in each of the Scenarios.

3.4   ROBINSON'S THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON COGNITIVE COMPLEXITY AND TASK SEQUENCING.

Robinson (2005), with regards to the Cognitive Hypothesis, distinguishes two dimensions of complexity that can be used in a framework to aid teachers in sequencing tasks in a syllabus according to complexity. The first dimension is named the resource-directing dimension and can be linked to the development of the learners' second language repertoire. Manipulation in order to make tasks more complex along this dimension will entail the increasing of the conceptual and linguistic demands. The objective of this manipulation is to extend the learners' existing language repertoire. The second dimension of complexity is named resource-dispersing and links to the performance of the learner. Robinson (2005: 4) state in order to make tasks more complex along this dimension, the manipulation involves the increase on the demands made on the learners' access to the existing second language repertoire.

Concerning the emphasis of language development, Robinson (2005) argues that the increase in the complexity of tasks will enable learners to notice, process and retain the input they are exposed to. The interaction that stems from these more complex tasks will encourage learners to analyze the input and output. Manipulating tasks as to gradually increasing information processing demands will ensure greater accuracy and complexity in the learners' output. In

addition, these tasks encourage negotiation of meaning and interaction, thus cognitive processing and interactive requirements make task-based language development possible.

Robinson (2005: 3) developed the *Triadic Componential Framework* which aims to function as an aid to sequence tasks in a syllabus according to complexity by means of analyses on complex classroom situations. The framework consists of three broad groups of complexity. The first group involves intrinsic complexity features such as cognitive factors regarding whether the completion of a task requires one, double or multiple steps. The second group of complexity includes factors of task conditions such as one- or two-way flow of information. The third group of complexity deals with learner factors such as the learners' perceptions of difficulty and anxiety.

Robinson (2005: 4-6) explores the subcategories of both the resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions in order to create a sequencing criteria according to the degree of the complexity of tasks. The first subcategory of the resource-directing dimension entails the features of the here-and-now and there-and-then property discussed in much detail in the previous section on the perspectives of Duran and Ramaut (2006). This subcategory links to the world and the linguistic context properties of Duran and Ramaut (2006). The second subcategory links to the textual features and processing demands properties of Duran and Ramaut (2006) and broadly consists of the level of reasoning involved in the communication task.

The subcategories of the resource-dispersing dimension include the planning time, the prior knowledge of the learner regarding the second language, and the number of steps that the task requires should be done simultaneously. Manipulation surrounding these subcategories will aim to increase the learners' ability to access and use knowledge during the performance of the task. The aim is to enable learners to access and control their developing language repertoire in real-time. The subcategories in this dimension link to the typology of Pica et al (discussed in the previous section). Both Pica et al (1993) and Robinson (2005) are concerned with the performance of the learner, the flow of information, the development of the inter-language and the manipulation of the input as well as the output of the learner during the performance of the communication task.

Robinson's perspective on cognitive complexity shares great correlations with the perspectives on the complexity properties of Duran and Ramaut (2006) and Pica et al's

typology of tasks. Robinson's perspectives on cognitive complexity can therefore be interpreted in the same manner regarding the perspectives of the latter mentioned. For that reason, the analyses that follow in Chapter 4 and 5 will not include an explicit description of Robinson's perspectives.

The following section focuses on a discussion of proficiency levels in order to provide the reader with a detailed and concise description of the 'learner' in all the complexity analyses and task type classifications in all the scenarios in chapters 4 and 5.

3.5 PROFICIENCY LEVELS

In order to establish a consensus on the proficiency levels of the learners needed in the analyses done in chapters 4 and 5, the Common European Framework of reference for languages (CEF) (2001) and the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) (2010) are used as references and to describe the proficiency levels that are referred to. The levels of proficiency of all four skills (speaking, writing, reading and listening) are described in these references. In this discussion, however, the skills of speaking and listening are the focus of attention as these two skills are also the focus of chapters 4 and 5. It should, however, be understood that the learners will also be exposed to reading and writing activities, yet these two skills will not receive much detail in this discussion.

The CEF describes a number proficiency levels. The level of proficiency refers to how well the learner can perform in the second language. At each level, the CEF (2001) states that the learner must be able to successfully perform certain criteria set out in the framework (this is the same for CEF and ILR). The proficiency level insinuated and referred to in Chapters 4 and 5 is that of A1 according to the CEF. The ILR uses a different manner in naming the levels of proficiency and for this discussion the elementary proficiency (1) and elementary proficiency plus (1+) is used. A + level description describes that the learner is able to perform on the lower level but does not fully meet the criteria of the higher level of performance set out by the framework.

On a global scale the CEF states that the learner (as for the analyses in chapters 4 and 5) is a basic user – at the level of A1, which is described by the CEF as follows: the learner "Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the

satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/her self and others can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/ she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help".

The learner therefore has a **"very** basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations (range), limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorized repertoire (accuracy), can manage very short isolated, mainly pre-packaged utterances, with much pausing to search for expressions, to articulate less familiar words, and to repair communication (fluency), can ask and answer questions about personal details". The CEF further states that this learner can interact in a simple way but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair (interaction) and can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like "and" or "then" (coherence)".

According to the CEF, the speaking skills of the learners relate to the overall oral production of the learner and entails that he/ she can produce simple, mainly isolated phrases about people and places, can sustain a monologue describing him/herself, what he/she does and where he/ she lives and can address audiences by reading a very short, rehearsed statement (for example to introduce a speaker, propose a toast, etc.).

On the other hand, the IRL states the following about the basic user's speaking skills: Speaking 1+ (Elementary Proficiency, Plus) – "Can initiate and maintain predictable face-to-face conversations and satisfy limited social demands. He/she may, however, have little understanding of the social conventions of conversation. The interlocutor is generally required to strain and employ real-world knowledge to understand even some simple speech. The speaker at this level may hesitate and may have to change subjects due to lack of language resources. Range and control of the language are limited. Speech largely consists of series of short, discrete utterances."

The listening skills of this learner according to the CEF relates to the overall listening comprehension of the learner and entails that he /she can follow speech which is very slow and carefully articulated, with long pauses for him/ her to assimilate meaning. Also the CEF states that as a member of an audience, this type of learner can understand instructions addressed carefully and slowly to him/her and follow short simple directions.

According to the ILR framework, the listener (learner) in Chapter 4 and 5 will be at level 1: Listening 1 (Elementary Proficiency) therefore consisting of "Sufficient comprehension to understand utterances about basic survival needs and minimum courtesy and travel requirements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics, can understand simple questions and answers, simple statements and very simple face-to-face conversations in a standard dialect. These must often be delivered more clearly than normal at a rate slower than normal with frequent repetitions or paraphrases (that is, by a native used to dealing with foreigners). Once learned, the IRL states that these sentences can be varied for similar level vocabulary and grammar and still be understood, in the majority of utterances, the IRL states that misunderstandings arise due to overlooked or misunderstood syntax and other grammatical clues. Comprehension vocabulary inadequate to understand anything but the most elementary needs. Strong interference from the candidate's native language occurs. Little precision in the information understood owing to the tentative state of passive grammar and lack of vocabulary. Comprehension areas according to the IRL include basic needs such as: meals, lodging, transportation, time and simple directions (including both route instructions and orders from customs officials, policemen, etc.). Understand main ideas."

The skills of writing and reading according to the CEF and the ILR are that of A1 and 1 respectively.

In the analyses that follow in chapter 4 and 5, statements relating to aspects of proficiency (such as "fairly simple vocabulary", "simple to follow and understand" and "familiar") will therefore be directed at the aforementioned levels of proficiency as described by the CEF and IRL.

3.6   CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 serves as an introduction to chapters 4 and 5 as it studies the necessary theoretical perspectives needed in order to understand the information provided in the various analyses that follows in chapters 4 and 5.

The discussion of Avermaet and Gysen (2006) provides the reader with a detailed description of various parameters in order to identify type task descriptions. Determining the types of

tasks in designing a syllabus is necessary in order to cluster tasks together. This clustering provides a framework to sequence tasks within a syllabus with similar characteristics regarding levels of processing and/or genre of the text and/ or the role of the interlocutor and/ or the topic of the conversation and/or the contextual support.

The discussion of the perspectives of Duran and Ramaut (2006) in regards to complexity of tasks provides the reader with the necessary parameters to determine the complexity of various tasks. The parameters are applied to the types of tasks identified according to the work discussed in the section of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) in Chapters 4 and 5. Therefore the analyses according to the parameters of Duran and Ramaut (2006) determine the complexity of these types of tasks. Complexity analyses thus aid the ordering and sequencing of the type task in a syllabus (the more simple tasks identified will therefore be sequenced and ordered before the more complex tasks identified according to the parameters of Duran and Ramaut (2006)).

The discussion of Pica et al (1993) provides the reader with elements regarding various task types that can help to influence the development of the learners' interlanguage. These elements consist of issues regarding the task requirements and the learner/ interlocutor requirements. In each of the ccenarios that follow in chapters 4 and 5, the task type that is predominant is classified and the elements concerning learner requirements and task requirements are applied to each of these predominant task types. The section involving the perspectives on cognitive complexity of Robinson (2005) supports the discussion of Duran and Ramaut (2006) in that most of the complexity properties of Duran and Ramaut (2006) correlates with that of Robinson (2005). Furthermore, the discussion of Robinson (2005) also links with that of Pica et al (1993) regarding the issue of interlanguage development.

Chapter 3 concludes with a description of the various proficiency levels and the proficiency levels required for the performance necessary for the learners who will be performing the scenarios in chapters 4 and 5. Providing such proficiency level descriptions is necessary in order to establish a profile and consensus regarding the 'learner' in any complexity analysis where learners are involved.

CHAPTER FOUR
A COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS OF CAMPUS COMMUNICATION TASKS: STUDENT-TO-STUDENT

4   INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines scenarios surrounding student-to-student communication in isiXhosa in the context of a univerity campus. Various types of tasks are identified at each scenario according to the task type parameters proposed by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). Thereafter each of the task types identified are analyzed according to the complexity parameters proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) in order to place the types of tasks on a complexity continuum (complexity scale). In addition, each scenario is analyzed in terms of the task type classification according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

In this chapter then, 'types of tasks' refers to the classification of broad, concrete language tasks on the basis of certain characteristics within these task types as stipulated by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). Simpler language functions that typically occur in the context of communication between students and that are present in the types of tasks can also be identified and analyzed according to the complexity properties of Duran and Ramaut (2006). The analyses of complexity of each of the task types must rather be seen as on a continuum than as fixed information (see Duran and Ramaut table on page 54).

4.1.   COMMUNICATION   TASKS   FOR   STUDENT-TO-STUDENT DIALOGUE

A needs analysis has been done by following certain steps – as proposed by Brown (2009) – to find the information needed in order to design relevant tasks for the students at a university campus. The purpose of the needs analysis was defined as very specific and entails the learning of a second language within the context of a university campus. The type of needs identified consists of a combination of subjective and objective needs. In other words, the content of the dialogues/ scenarios consists of the necessities regarding the language they need in order to function in the second language and what the students want to learn about the second language that happens in their everyday situations on a university campus. The scale

of the scenarios is specific in that the population consists of students and lecturers. The focus of the needs analyses is mostly on promoting the listening and speaking skills of the learners learning the second language. Therefore, according to Brown's perspectives (2009), the scenarios will be appropriate for a communication approach following a task-based syllabus. The data collection procedures followed in the needs analysis of the design of the scenarios were mostly target language analyses, interviews and gathering expert advice. By using these procedures, the most relevant information needed could be gathered because thought was put into the situational characteristics, the type of information needed, the information source and the level of accuracy desired (see Brown, 2009, for more detailed descriptions of the terms). Therefore, according to Brown, the qualitative research approach has been followed in this needs analysis. The types of questions addressed in the interviews were based on behaviour and experience but mostly on priorities. Thereafter the data was analysed according to the critieria set out by Brown (2009). The data collected had to be consistent, valid, verifiable and meaningful.

Note that the English translations provided in each of the dialogues for the isiXhosa text represent approximate meanings of the isiXhosa, rather than translations or the technical versions. The analyses presented in this chapter are, in fact, independent of the English approximations.

4.2. SCENARIO 1

Maryke is a first year student at the University of Stellenbosch. She has a class at 14h00 but does not know how to get there and has some trouble understanding the time table. At the Neelsie she sees a classmate (Sociology) from another class, Nothemba. Maryke asks Nothemba how to get to the building where her class is and how to use the time table. They also exchange some other general information about the subject they have together (test dates, books required, notes taken, etc.).

Maryke:	Molo, NoThemba (*Good day NoThemba*)!	(1)
Nothemba:	Molo, Maryke. Usaphila? (*Hallo, Maryke. How are you*?)	
Maryke:	Hayi ndisaphila. Wena? (*No, I am still fine/ok. And you*?)	(3)
Nothemba:	Hayi ndiphilile enkosi. Andingakubonanga kwi Sociology, kutheni?	

(*No, I am healthy thank you. I did not see you in Sociology, why?*) (5)

Maryke: Ndinengxaki. Yonke imihla ndicinga ukuba ndineklasi eyahlukileyo. Andiyazi le timetable yam! (*I have a problem. Every day I think I* (7) *have a different class. I do not know this time table of mine!*)

Nothemba: Ndiyaimangaliswe ukuva lo nto, kuba kulula ukwazi le timetable. (*I* (9) *am amazed to hear this, because it is easy to know this time table*)

Maryke: Uza kundibonisa ukuba isetyenziswa njani le nto? (*You will show me* (11) *how to use this thing?*)

Nothemba: Ewe. Mandikubonise. (*Yes. Let me show you.*) (13)

UNothemba ubonisa uMaryke ukuba isebenza njani itime table (*NoThemba shows Maryke how to use the time table*). (15)

Maryke: Ahhhh! Ndiyaqonda ngoku! Kodwa ndinenye ingxaki…. (*I understand now! But I have another problem…*) (17)

Nothemba: Yintoni ingxaki yakho? (*What is your problem?*)

Maryke: Izolo, ndilibele ukuthenga incwadi yeSociology. Ngoku andinamali (19) yokuthenga le ncwadi kuba ndiyityile imali izolo. Umama wam uza kuba nomsindo xa esiva le nto. Akazi kubuya andinike enye imali (21) kude kube kule veki izayo. (*Yesterday I forgot to buy the Sociology book. Now, I do not have money to buy this book, because I have* (23) *eaten (i.e partied with) the money yesterday. My mother will be angry if she hears this. She will not give me money again until next week*) (25)

Nothemba: Ndiza kuwubolekela incwadi yam ukuze uyokwenza ii-copy. Musa (27) ukukhathazeka siza kwenza icebo (*I will borrow you my book so that you can make copies. Do not worry, we will make a plan.*) (29)

Maryke: Silubhala nini uviwo na? (*When do we write exam?*)

Nothemba:	Andiyazi, ndicinga ukuba siza kubhala kweyeSilimela okanye	(31)
	ngoSeptemba. Utitshala uthe ukuba siza kubhala uvavanyo	(33)
	kwinyanga ezayo. (*I do not know, I think we will write in June or*	
	September. The teacher said that we will write a class test next	
	month).	(35)
Maryke:	Ndicinga ukuba uviwo luza kuba nzima kakhulu, kuba umsebenzi	
	mninzi. (*I think that the exam will be difficult, because the work is a*	(37)
	lot).	
Nothemba:	Ewe, umsebenzi mninzi kakhulu. Siza kufunda ixesha elide.	(39)
	Masifumane abanye abafundi ukuze siyokufunda elibrary. (*Yes, the*	
	work is a lot. We will study for a long time. We must find other	
	students so that we can study in the library).	(41)
Maryke:	Ewe, singaxoxa lo msebenzi ukuze ube lula. Esi sifundo asilulanga	(43)
	kodwa ndiyasithanda kakhulu esi sifundo. (*Yes, we can discuss this*	
	work so that it is easier. This subject is not easy, but I like it very	(45)
	much).	
Nothemba:	Ewe, ndiyavuma. (*Yes I agree*).	
Maryke:	Ngubani ixesha? (*What is the time?*).	
Nothemba:	Ngu-13h15. Kutheni? (*It is 13h15. Why*?)	(49)
Maryke:	Ndilambile kakhulu, kodwa ndineklasi ngo14h00. Ndicinga ukuba	
	ndiza kuthenga isonkana esincinci ekhefi. (*I am very hungry, but I*	
	have a class at 14h00. I think that I will buy a small sandwich at the	
	shop).	(53)
Nothemba:	Hayi, ndithanda ukutya amaqebengwana ahlohliweyo ekhefi yase3rd	
	degree. Hmmmm (*No, I like to eat sandwiches at 3rd degree*).	(55)
Maryke:	Nothemba, khawundicacisele siphi isakhiwo seSocial Sciences?	

(*NoThemba, can you explain where the Social Sciences building is?*)

Nothemba: Ewe, uneklasi apho? (*Yes, you have a class there?*)

Maryke: Ewe, ndineklasi yeFilosofi phaya. (61)

(*Yes, I have Philosophy there*)

Nothemba: Andifuni ukufunda iFilosofi. Andiyithandi indlela abacinga ngayo (*I* (63)

do not want to study Philosophy. I do not like the manner in which

they think). (65)

Maryke: Ndiyabona, kodwa ndicinga ukuba esi sifundo sibalulekile kakhulu.

Khawundichazele indlela yokufika kwesi sakhiwo seSocial Sciences (67)

ngoku, kuba iklasi yam iqala ngentsimbi yesibini? Phambi kokuba

ndibe ndiyahamba ukuya eklasini ndifuna ukutya amaqebengwana (69)

ahlohliweyo. (*I see, but I think that this subject is very important.*

Will you explain the way to get to the Social Sciences building now, (71)

because I have a class starting at 14h00? Before I go to class I want

to eat a small sandwich). (73)

Nothemba: Ewe. Unyuka ezitepsini ude ufike kumgangatho wesibini. Jika

ngasekhohlo, uhambe njalo, ekhohlo uza kubona ivenkile yeempahla, (75)

phambi kwakho uza kubona ikhemesti. Phuma ecangweni ekunene.

Ngoku uza kubona iRooi Plein. Hamba kanjalo ude ubone i-Admin (77)

A. Phesheya kweAdmin A uza kubona isakhiwo seCCG Cilliers.

Isakhiwo seSocial Sciences ingasekunene kwe-CCG Cilliers (*Yes. Go* (79)

up at the stairs until you get to the second floor. Turn left, walk strait

on the left you will see a clothing shop; in front you will see the (81)

pharmacy. Go out at the door right. Now, you will see the Rooi Plein.

Walk until you see Admin A. Across from Admin A you will see the

CCG Cilliers building. The Social Sciences building is on the right

(85)

hand side of CCG Cilliers).

Maryke: Ngasekunene? (*Right?*)   (87)

Nothemba: Ewe

Maryke: Enkosi kakhulu, ezi ndlela zilula (*Thank you very much, these*

directions are easy).

Nothemba: Hamba kakuhle, ndiza kukubona kweSociology (*Go well, I will see* (91)

you at Sociology).

Maryke: Ewe, sala kakuhle, khumbula ukuzisa incwadi yakho ukuze

ndizokwenza ii-copy. (*Yes, stay well, remember to bring your book so*

that I can make copies).   (95)

Nothemba: Ewe, ndiza kuyikhumbula. (*Yes, I will remember*).

The identification of various task type descriptions according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) follows below. Thereafter the various types of tasks are analysed according to the complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). The task type classification according to Pica et al (1993) will also follow below.

4.2.1. Types of tasks identification for Scenario 1

Task type [1]: Greeting and asking well being.

Task type [2]: Asking and explaining how to use a time table.

Task type [3]: Asking to borrow a book, giving reasons for not having a book and borrowing a book.

Task type [4]: Asking and answering question about when writing an examination and giving opinion about the examination.

Task type [5]: Exchanging opinions about a subject choice.

Task type [6]: Asking and giving directions.

4.2.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 1

The segments in lines 1-4 and 95 illustrate the task type [1] relating to greeting and asking well being. This type of task [1] can be found in many Scenarios and are often initially learned by the beginner learners as formulaic expressions. See scenario 2 task type [1] for the analysis in terms of its complexity properties as the analysis will not be done here.

Lines 11-16, illustrating the type of task [2] relating to asking and showing how to use a time table, is analyzed in terms of the complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006:52) below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense. The topic is familiar to the learner learning the content because of the campus context. A limited level of redundancy occurs but the information density is very low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The conversation follows a basic train of thought and is thus easy to follow. The information in the text is simple to understand.
The text		
The vocabulary	The register of the conversation is informal hence the familiar peers in the conversation. The vocabulary is fairly simple.	
The syntax	The sentences are relatively simple for it consists of no long embedded clauses.	
The text length and structure	The turn takings are relatively short and well structured.	

The complexity analysis of the above task type [2] descriptions illustrates that the task type [2] description is concrete, hence the low level of abstraction. Furthermore, the learner is not required to process the information presented at a very complex level. The reason for this

view is because the information density is very low and thus the processing entails processing at a descriptive level. On the continuum then, this type of task [2] can be placed towards the side of the continuum that represents less complexity.

The type of task [3] relating to asking to borrow a book, giving reasons for not having a book and borrowing a book is illustrated in the segments in lines 19-29. The complexity analysis of the task type [3] description follows the same procedure as the above task type [2] description in that most of the information is unchanged. The task type [3] description differs from the above task type [2] in the properties of the level of abstraction and the linguistic context. The level of abstraction only entails the here-and now feature therefore the linguistic context entails mostly sentences in the present tense. The processing level of the task type [3] still entails the descriptive level as in task type [2]. Therefore the complexity analysis of this task type [3] description illustrates that the task type [3] can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity. The information processing resembles that of the descriptive level even though the redundancy level is low. The reason for this view is that the information density balances the complexity by also being very low. The learner is thus not required to process the information at a complex level.

The segment in lines 30-39 illustrates the task type [4] relating to asking and answering questions about when writing an examination and giving opinion about the examination. The segment is analyzed in terms of the complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) in the same manner as in the previous task type [3] as most of the information given at the task type [3] remains the same. The complexity analysis of task type [4] differs from that of task type [3] in the properties of the vocabulary and syntax. The vocabulary of task type [4] is still simple but the same vocabulary and phrases are frequently used in this segment. The property of syntax differ in that the sentences are short and simple consisting only of short clauses with words like **okanye** (or) and **kuba** (because). Therefore the complexity analysis of task type [4] illustrates that the task type [4] can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity because the information processing entails processing at the descriptive level. Thus, the learner is not required to reorganize any information in order to understand the main thoughts and ideas.

Task type [5] is illustrated in lines 63-66. The task type [5] description relates to exchanging opinions about a subject choice. The complexity analysis of the task type [5] description follows in exactly the same manner as task type [2] discussed above. No significant changes

from task type [2] occur in this task type [5] and therefore the complexity analysis of task type [5] illustrates that the level of abstraction is concrete. This means that the learner can directly relate the information at hand to the content that must be learned. The information density is quite low and the learner is not required to process the information at a very complex level. The information processing entails the learner to process the information presented at a descriptive level. The complexity analysis thus suggests that this task type [5] be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

Lines 67-69 and 74-86 illustrate the task type [6] relating to asking and giving directions. The complexity analysis of this task type [6] description follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense. The topic is very frequently used in this type of context thus very familiar to the learner. A high level of redundancy occurs and the information density is fairly low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The conversation follows a logical manner thus making it simple to understand the main ideas and thoughts. The conversation consists of instructions and is thus very factual.
The text		
The vocabulary	The interlocutors are familiar peers the register is therefore informal. The vocabulary is fairly simple and frequently used in this type of conversation. Furthermore the same vocabulary is repeated in the conversation (words like –**ekunene** (right) and **ekhohlo** (left).	
The syntax	The sentences are longer than in the previous scenarios but do not consist of long embedded clauses because the imperative is frequently used.	

The text length and structure	The turn takings are longer than in the previous scenarios. The text is logically structured which enables the reading of the text as a simple text.

The complexity analysis of the above task type [6] description illustrates that the task type [6] description is concrete because of the low level of abstraction. The fact that a considerable amount of instructions occur in the text suggests that the information processing should resemble that of the restructuring level. The conversation including the instructions is very factual, rather than transactional, thus the processing entails a high descriptive level or low restructuring level. The task type [6] can thus be placed towards the side of the continuum representing more complexity.

4.2.3 Task type classification for Scenario 1

Scenario 1 is predominantly an information gap task according to Pica et al's (1993) classifications of tasks because one participant (Maryke) holds the information and supplies it to the other participant (Nothemba) (lines 6-36 and lines 67-87) (Table 1:1b). One participant (Nothemba) is required to respond or request information held by the supplier (Maryke) of the information who is required to supply the necessary information (lines 42-62) (Table 1:2b). Both the participants of the task are working towards convergent goals in that they try to solve Maryke's problem of finding a building (among other problems). Note that this task is close to a problem solving task in that problems are solved together, but the information distribution between Maryke and Nothemba does not allow the task to be a problem-solving task (Table 1: 3a). The task can have only one acceptable answer (line 79) (Table 1:4a). The information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange since the receiver of the information (Nothemba) requests and adds information that is necessary in order to achieve the goal of the task (for example, in lines 4, 9-12, 49 and 60 Nothemba asks questions regarding the information that she receives from Maryke).

4.3 SCENARIO 2

John lives far from the University of Stellenbosch and needs to find accommodation for the next year. He discusses his situation with a classmate, Sipho. He asks Sipho whether he knows how to find places that are available and how much it might cost him or if he knows

about somebody who wants to share a flat. During their discussion, they talk about how difficult it is to use a lift club, student fees, student loans and exchange ideas and proposals for the registration for the next year.

John: Molo, bhuti (*Hallo brother*)   (1)

Sipho: Ewe, molo mhlobo wam. Kunjani namhlanje? (*Hallo my friend. How are

           you today?*)   (3)

John: Hayi ndisahleli ngaphandle kwentamo. Izolo ndenzakele intamo yam,

           ndidlale umbhoxo kodwa ndiphilile. Wena? (*Yesterday I injured my neck, I

           played rugby, but I am fine. And you?*)

Sipho: Hayi ndisaphila enkosi. Kutheni wenzakalise intamo yakho nje? (*No I am   (7)

           still fine thank you. Why did you injure your neck like this*?)

John: Omnye umdlali ebengandiboni, ubaleke wada wandigila. Sipho ndifuna   (9)

           ukukubuza ukuba ndingayifumana njani na indawo yokuhlala? (*The other

           player did not see me, he ran until he crashed with me. Sipho, I want to ask   (11)

           you if you know how I can get a place to stay*).

Sipho: Zonke iindawo zizele. Andicingi ukuba uza kufumana indawo ngoku, kodwa

           kufuneka uzamele unyaka ozayo. (*All the places are full. I do not think you

           will get a place now, but you must try next year*).   (15)

John: Ewe, ndiyazi. Ndifuna indawo kunyaka ozayo. Kodwa andiyazi ukuba

           ndiqale phi na ukuyifuna. (*Yes I know. I am looking for a place for next   (17)

           year. But I do not know where to start looking for it*).

Sipho: ENeelsie kukho ivenkile apho ungabuza khona, kodwa andilazi igama lale   (19)

           venkile. (*In the Neelsie there is a shop where you can ask, but I do not know

           the name of the shop*).

John: Ndine-R2500 endinokuyibhatala zonke iinyanga. Awazi mntu ofunayo

           wokwebelana naye ngegumbi? (*I have R2500 to pay every month. Do you   (23)

know somebody that is looking for somebody to share?)

Sipho: Ewe, kodwa ufuna R 3000. Igama lakhe nguMax. (*Yes, but he wants R3000.*   (25)

His name is Max).

John: Ucinga ukuba uMax uza kundinika indawo xa ndimcela? (*You think that*   (27)

Max will give me a place if I ask?)

Sipho: Ndiqinisekile, ndiza kukunika inombolo kaMax. (*I am sure; I will give you*

his number).

John: Iindawo zaseStellenbosch ziduru kakhulu! Le ndawo ikufuphi neCampus?   (31)

(*The places of Stellenbosch are very expensive! The place is near Campus?*).

Sipho: Ndihamba noThandi yonke imihla, kodwa lo nto ayilula. Maxa wambi   (33)

ndilinda ixesha elide. UMax uhamba imizuzu emihlanu ukufika eCampasini.

Indawo isecaleni kweLutz. Uyayazi le ndawo? (*I go with Thandi every day,*

but it is not easy. Sometimes I wait a long time. Max walks 5min to get to

Campus. The place is next to Lutz. You know this place?) (37)

John: Ewe, enkosi kakhulu, mhlobo wam. Ndiza kufonela uMax. Ndinethemba

uzakundinceda, kuba ndiphelelwe kakhulu. Andinakusebenzisa i-lift club,   (39)

kuba ndihlala kude neStellenbosch. Ngoku ndihlala nomhlobo wam, kodwa

umama wakhe uba nomsindo kakhulu xa ndingena ebusuku. Ndihamba   (41)

ngemoto yam yonke imihla, kodwa ipetroli iduru kakhulu, noTata wam

ubhatala lo mfazi yonke inyanga ukuze ndihlala phaya. (*Yes, thank you very*   (43)

much my friend. I will phone Max. I hope he helps me, because I am very

desperate. I cannot use a lift club, because I live far from Stellenbosch. Now   (45)

I live with my friend, but his mother gets angry when I come in at night. I

drive with my car every day, but petrol is very expensive and my father pays

this woman every month so that I can stay there).

Sipho: Ndiyaqonda. Ufuna ukuzimela. (*I understand. you want to have*   (49)

independence).

John: Ewe, uTata wam ufuna ukuba ndisebenza ngempela-veki neeholide ukufumana imali. (*Yes, my father wants me to work weekends and holidays to get money*).

USipho ushukumisa intloko yakhe. (*Sipho shakes his head*)

John: Ziphela nini iiklasi? (*When do classes end*?)   (53)

Sipho: Andiyazi, kodwa ndiyazi ukuba i-registration ingo24th kweyomqumgu. Iiklasi ziqala ngo5th kweyomDumba. (*I do not know, but I know that the registration is on the 24th of January. Classes start on the 5th of February*).   (55)

John: Uyive phi le nto? (*Where did you hear this*?)

Sipho: Ndibuze eAdmin izolo, kuba ndifumane imali-mboleko okanye ingxaso-mali. Utata wam akanamali yokubathala izifundo zam. (*I asked at Admin yesterday, because I must get a Student Loan or Bursary. My father doesn't have money to pay for my studies*).   (59)

John: Ndiyayiqonda le nto. Iduru kakhulu! Ndinemali yokubhatala kunyaka ozayo, kodwa ndiza kufumana imali kuMalume ukubhatala indawo yokuhlala. (*I understand. It is very expensive. I have money to pay for next year, but I will get money from my uncle to pay for a place to stay*).   (63)

(65)

Sipho: Mhlawumbi, singahlala endaweni enye kulo nyaka uzayo ukuba ndiyayifumana imali-ngxaso? (*Maybe we can stay in a place next year if I get a Bursary?*)   (67)

John: Ewe kulungile. Ndinethemba lokuba uza kuyifumane le mali-ngxaso. Ndithanda ukuhlala nomntu endimaziyo, kuba iStellenbosch singa nobungozi. Ufuna ukuya kule ndawo eNeelsie ukuze ubuza ngeendawo yokuhlala? (*Yes that is good. I hope that you get a Bursary. I like to live with someone I know because Stellenbosch it can be dangerous. You want to go*   (69)

to the place in the Neelsie to ask about places to live?). (73)

Sipho: Ewe, kodwa singaya ngomso ndinyanzelekile ukuba ndifunde? (*Yes, but can we go tomorrow, because I must study?*).

John: Kutheni ufunda nje? (*Why must you study*?).

Sipho: Ndibhala iziBalo ngokuhlwa. Kunzima kakhulu, kodwa ndiyayithanda. (*I am* (77) *writing Math tonight. It is difficult but I like it*).

John: Ndikunqwenela okuhle. Bendisenza iziBalo kunyaka odlulileyo, kodwa (79) andizithandanga. Ndiza kukubona, mhlobo, mandihambe ngoku. (*Good luck. I already did Math last year, but I did not like it. I will see you friend, I must walk/go now*). (83)

Sipho: Ndiza kunika inombolo kaMax ngomso. Ndiyathemba intamo yakho iyakuphila ngokukhawulezayo. (*I will give you Max's number tomorrow. I* (85) *hope your neck heals fast/quickly*).

John: Enkosi kakhulu. Uqala nini ukudlala umbhoxo? (*Thank you very much.* (87) *When do you start playing rugby?*)

UJohn uncuma ehamba (*John smiles and walks away*)

According the Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), various task typez can be identified from tasks. The following section looks at the identification of such types of tasks; thereafter, these various types of tasks can be analyzed according to a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). A task type classification according to Pica et al is also provided for this scenario.

4.3.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 2

Task type [1]: Greeting and asking well being.

Task type [2]: Asking, answering and sharing information and opinions about accommodation.

Task type [3]: Asking and giving information about classes, bursaries, registration and costs.

4.3.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 2

Lines 1-7 illustrate the task type [1] relating to greeting and asking well being. These types of tasks are commonly found in these types of texts (dialogues). In lines 1-11 one will also find asking and giving reasons about health/well being. This occurs quite frequent in isiXhosa conversations for reasons of culture. The complexity analysis (from lines 1-9) of the task type [1] description follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Combination of here-and-now and there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense with some sentences in the past tense. A high level of redundancy occurs and the information density is fairly low. The topic is very familiar to the learner and will occur in a lot of other tasks and contexts while learning the second language.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas are fairly easy to understand and the learners do not have to manipulate the information as presented.
The text		
The vocabulary	The interlocutors are familiar with each other. This is demonstrated in the manner which they greet each other and the informal register in which they are having the conversation. The vocabulary is fairly simple and is frequently used in this type of conversation.	
The syntax	The sentences are short and do not consist of long embedded clauses. Often these sentences will be learned as formulaic expressions.	
The text length and structure	The length and structure of the text is reasonable good in that the text is not long and is logically structured so that the	

	conversation can be easily followed.

The complexity analysis of the above task type [1] illustrates that the task type [1] can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity for the information density is very low and no complex information processing is required from the learner.

The task type [2] relating to asking, answering and sharing information about accommodation demonstrated in the segment in lines 11-32. The analysis for the task descriptions in terms of its complexity properties follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense. The topic is very familiar and can be directly related to the learner learning the content. The redundancy that occurs is that of a fairly high level. The information density is higher than in task type [1] for example, because the learners have to be able to process more complex information in order to come to an understanding of the text.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level (If one considers Lines 1-50, the processing will move towards the restructuring level)	The main ideas and thoughts are easily understood. However, the learner will have to process the information presented at a higher level for selecting, and ordering of the information is required to come to an understanding of the text, because personal account is present in the conversation. Therefore, the processing required is moving towards the restructuring level. Furthermore, the conversation is more

		transactional which contributes to the complexity of the task.
The text		
The vocabulary	The register is informal because the interlocutors are familiar peers. The vocabulary is frequently used in this type of conversation and is fairly simple.	
The syntax	The sentences are of a reasonable length varying from short and simple to being slightly longer and more complex.	
The text length and structure	The turn takings in the text are longer and more than the other scenarios, but the conversation follows a logical structure, making it easy to follow the main ideas and thoughts of the text.	

The complexity analysis of the above task type [2] description illustrates that the information processing required from the learner is more complex even though the task type [2] consists of a concrete description. The information density is higher and therefore the learner is required to process the information at hand, at a higher level. The task type [2] thus entails processing at a high descriptive level or low redundancy level. This is because the text includes personal accounts, making the learner work more with the information presented in that selecting and reorganization of the information is necessary to come to an understanding of the task. On the continuum then, this task type [2] can be placed towards the side representing more complexity.

Lines 53-65 illustrate the task type [3] relating to asking and giving information about classes, bursaries, registration and costs. The task type [3] can be analyzed in terms of its complexity properties in the same manner as task type [1] in that the information given in the various properties will not differ. Therefore the complexity analysis suggests that this task type [3] can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity, since there is no complex information processing required from the learner. The information given at each complexity parameter is fairly simple and thus demonstrates that the information processing entails a low descriptive level indicating that the task type [3] can be placed towards the simple side of the complexity continuum of Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52).

4.3.3 Task type classification for Scenario 2

Regarding the task type classification of Pica et al, scenario 2 is predominantly a jigsaw task as each of the participants (John and Sipho) hold information that needs to be requested and supplied (lines 9-52; 62-73) (Table 1:1a). Each participant is required to supply and request information in order to achieve the goal (Table 1:2a). The participants work towards a convergent goal (lines 9-11) (Table 1: 3a and 4a) since they work together in finding accommodation. The interaction is needed between the participants because the task represents a two way information flow in order to come to one goal outcome (finding accommodation).

4.4   SCENARIO 3

Karen meets her roommate, Thembi, at Harmonie for the first time. They introduce themselves to each other and talk about their subject choices, RAG (when and what will happen), the initiation (when and what will happen), etc. During their conversation they find out that they are in the same English class. They also talk about the test that they wrote and exchange views about it.

Thembi: Molo (*Hallo*)

Karen: Molo (*Hallo*)

Thembi: Unjani? Ngubani igama lakho? Ndingavuya ukwazi. NdinguThembi   (3)

(*How are you? What is your name? I can be glad if I know you. I am*

Thembi.)

Karen: Hayi, ndiphilile akukho nto imbi (*No, I am fine there is nothing bad*)

NdinguKaren, kunjani? (*I am Karen, how are you?*)   (7)

Thembi: Hayi ndisaphila. (*No I am still fine*)

Karen: Ndivuya kakhulu ukuba ndinomntu ohlala nam (*I am glad I have a*   (9)

roommate).

Thembi: Ewe, bendinqwenele ukuba ndibenomntu ohlala nam abe nobubele.

(*Yes, I wished that I would have a roommate that is friendly*)

Karen: Musa ukukhathazeka ndinobubele. (*Do not worry I am friendly*).   (13)

UKaren uyancuma (*Karen smiles*)

Thembi: Uhlala phi? (*Where do you live?*)   (15)

Karen: Ndihlala eRhawutini. Wena? (*I live in Johannesburg. And you*?)

Thembi: Ndihlala eBhayi. Uzalelwe phi? (*I live in Port Elizabeth. Where were*   (17)
            you born?)

Karen: EKapa. Uzalelwe nini? (*In Cape town. When were you born?*)

Thembi: Ngo 11th kweyoMdumba. Wena? (*On the 11th of February. And you?*)

Karen: Ngo 23rd kweyeDwarha (*On the 23rd of October*)   (21)

Thembi: Uneziphi zifundo? (*Which subjects do you have*?)

Karen: Ndikhethe iAfrikaans & Nederlands, isiNgesi, iSociology, iAncient   (23)
            Cultures, iPhilosophy neInformation Skills. Wena? (*I choose Afrikaans*
            & Nederlands, English, Sociology, Ancient Cultures Philosophy and
            Information skills. And you?)

Thembi: Ohhh, ndimangaliswe kukuva le nto, kuba ndinesiNgesi, isiXhosa,   (27)
            iPolitical Science, iSocio informatics, i-Information Skills neHistory. (*I*
            am amazed to hear this because I have English, isiXhosa, Political   (29)
            Science, Socio informatics Information Skills and History).

Karen: Ufuna ukuba yintoni ngenye imini? (*What do you want to be one day?*)   (31)

Thembi: Ndifuna ukuba yi-Politics Journalist. (*I want to be a Political Journalist*)

Karien: Ndifuna ukuba ngutitshala okanye ngumguquli, kodwa andinakugqiba (*I*   (35)
            want to be a teacher or a translator but I cannot decide)

Thembi: Ucinga ntoni ngovavanyo? (*What do you think about the test*?)

Karen: IsiNgesi? (*English*?)   (39)

Thembi: Ewe (*Yes*)

Karen: Ndiyaluthanda, kodwa ndinqwenela ndifumene amanqaku amaninzi. (*I*   (41)

          liked it, but I wish that I got a lot of marks).

Thembi: Ewe, ndibhale kakhulu xa bendikhethe umbuzo wokuqala, kodwa   (43)

          ndifumene amanqaku ama-60% kuphela. (*Yes, I wrote a lot when I*

          chose question one, but I got only 60%)

Karen: Ufumene amanqaku amangaphi ngombuzo wesibini? (*How many marks*

          did you get for question two?)   (47)

Thembi: Ndifumene amanqaku ama-75%. Ufumene amanqaku amangaphi wena?

          (*I got 75 %. How many marks did you get?*)

Karen: Ndifumene 75% kumbuzo wokuqala nombuzo wesibini. Unovuyo

          ngamanqaku wakho? (*I got 75 % for question one and question two. Are*   (51)

          you happy with your marks?)

Thembi: Ewe, kodwa ndicinga ukuba bendifanele ukufumana amanqaku   (53)

          amaninzi ngombuzo wokuqala (*Yes, but I think that I should have gotten*

          a lot of mark for question one).

Karen: Siza kubona xa sibhala uvavanyo oluzayo. (*We will see when we write*

          the next test).   (57)

Thembi: Ewe. Iqala nini iRag? (*Yes, when does Rag start*?)

Karen: Andiyazi, kodwa siza kuva entlanganisweni ngokuhlwa (*I do not know*   (59)

          we will hear at the meeting tonight)

Thembi: Eyiphi intlanganiso? (*What meeting*?)

Karen: Ngokuhlwa! Abantu baza kuchaza i-initiation neRag (*Tonight. The*

          people will discuss initiation and the Rag)   (63)

Thembi: Andikwazi ukulinda, ndijonge lukhulu kwiRag ne-initiation (*I cannot*

          wait; I am looking forward to it).

Karen: Ewe, kodwa ndiyoyika nge-initiation.. Ndiyathemba le nto ayikho mbi

(*Yes but I am scared for initiation. I hope it will not be bad*). (67)

Thembi: Ewe, kubalulekile (*Yes, It is important*).

Karen: Ewe. Mandihambe ndiye eklasini. Sobonana (*Yes. I must walk to class.*

See you).

Thembi: Hamba kakuhle (*Go well)*

The following section looks at the complexity analyses of various task type descriptions. The identification of the types of tasks is based on the work of Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) and the complexity analysis of various properties as proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). Furthermore the task type classification according to Pica et al is provided below.

4.4.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 3

Task type [1]: Greeting and asking well being.

Task type [2]: Introducing oneself and others, asking and answering general information.

Task type [3]: Asking and answering questions about subject choices.

Task type [4]: Discussing future plans and what one wants to be/ do someday.

Task type [5]: Asking and giving opinion about test results.

4.4.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 3

Lines 1-8 demonstrate the task type [1] relating to greeting and asking well being. As already mentioned this task type [1] can be found in every scenario and has already been analyzed in terms of its complexity properties in this section (see Scenario 2).

Lines 3-5; 7 and 15-21 illustrate the task type [2] of introducing oneself and others as well as asking and answering general questions that involves the introduction of oneself. These segments are analyzed in terms of the complexity properties described below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense. The type of questioning and answering is very common when one meet someone for the first time no matter which language you speak. Keeping this in mind, the type of conversation is very familiar to the learner. The level of redundancy that occurs is fairly high and the information density is very low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	It is easy to follow the main ideas and thoughts of the conversation. The conversation follows a very factual pattern.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary in this conversation is very simple and usually taught at the beginner level. The vocabulary is also very frequently used in this type of conversation. The learners will easily recognize the vocabulary in other conversations. The interlocutors of the conversation are not familiar with each other but are unfamiliar peers hence the informal register.	
The syntax	The sentences are very short. In most cases the learners will learn these sentences as formulaic expressions. The sentences do not consist of embedded clauses.	
The text length and structure	The text is very short and well structured, making the text easy to follow and gives the conversation a factual feeling.	

The task type description above is very concrete as realized by the level of abstraction. The level of information processing required from the learner is relatively simple. Furthermore, the complexity analysis above illustrates that the processing required entails the descriptive level. The descriptive level required from the leaner will be that of a very low level since the learner can learn the vocabulary and expressions above as fixed expressions. To conclude on this matter, the type of task can be expected to be placed towards the side of the complexity scale representing less complexity, as proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52-53).

The segment in lines 22 -30 illustrates the task type [3] relating to asking and answering questions about subject choices. The task type [3] description, analyzed in terms of its complexity properties follows in the same manner as in the above task type [2] analysis in that most of the information is unchanged. The analysis of task type [3] differs from that of task type [2] in the properties of level of abstraction, the linguistic context, the vocabulary and the syntax. The level of abstraction in task type [3] entails a combination of here-and-now and there-and-then resulting in the linguistic context consisting of sentences in both the past and present tense. The vocabulary property of task type [3] differs from that of task type [2] in that most of the words are loan words from English. These loan words are frequently used in this type of conversation of task type [3]. The syntax property of task type [3] also consists of sentences that do not involve long embedded clauses but do not consist of formulaic expressions as in task type [2]

The complexity analysis of task type [3] illustrates that this task type [3] description requires the learner to process information at a low descriptive level. The reason for this property is that the vocabulary consists mostly of loan words of English that are frequently used in this type of conversation. In other words the learners are not confronted with highly complex information. Thus the placing of this task type [3] will be towards the side of the continuum that represents less complexity.

The task type [4] of discussing future plans and what one wants to be/do someday is illustrated in lines 31-37 and the complexity analysis will be done at a later stage (See Scenario 10).

Task type [5] relating to asking and giving opinion about test results is illustrated in lines 38-56. The table below illustrates the complexity analysis of the type task descriptions:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now in combination with there-and-then
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense with some sentences in the past tense. The topic of the conversation is very familiar to the learner as this type of conversation can directly be translated to the content that the learner needs to learn. A high level of redundancy occurs and

	the information density is higher than the previous scenarios for personal opinions contribute to the complexity of the task.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level (moving toward the restructuring level)	The main thoughts and ideas are understood easily but the learners will have to do more with the information as presented. The learners have to analyze personal opinions. Thus the information processing is moving towards the restructuring level.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is fairly simple. The register is informal.	
The syntax	The sentences are longer than in the previous scenarios as they consist of elaboration and clauses. The sentences however are not constructed to be very complex.	
The text length and structure	The text is of a reasonable length and the overall conversation is structured in such a manner that even though there is more information than the learners will have the process, they will be able to follow the conversation easily.	

The complexity analysis of the task type [5] description above illustrates that the learners are required to process the information at a descriptive level. However, the processing moves towards the restructuring level because the learners will have to process personal opinions and therefore select relevant information to come to a better understanding of the text. The information processing thus entails a high descriptive level or low restructuring level. The reason for the low restructuring level of processing is because of the textual features. The vocabulary is simple and the syntax is fairly simple. However, the higher density information of the task type [5] forces the processing to entail processing at a high descriptive level. This task type [5] can thus be placed towards the side of the continuum representing more complexity.

4.4.3 Task type classification for Scenario 3

Scenario 3 is predominantly a jigsaw task in that each of the participants (Karen and Thembi) holds information needed to be requested and supplied in order to introduce themselves to one other (Table 1:1a). Each participant is required to supply and request information in order to achieve the goal (Table 1:2a). The participants work towards a convergent goal (Table 1: 3a and 4a) as they work together in getting to know one other (lines 1- 34). The interaction is needed between the participants because the task represents a two way information flow in order to come to one goal outcome (introducing themselves to one another). Lines 38-57 illustrate properties of an opinion-giving task based on Pica et al's typology of tasks. The participants, Karen and Thembi, both give opinions about their English test marks (Table 1: 1a). The interaction between the two participants is not required and they also do not have to work towards a convergent goal (they may disagree or agree with each other) because multiple outcomes are possible (Table 1: 2c; 3b and 4b). Lines 43-54 illustrate this since the participants, who have different results for the test, have their own opinions on how many marks they should have achieved for the test.

4.5   SCENARIO 4:

Peter and Lizo are in the same Sport Science class. They are waiting outside of the class. They have never introduced themselves to one other, but because they are the only people that are early for the class they decide to talk to one other. They also talk about the activities they like to do (sport, where they exercise, etc.). Peter missed the previous class and asks Lizo whether he may get the notes from him and Peter also suggests that they help each other with the work. In this discussion they talk about what they think of the subject.

Peter: Molo, kunjani? (*Hallo, how are you*?)   (1)

Lizo: Ewe, molo. Ndisaphila. Wena? (*Yes, hallo. I am still fine. And you*?)

Peter: Hayi ndisahleli. NdinguPeter. (*No I am healthy. I am Peter*).

Lizo: NdinguLizo. Ulinde iklasi? (*I am Lizo. Are you waiting for class?*)

Peter: Ewe, kodwa andiyazi ukuba sineklasi namhlanje (*Yes, but I do not know if*   (5)

          we have class today).

| Lizo: | Kuse kusasa. Sineklasi namhlanje (*It is still early. We have class today.*) | (7) |

| Peter: | Ndingalinda, kodwa andithandi ukufika kade (*I can wait, but I do not like to be late*). | (9) |

| Lizo: | Ewe, ndivumelana nawe, andifuni ukufika kade. Kutheni ungaqinisekanga ukuba sineklasi namhlanje? (*Yes, I agree with you, I do not want to be late. Why are you not sure if we have class today?*) | |

| Peter: | Yinto yokuba andiyanga eklasini kwiveki edlulileyo. Ndinebhabhalaza (*It is because I did not go to class last week. I had a hangover*). | (13) |

| Lizo | uhleka esithi (*laughs while saying*): Mhlobo, ndiyaqonda. Namhlanje ndinentloko!. Izolo, emva kokuba ndidlale umbhoxo abahlobo bam bandimeme ukuba siyokusela ibhiya enye… (*Friend I understand. Today I have a headache. Yesterday after I played rugby my friends invited me for one beer…*) | (17) (19) |

| Peter | *uhleka ephendula* (*laughs while replying*): Kodwa asoze ibenye, ndiyayazi lo nto. Le nto yenzeke kwiveki edlulileyo kum. Yiyo le nto ndingayanga eklasini (*But it never stays with one, I know. This happened to me last week. That is why I could not go to class*) | (21) (23) |

| Lizo: | Udlala umbhoxo? (*You play rugby*?) | |

| Peter: | Hayi, ndidlala iWater Polo. Ndidlala ngebhola esisangqa. (*No I play Water Polo. I play with a ball that is round*). | (25) |

| Lizo: | Hayi, andikwazi ukudada. Uzilolonga kakhulu xa udlala iWater Polo? (No *I can not swim. You exercise a lot in order to play Water Polo*)? | |

| Peter: | Ewe, ndizilolonga yonke imihla. Uyazilolonga wena? (*Yes I exercise every day. Do you exercise*?) | (29) |

| Lizo: | Ewe (*Yes*) | (31) |

| Peter: | Uzilolonga phi? (*Where do you exercise*?) | |

Lizo: Ndizilolonga eCoetzenburg. Wena? (*I exercise at Coertzenburg. And you?*)

Peter: Ewe, ndizilolonga apho. Maxa wambi singazilolonga ngemini enye? (*Yes I*   (35)

          exercise there. Maybe we can exercise one day?)

Lizo: Ewe, kodwa andifuni ukudada. (*Yes but I do not want to swim*)   (37)

Peter: Ndiyaqonda, kodwa ndingakubonisa ukudada, xa ufuna ukwenza le nto. (*I*

          understand but I can show you how to swim if you want to)

Lizo: Hayi ndiyawoyika kakhulu amanzi (*No I am very scared of water*)

Peter: Uyasithanda esi sifundo? (*Do you like this subject*?)   (41)

Lizo: Ewe, ndicinga ukuba esi sifundo sibalulekile xa ndifuna ukusebenza ngenye

          imini. (*Yes I think that this subject is important if I want to work one day*).   (43)

Peter: Ewe, ndivumelana nalo ngcinga (*Yes I agree with that thought*).

Lizo: Ufunda kakhulu kwesi sifundo? (*You study a lot for this subject*?)

Peter: Hayi, le nto idaliwe. Wena? (*No it comes naturally. And you?*).

Lizo: Ewe, ndiyasithanda esi sifundo. (*Yes but I like this subject*)

Peter: Ndingawafumana amaphepha eveki edlulileyo? Ungandibolekela wona? (*I*   (48)

          can get the papers/notes form last week? Will you borrow them for me?)

Lizo: Ewe, kodwa xa undinceda ukufunda ngesi sifundo? (*Yes, but if you help me*

          to study for this subject?)   (51)

Peter: Ewe! Ndiza kukunceda. (*Yes! I will help you*)

Lizo: Balapho bonke abafundi notitshala (*There are all the students and the*   (53)

          teacher)

Peter: Ewe, masingene. (*Yes let us go in*).

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), one can derive various types of tasks in one task such as the scenario above. In the following sections the various types of tasks that can be derived form the task above are listed and analyzed according to a complexity scale

proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). The task type classification according to the task typology of Pica et al also follows below.

4.5.1 Type task identification for Scenario 4

Task type [1]: Greeting and asking well being.

Task type [2]: Asking and answering about sport activities and exercise routines.

Task type [3]: Exchanging opinions about a subject.

Task type [4]: Borrowing notes.

4.5.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 4

Lines 1-4 demonstrate the task type [1] relating to greeting and asking about well being. This task type [1] description has analyzed previously in this section with regards to its complexity properties (see scenario 2).

The segment in lines 24-40 illustrates the task type [2] relating to asking and answering questions about sport activities and exercise routines. The complexity analysis of the task type [2] description can be done in the following manner:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense. The conversation resembles a familiar topic in the context of the campus. The redundancy that occurs is of a fair amount and the information density is low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas are understandable. The learner does not have to reorganize the information as presented.
The text		

The vocabulary	Frequently used vocabulary that is fairly simple occurs in this segment in lines 24-40. The learner will be able to recognize the vocabulary in other types of conversations. The participants in the conversation are not familiar with each other but the register is informal because the interlocutors are of the same age.
The syntax	The sentences are of a reasonable length and do not consist of long embedded clauses.
The text length and structure	The length of the text is reasonably good in the sense that it is not too short. The manner in which the text is structured enables the reading of the text as a fairly simple text.

The above task type [2] description is very concrete, hence the level of abstraction. The information processing that occurs is that of the descriptive level since the information density of the task is not very high. This task type [2] is of importance for the beginner learner for language development. The fact that the information processing entails a purely descriptive level suggests that one can place this task type [2] towards the side of the continuum that represents less complexity.

The task type [3] relating to exchanging opinion about a subject is illustrated in the segment in lines 41 -48, and the complexity analysis of the task type [3] description follows in the same manner as task type [2] above as all of the information in the various properties remains the same. Therefore the complexity analysis of the task type [3] description illustrates that the task type [3] description is that of a concrete nature, which is why the conversation consists of sentences in the present tense. Furthermore, the task type [3] does not require the learner to process the information at a complex level, hence the fair amount of redundancy and the low level of information density. The textual features of the task type [3] entail that the learner process at a low descriptive level and therefore the task type [3] can be placed towards the simple side of the continuum representing less complexity.

The segment in lines 49-54 illustrates the task type [4] relating to borrowing notes. The complexity of the task type [4] description can be analyzed in the same manner as the above types of tasks [2 and 3] in that most of the information in the various properties is unchanged. Task type [4] differs from task type [2 and 3] in the property of the linguistic context in that the level of redundancy changes into being low and not of a fair amount. This however does

not change the placing of the task type [4] on the complexity scale according to it complexity because the level of information processing in the task type [4] description entails that the learner process at a descriptive level. The reason for this is the level of information density in the text selected. Another element that plays a role to the processing being that of the descriptive level, (besides that the main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easily understood), is the textual features. The text is very short with very short sentences and frequently used vocabulary occurs in the text. Thus it may be suggested to place this task type [4] towards the side of the continuum which represents less complexity proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006: 52-53).

4.5.3 Task type classification for Scenario 4

Scenario 4 is illustrates features of information gap tasks and opinion exchange tasks that is present in Pica et al's typology of tasks. Lines 4-23 illustrate features of an information gap task in that one participant (Lizo) holds the information and supplies it as it is requested by the other participant (Peter). The one participant is required to request information and the other is required to supply the information in order to achieve the goal of the task (lines 11-19) (Table 1: 1b). The information exchange in this task in a two-way direction because the receiver of the information requests and adds necessary information to complete the task. The participants work toward a convergent goal in that they establish if there is a class on that day or not (Table 1: 2a). Only one outcome is possible and that is that there are in fact a class on that day (line 55) (Table 1: 3a and 4a). The interaction between the participants is necessary in order to achieve the goal of the task. Lines 41-48 illustrate properties of an opinion-giving task based on Pica et al's typology of tasks. The participants, Lizo and Peter, both give opinions about the sport that they love (Table 1: 1a). The interaction between the two participants is not required and they also do not have to work towards a convergent goal (they may disagree or agree with each other) because multiple outcomes are possible (Table 1: 2c; 3b and 4b).

4.6   SCENARIO 5:

The Professor of the Ancient Cultures class suggested that the students must study together for the test because it is a lot of work. She divided everybody into groups. The individuals in each group also have to work on an assignment that needs to be handed in later in the year.

Jessica, Zola and Xolani are in one group. They are not friends but know each other from attending the class. In their first discussion they compared their time tables with each other to work out which time suits everybody to meet. They all agree that the library is the best place to start studying and also state the reasons why they say so.

Zola: Molweni, ndinguZola (*Hallo, I am Zola*)

Jessica: NdinguJessica. Wena? (*I am Jessica. And you*?)

Xolani: NdinguXolani. Siza kuqala nini ukufunda? Kuba uvavanyo lukufuphi (*I   (3) am Xolani. When will we start studying, because the test is near*)?

Jessica: Ndiyazi. Ndisebenza kakhulu kwezinye iiklasi (*I know. I work a lot for the   (5) other classes*).

Zola: Ndicebisa ukuba sijonge iitime table kuqala. Nihlala eStellenbosch? (*I suggest we look at out time tables first. You live in Stellenbosch*?).

Jessica noXolani: Ewe (*Yes*).

Zola: Kulungile, singasebenza emva kwexesha, xa ziphelile iiklasi (*That is good, we can work after classes*).   (11)

Xolani: ImiMvulo noLwesine andinakusebenza. Ndizilolongela umbhoxo (*Mondays and Thursdays are out for me. I practice Rugby*).

Jessica: Ndingafunda yonke imihla, kodwa ndaziseni kwange thuba phambi kokuba ndenza ezinye izinto. (*I can study everyday, just let me know in   (15) time so that I do not make other plans*)

Zola: Ndibona ukuba singafunda ngoLwesibini ngo-10h00 kude kube ngu-   (17) 14h00 noLwesithathu ngo-13h00 kude kube ngu-16h00. Mhlawumbi singafunda ngalamaxesha. Emva koko singagqiba ukuba siza kubuya   (19) siyafunde nini kwakhona (*I see that we are all open on a Tuesday 10h00 till 14h00 and Wednesday 13h00 till 16h00. Maybe we can study for this*

time. Then we can decide when we will study again).

Xolani: Ndivumelana neli cebo (*I agree with the plan*).   (23)

Jessica: Siza kudibana phi? (*Where will we meet*?)

Xolani: Ndithanda ukufunda kwithala lencwadi, kuba kuthe cwaka (*I like to study*   (25)

in the library because it is very quiet*).

Zola: Kodwa, kufuneka sithethe ngalo msebenzi (*But we need to talk about the*

work)

Jessica: Ndingabhukisha igumbi kwithala lencwadi kwindawo yokuthetha.   (29)

Ndithanda ukufunda eLibrary. Ndithanda ukufunda phaya kungcono kune

ziko lokundela abafundi. (*I can book a room where we can talk. I like to*   (31)

study in the library. I like to study there it is better than the Student

Centrum).   (33)

Zola: Ewe, phaya, bonke abantu bayathetha. Bayangxola. (*Yes, there all the*

people talk. They make a noise).

Xolani: Ewe, bahamba lonke ixesha. Batya lonke ixesha, baye kutshaya lonke

ixesha (*Yes they walk the whole time. They eat the whole time, and then*   (37)

they go to smoke the whole time).

Jessica: Ewe. Sisiphazamiso. Kulungile. Ngoku, ndingabhukisha loo ndawo? (*Yes.*

It is a distraction. That is good. Now I can book that place?)

Zola
     Ewe. (*Yes*)
noXolani:

Xolani: Ndicinga ukuba kulungile (*I think it is good*).

Zola: Iphi le ndawo kwithala lencwadi? (*The place is where in the library*?)   (43)

Xolani: Ungena, uhambe ude ufike kwiramp. Yihla, apho ujike ngasekhohlo.

Hamba njalo ude ubone iigumbi langasese, apho ujike ngasekhohlo. Uza   (45)

kubona le ndawo ekunene. (*You must go in and then walk until you get the ramp. Go down, here you turn left. Walk until you see the toilets, here you turn left. You will see the place on the right hand side*).

Jessica: Ndinecebo. Ndiza kubhukisha le ndawo. Siza kudibana ngakwi gumbi langasese/ezitoilets (*I have a plan. I will book this place. We will meet at the toilets*).   (49)

Zola: Siza kwazi njani ukuba uyifumene indawo? (*How will we know that you got the place*?)   (53)

Xolani: Masithumele i-email. (*Let us send emails*).   (55)

Jessica: Ewe, nika i-adresi ye-email. Ndiza kuya eLibrary namhlanje ukubhukisha indawo yokufunda ngoLwesibini ngo-10h00 de kube ngu-14h00. Emva koko ndiza kubuya ndithumela i-email (*Yes give your email address. I will go to the Library today to book the place Tuesday at 10h00 until 14h00.After I will again send the email*).   (57) (59)

Zola: Kulungile. Nansti i-adresi ye-email (*It is good. Here is the email address*).

uZola noXolani banika ii-adresi ze-email uJessica (*Zola and Xolani give their email addresses to Jessica)*   (63)

Jessica: Enkosi kakhulu, ndiza kunibona ngoLwesibini. (*Thank you very much I will see you on Tuesday*).   (65)

Zola: Ewe, enkosi kakhulu. Ndiza kudibana nani ngakwi gumbi langasese kwithala lencwadi (*Yes, Thank you. I will meet you at the toilets in the Library*).   (69)

Xolani: Ndinethemba lokuba siza kufumana amanqaku aphezulu (*I hope that we will get high marks*).   (71)

Jessica: Salani kakuhle! (*Stay well)*

Zola
      Hamba kakuhle! (*Go well)*
noXolani:

The following sections look at the identification of various types of tasks in the scenario above as stipulated by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). Thereafter these types of tasks are analyzed according to a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) and a task type classification is given according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

4.6.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 5

Task type [1]: Organizing a study group.

Task type [2]: Comparing and exchanging opinions and ideas on the best place to study.

Task type [3]: Asking and giving directions.

4.6.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 5

Lines 7-22 illustrate the task type [1] relating to organizing a study group. The complexity analysis for the task description follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now and there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense with some sentences in the future. The topic is very familiar to the learner hence the context of campus. A fair level of redundancy occurs and the information density is considerably higher than in the previous scenarios	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Restructuring level	The conversation is very transactional in that the conversation is elaborative and the learner has to reorganize or select relevant information to come to an understanding.

The text	
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is fairly simple and frequently used in the context of the campus. The interlocutors do not know each other but because they are of the same age the register is informal.
The syntax	The sentences are considerably longer than in the other scenarios because of some elaboration and clauses added to give the sentences more body.
The text length and structure	The length of the text is fair in that it is not very long and structured in such a manner that even though sentences are longer the learner is able to follow the conversation.

The complexity analysis of the above task type [1] description illustrates that the level of abstraction is a combination of concrete and in another time or space. This in itself realizes that the task type [1] at hand may possibly not be simple, for simple tasks will have very concrete descriptions. The information density of the task type [1] is higher than other simpler tasks and thus requires the learner to select information from the text to come to a better understanding. Furthermore, the textual features especially the sentences being longer contribute to the complexity of the task. Keeping this in mind, the information processing that will occur will be that of the restructuring level. Tasks that require learners to process at this level can be placed towards the side of the continuum that represents more complexity.

The task type [2] of comparing and exchanging opinions and ideas on the best place to study is in the segment in lines 24-40. The complexity analysis follows below:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now
The linguistic context	The level of redundancy is considerably low and the information density is fairly low. The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense and is a topic commonly found in the environment of the learner learning the content.
The communicative and cognitive processing demands	

The level of processing	Descriptive level (moving towards the restructuring level)	The main thoughts and ideas are easy to follow. The giving of personal preferences and accounts make the level of processing move towards the restructuring level. If one considers this task to be processed at the restructuring level it will entail a very low level for the learner does not have to do a lot of reorganizing of the information presented.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is fairly basic and frequently used in this context. The register is informal.	
The syntax	The sentences consist of clauses that are fairly simple. The sentences do have elaboration hence the giving of personal preference and accounts. This gives the sentences more body.	
The text length and structure	The length of the text is not long. The text is structured well for this kind of conversation so that the information and task does not become too complex.	

Concluding on the complexity analysis of the task type [2] above, it is clear that the task type [2] description is concrete because the learners are exposed to personal accounts and opinions. One can argue that reorganizing of the information occurs in order for the learners to come to a better understanding of the content. Secondly, the learners will have to reorganize the information when the intention is to use the information of the content segment outside of the classroom. The information processing involves processing at the restructuring level. The information is understandable as presented, therefore it can be concluded that the level of processing will rather entail that of a high descriptive level. No matter which argument is preferred, the placing will be towards the side of the continuum that represents more complexity.

The task type [3] of asking and giving directions in lines 43-49 has previously been analyzed in this section and will thus not be analyzed again (see scenario 1).

4.6.3 Task type classification for Scenario 5

Scenario 5 is predominantly a jigsaw task as each of the participants (Zola, Jessica and Xolani) hold information to be requested and supplied in order to organize a study group (Table 1:1a). Each participant is required to supply and request information in order to achieve the goal of the task (lines 12-22) (Table 1:2a). The participants work towards a convergent goal (Table 1: 3a and 4a). The goal is to organize a study group, the times that they are available and where they should meet (lines 7-64). The interaction is needed between the participants because the task represents a two way information flow in order to come to one goal outcome (organizing a study group). Lines 24-42 illustrate features of an opinion exchange task and a decision making task since the participants give individual opinions about a suitable study place on campus. These opinions are given in order to make a decision on where they should meet for the study group, therefore only one outcome is still desirable (Table 1: 3a and 4a). The fact that the learners give their opinions and should make a decision does not influence the overall goal of the task, because only one outcome is available and that is that they should organize a study group. The learners may, however, disagree with each other and negotiate meanings during the interaction so as to come to a convergent goal.

4.7   SCENARIO 6:

Marius and Ncumile are in a lift club together. They drive in to the University every day. They meet each other at the Neelsie before they walk to Marius's car. When they arrive at the student parking location, they cannot find the car. First they look for the car and then consider their options on what they should do. They phone the Stellenbosch University Protection Services (USPS). MThetho works for the USPS and gives them advice on what to do (the car is stolen; he takes their personal details and advises them to go to the police to report the crime and also phone somebody to come and pick them up).

Marius   Molo Ncumile! Injani imini yakho (*Hallo, Ncumile. How was your*   (1)

                day)?

Ncumile Molo, Marius. Hayi ndibe imini emnandi kakhulu Wena (*Hallo, Marius. I had a nice day. And you*)?

Marius Hayi akho nto imbi. Namhlanje utitshala ugqiba ukuba singagoduka phambi kwexesha (*No there is not a thing wrong/bad. Today the teacher decided that we can go home earlier*) (5)

Ncumile Kumnandi. Hayi, ndicela uxolo ukuba ndifika emva kwexesha kuba bendisela amanzi. Kwitoilet/Kwindlu yangasese ndafumana umhlobo wam. Uthetha kakhulu (*That is nice. No, I am sorry that I am late I went to drink water. At the toilets I got a friend of mine. She talks a lot*)! (7)

Marius Musa ukukhathazeka. Ndenze umsebenzi wasekhaya. Ndenze i-assignment yeveki ezayo (*Don't worry. I did homework. I did an assignment for next week*). (11)

Ncumile Ndinethamsanqa andenzi ii-assignment kodwa ndibhala iimviwo ezininzi. (*I am lucky I do not do assignments but I write a lot of tests*) (15)

Marius Masihambe siye emotweni yam. Uphelile? Singahamba (*Let us walk to my car. You are finished? Can we go*)?

Ncumile Ewe, masihambe. Xa ndifika ekhaya kufuneka ndenze ukutya kuba utata nomama basebenza ngokuhlwa namhlanje. Ubhuti wam akakwazi ukwenza ukutya (*Yes, let us go. When I arrive at home I have to make food because my mother and father work late tonight. My brother can not make food*). (21)

Marius Le nto ivakala kamnandi. Uyathanda ukwenza ukutya (*It sounds nice. Do you like to make food*)?

Ncumile Ewe, ndiyaphumla xa ndenza ukutya (*Yes, I can relax when I make food*)

UMarius uyema. Baqala ukuhamba besiya emotweni (*Marius stands up. They start to* (25)

walk to the car).

Marius   Uza kwenza oluphi uhlobo lokutya (*Which type of food will you make*)?

Ncumile   Andiyazi, mhlawumbi ndiza kwenza i-spagetti okanye inkuku nemifuno

(*I do not know, maybe I will make spaghetti or chicken and vegetables*)?   (29)

Marius   Hayi musa ukwenza inkuku nemifuno! Yenza ispagetti. Hmmmm (*No

do not make chicken and vegetables! Make spaghetti!   (31)

Ncumile   Kodwa, imifuno inempilo. Iitapile, iiertyisi neminqatha (*But vegetables

are healthy. Potatoes, peas and carrots)   (33)

Marius   Hayi andithandi iiertyisi neminqatha! Awu!!!! Iphi imoto yam (*No I do

not like peas and carrots……! Where is my car?)   (35)

UMarius noNcumile balaqaza banobudididi ebusweni babo (*Marius and Ncumile look

around with panic in their faces*)

Ncumile   Kodwa, ubupake imoto apha kusasa (*But you did park here this

morning)?

Marius   Ewe, ndiqinisekile! Kodwa mhlawumbi... (*Yes I am sure! But maybe…*) (39)

Ncumile   Kwelaa cala lekona (*around the corner*)?

UNcumile uhamba kumacala endawo yokumisa iimoto abuye ahambe aye kuMarius

(*Ncumile walks to the other side of the parking lot and walks back*)

Ncumile   Hayi, andiyibonanga imoto yakho.... (*No I do not see your car)*   (43)

Marius   Mandizame i-alarm button (*Let me try the alarm button*)

UMarius ucofa i-alarm button, kodwa abava nto! (*Marius presses the button but

nothing happens*)

Ncumile   Masifone iUSPS. Bangasinceda (*Let us phone the USPS. They can help* (47)

us)

Marius   Unenombolo? Kuba andinanombolo (*Do you have the number? Because

I do not have the number)

| Ncumile | Ewe (*Yes*) | (51) |

UNcumile ujonga inombolo efoneni yakhe (*Ncumile looks for the number on her phone*)

| Ncumile | Une-airtime? (*Do you have airtime?*) | (53) |

| Marius | Ewe, ndiza kufona (*Yes I will phone*) | |

| Ncumile | 021 808 2330 | (55) |

UMarius ucofa inombolo (*Marius dials the number*)

| Marius | Molo, Tata (*Hallo, father*) | |

| Justice | Molo, bhuti. Ndingakunceda njani? (*Hallo, brother. How can I help you?*) | |

Marius	Imoto yam ilahlekile! Ibiwe. Ndim nomhlobo wam asiyifumani imoto.	(59)
	Sijonge iindawo ezininzi (*My car is lost. It is stolen. My friend and I, we*	
	can not find the car. We have looked everywhere)	(61)

| Justice | Ubukhe wazama i-alarm button (*Have you tried to press your alarm* | |
| | *button*)? | (63) |

| Marius | Ewe, kodwa.... (*Yes but...*) | |

| Justice | Niphi (*Where are you*)? | |

| Marius | eStudent parking ecaleni kweNeelsie (*We are at the student parking* | |
| | *across the Neelsie*) | (67) |

| Justice | Linda apho. Ndiza kunifumana apho (*Wait there I will find you there*) | |

| Marius | Enkosi kakhulu, Tata (*Thank you very much Father*) | (69) |

| Justice | Ewe (*Yes*) | |

Emva kwe-5min uJustice uyafike (*After 5min Justice arrives*) (71)

| Justice | Marius? | |

| Marius | Ewe (*Yes*) | |

Justice	Mandifumane iinkcukacha zakho nomhlobo wakho kuba jonga apha	
	kukho iglasi efestile eyaaphukileyo ukho umntu oyibileyo imoto yakho.	(75)
	Kukho umntu eningamfonelayo ukuzonithatha (*I must get all your*	
	details and your friend's details; because look here is broken glass	
	somebody did steal your car. Do you have somebody to phone to come	
	and pick you up?)	(79)
Marius	Ewe. Utata wam (*Yes, my father*)	

UMarius noNcumile banika iinkcukacha zakhe kuJustice (*Marius and Ncumile give* (81) *their personal details to Justice*)

UMarius	Enkosi kakhulu Tata (*Thank you very much Father*)	(83)
Justice	Wamkelekile, ungandibiza Mthetho. Igama lam lesiXhosa. Mandenze	
	zonke izinto, ndiza kufona xa ndifumana imoto yakho. Khumbula ukuba	(85)
	uye emapoliseni uyokuchaza ukuba imoto yakho ibiwe (*You are*	
	welcome you can call me MThetho. It is my Xhosa name. Let me handle	(87)
	everything and I will let you know if I find your car. Remember that you	
	should go to the police station and report your car stolen)	(89)
Marius	Enkosi Kahulu MThetho! (*Thank you very much Justice/MThetho*)	

UMarius ufonela utata wakhe, batsho bamlinda ukuba aze kubathatha abagoduse (91) (*Marius phones his dad and then they wait for his father to take them home*).

Van Avermaet and Gysen state that one can identity and derive various types of tasks from one task such as above. The following sections entail the identification of such task types. These task types are analysed according to a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). Then the task type classification is provided according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

4.7.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 6

Task type [1]: Greeting and asking well being.

Task type [2]: Giving reason for being late for a meeting with a friend.

Task type [3]: Suggesting to phone and enquiring a telephone number.

Task type [4]: Reporting a car stolen.

4.7.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 6

The segment in lines 1-4 and 57- 58 illustrate the task type [1] relating to greeting and asking well being. This type of task type [1] has been analyzed previously in this section and will thus not be analyzed here (see scenario 2).

Lines 7-10 illustrate the task type [2] relating to giving a reason for being late for a meeting with a friend. The complexity analysis of the task type [2] according to its various complexity properties follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense. This type of conversation is a very familiar one to the learner. A low level of redundancy occurs and the information density is very low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The learner can understand the main thoughts and ideas of the conversation and there is not need to compare or reorganize the information presented.
The text		
The vocabulary	Frequently used vocabulary occurs in this type of conversation and is fairly simple or basic. The interlocutors are familiar peers and thus the register is informal.	
The syntax	The sentences are of a reasonable length. The sentences give	

	some elaboration but they are not very complex. Some learners may learn these sentences as formulaic expressions.
The text length and structure	The length of the text is fairly short and structured in such a manner that the learner can follow the conversation easily.

The complexity analysis above shows that this task type [2] description can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006), as the information density of the task type [2] is very low and does not require the learner to process at a complex level. The possibility that the learners may learn some of the sentences as formulaic expressions suggests that the textual features are not too complex and contributes to the complexity level of the task type [2].

The task type [3] relating to suggesting to phone and enquiring about a telephone number is illustrated in lines 47-52 and 55. This segment is analyzed in terms of the complexity properties described in task type [2] above. The information at each of the properties in task type [3] reveals mostly the same information as in task type [2]. The analysis of task type [3] differs from that of task type [2] in the properties of the linguistic context and textual features. The level of redundancy in the property of linguistic context is no longer low but fair. In other words, more redundancy occurs in this task type [3]. The syntax property differs as the sentences in task type [3] are shorter than in task type [2], but at both types of tasks [2 and 3] the sentences do not consist of long embedded clauses. Therefore the properties described in the complexity analysis of task type [3] indicate that this task type [3] is very concrete regarding its level of abstraction. The fact that a considerable amount of redundancy occurs and the information density is low suggests that the processing of the information by the learner is not at a very complex level. Furthermore, the fact that the text is very short, along with the other textual features like the frequently used vocabulary and the fairly simple sentences, contribute to the task type [3] description being placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

The segments in lines 59-64; 75-79 and 87- 89 expresses the task type [4] relating to reporting a car stolen and giving evidence to support the report. The complexity of this task description can be analyzed in the following way:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Combination of here-and-now and there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation contains mostly sentences in the preset tense with some sentences in the past tense. This topic is familiar to the learner. A relatively low level of redundancy occurs but the information density is of a reasonable level.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level (moving towards the restructuring level)	The learner can understand the information as presented. The processing required moves towards the restructuring level because when giving the evidence for the car being stolen the learner has to select/organize certain information. Some instructions which occur will require the learner to process at the restructuring level.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is reasonably simple with some longer and more complex words when giving evidence for the car being stolen. However fairly frequently used vocabulary occurs in this type of conversation. The register is informal between the interlocutors even though they do not know each other.	
The syntax	The sentences are fairly short and do not consist of too many long embedded clauses. This contributes to the understanding of the text.	
The text length and structure	The length and structure contribute to the understanding of the text. The text is structured well and the length of the text is fairly short.	

The complexity analysis of the task type [4] description above illustrates that the learner will do processing at the descriptive level at some stage of the task. The segments that require

processing at the descriptive level are illustrated in lines 59-64 and 87-89. At another stage of the task the learner will have to do processing at the restructuring level. Lines 75-79 and the instructions given in lines 87-89 demonstrate the stage that entails processing at the restructuring level. The level of redundancy and information density supports this statement. Thus one can argue that this task type [4] as a whole entails processing at a high descriptive level or low restructuring level. This is because the learner will be able to understand the main ideas of the conversation, though some selecting and reorganizing of certain information is required at some stage of the task type [4] as explained previously. Therefore, the task type [4] can be placed towards the side representing more complexity as proposed by Duran and Ramaut's (2006) complexity scale.

4.7.3 Task type classification for Scenario 6

Scenario 6 is predominantly a problem solving task according to the task typology of Pica et al since the participants (Marius and Ncumile) work towards a convergent goal (lines 35-52) (Table 1: 3a and 4a). This convergent goal is to solve the problem of a stolen car. Both the participants hold information that could be supplied if the information is requested in order to achieve the goal of the task (Table 1: 1c) (lines 71-89). Ncumile is not required to supply information in this section. This section relates to an information exchange task, in that one participant, Marius, holds the information and supplies it if it is required by the other participant, Justice, who in turn also adds information to the interaction. The interaction flow is in a two way direction because all the information held by each participant needs to be exchanged in order to achieve the goal of the task. The participants may supply information but is not necessarily required to do so (lines 71-89) (Table 1: 2c). The interaction between the two participants is not required, but they have to work together to achieve one convergent outcome of the task. This means that the information exchange is in a two way direction.

4.8 SCENARIO 7:

Christo, Marlene and UNontombi are at the Wimpy. They enjoy it very much to get away from all the people during lunch time and to have a proper lunch at Wimpy once a week. They meet each other there and catch up on things that happened during the week. In this type of conversation they usually gossip, talk about tests and other general information (Marlene wanted to go away for the weekend but has an assignment to do, UNontombi's boyfriend

ended their relationship, etc). During their conversations they also order food from the waitress.

UChristo: Molweni bosisi (*Hallo sisters*)

UMarlene
Nontombi: Molo (*Hallo*)

UChristo: Ninjani namhlanje? (*How are you*?)   (3)

UMarlene: Hayi ndisahleli, kodwa ndinomsindo kakhulu. Ndine50% kwiMaths (*I
            am still living but I am very angry. I have 50% for Maths*!)

UNontombi   Kulungile! Ndine40%. Kufuneka ndiphinde ndibhale uvavanyo (*It is
            good! I have 40% I must write the test again*)!

UMarlene: Andifuni ukukhetha esi sifundo kulo nyaka uzayo (*I do not want to
            choose this subject next year*)!

UNontombi: Mhlobo ndivumelana nawe (*Friend I agree with you*)!

Ixeshana lenzolo (*A moment of silence*)   (11)

UChristo: Nontombi andifuni ukuhleba, kodwa ndibone uSivuyile izolo. Uthe
            anisekho kunye. Kwenzeka ntoni (*Nontombi I do not want to gossip,*   (13)
            but I saw Sivuyile yesterday. He said you are not a couple. What
            happened?)   (15)

UNontombi   Yinstomi ende! (*It is a long story*)

UMarlene: uSivuyile wenze impazamo enkulu! (*Sivuyile made a big mistake*)

UChristo: Kutheni? Ungandixelela. Andizi ukumxelela uSivuyile. (*Why? You can
            tell me. I will not tell Sivuyile*)

UNontombi   Kutheni ungabuzi uSivuyile (*Why do you not ask Sivuyile*)?

UChristo: Akafuni ukundixelela into eyenzekayo (*He does not want to tell what*   (21)
            happened?)

UMarlene: Yinto yokuba uyayazi ukuba uphazamile (*It is because he knows that he*

is wrong/made a mistake)

UNontombi   Andifuni ukuthetha ngale nto, kuba andiyazi kwenzeka ntoni. Kodwa   (25)

ndiyazi ukuba unenye intombi! (*I do not want to tell this thing because*

I do not know what happened. But I know he has another girlfriend!)   (27)

UChristo: Awu! Ndinosizi ukuva le nto… Andiyazanga le nto (*I am sorry to hear*

this thing... I did not know this thing).

Umkhonzikazi ufika abuze bafuna ukutya ntoni (*The waitress appears and asks them what*

they would like to eat)

UChristo: Ndifuna iHamburger enkulu netships kuba ndilambile kakhulu! (*I want*   (33)

a big Hamburger and chips because I am very hungry!)

iWaitress: Ndicebisa ukuba ukhethe i-Bacon and Avocado Burger. Imnandi

kakhulu! (*I advise that you choose the Bacon and Avocado Burger. It is*

very nice!)   (37)

UChristo: Ewe, ndiza kuthatha loo hamburger. Nina? (*Yes I will take that burger.*

And you?)

UMarlene: Mhlawumbi masabelane ngepleyiti yetships (*Maybe we must share a*

plate of chips?)   (41)

UNontombi   Hayi andinandoda. Ndingakutya ukutya okuninzi. Kuba akukho mntu

ekumele ndibukeke mhle kuye (*No I do not have a boyfriend. I can eat*   (43)

a lot of food. Because there is no one that I must look good for).

UNontombi uyancuma (*UNontombi smiles*)

UChristo: Musa ukukhatazeka uza kuba mhle nokuba utyebile (*Do not worry you*

will still be beautiful even if you are fat)

UMarlene: Hayi, andifuni ukuba ndityebe. Ndiza ku-oda ipleyiti encinci yetships.

Ndicela undiphathele namanzi (*No I do not want to be fat. I will order a*   (49)

small plate of chips. Please bring water as well)

UChristo: Ndifuna iCoke (*I want Coke*)

UNontombi Ndifuna isonka nechickenmayo netships. Ndicinga ukuba ndiza kusela iMilkshake (*I want a chicken and mayo sandwich and chips. I think that* (53) *I will drink a Milkshake*)

i-Waitress: Ufuna oluphi uhlobo lweMilkshake (*You want what type of milkshake*?) (55)

UNontombi Hmmm, iBubblegum

i-Waitress: Enkosi kakhulu. Ndiza kuqala ndizise iziselo (*Thank you very much. I will bring the drinks first*). (59)

UMarlene: Wenza ntoni ngempela-veki (*You are doing what this weekend*)?

UNontombi Ndifunda yonke impela-veki. Christo akubhali iimviwo? (*I must study the whole weekend. Christo you are not writing tests?*)

uChristo: Hayi, ndiyasebenza, kodwa ndiza kubhala uvavanyo kule nyanga izayo (63) kuphela (*No I work but I will write a test next month only*)

UMarlene: Bendifuna ndikhe ndiphume kule mpela-veki, kodwa ndilibele ukuba (65) ndine-assignment engena ngoMvulo (*I wanted to go away for the weekend but I forgot I have an assignment to give in on Monday*). (67)

Umkhonzikazi uzisa iziselo (*The waitress brings the drinks*)

UChristo uthi kumkhonzikazi/kwiWaitress (*Christo says to the waitress*): Mama, (69) khawulezisa ngokutya kuba ndilambile kakhulu.(*Mother please hurry with the food because I am very hungry*)

i-Waitress: Ewe, bhuti (*Yes brother/boy*)

UChristo: Enkosi kakhulu, mama. (*Thank you very much Mother*)

Emva kwexeshana umkhonzikazi uzisa ukutya (*After a while the waitress brings the food*) (75)

UMarlene: Hayi ndidanile kuba ndingakhethanga iHamburger ngoku. Khangela ukutya kwam kuphelile! Ngoku ndijonge ukuba nitya njani (*No, I am*

disappointed that I did not take a Hamburger now. Look my food is

finished! Now I have to look how you eat!)   (79)

UNontombi   Ndikuxelele (*I told you*)...

UChristo: Le nto yenzeka xa uzikhathaza kakhulu ukuba ubonakala kanjani! (*This*

is what happens if you worry too much on how you look!)

Bathetha besitya ukutya (*They talk while they finish they food*)

UChristo: Enkosi kakhulu, mantombazana. Ndihambe ngoku (*Thank you very*

much girls. I must walk now)   (85)

UMarlene: Ewe, Sobonana Christo (*Yes see you Christo*)

UNontombi   Hamba kakuhle! (*Go well*)   (87)

The following section outlines the identification of various types of tasks according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). These types of tasks are then analysed according to various complexity properties of Duran and Ramaut's complexity scale. The task typology of Pica et al is also applied to the above Scenario in order to give an appropriate task type classification

4.8.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 7

Task type [1]: Greeting and asking well being.

Task type [2]: Stating and commenting on marks for a test.

Task type [3]: Ordering a meal.

Task type [4]: Discussing weekend plans.

4.8.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 7

The task type [1] relating to greeting and asking well being in lines 1-4 has been analyzed regarding its complexity previously in this section and will thus not be analyzed again (see scenario 2).

The task type [2] relating to stating and commenting on marks for a test is illustrated in lines 4-7. The complexity analysis of the task type [2] description follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense. The topic is very familiar to the learner in the context of campus. A high level of redundancy occurs and the information density is low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas are easy to understand and the learner is not required to do a lot with the information presented in regards to processing
The text		
The vocabulary	The words in the text are short and fairly simple. The vocabulary is frequently used in this type of conversation. The interlocutors are familiar with each other and thus the conversation is informal.	
The syntax	The sentences are very short and simple with no long embedded clauses.	
The text length and structure	The length of the text is very short and it is structured well so that the main ideas can be followed and understood easily.	

The complexity analysis of the task type [2] description above illustrates that the level of abstraction is very concrete. The textual features of the task type [2] do not contribute in making the task very complex. The fact that a high level of redundancy occurs and that the information density is low ensures that one can place this task type [2] towards the side that represents less complexity, for the task type [2] does not require the learner to process information at a complex level. The information processing will entail a low descriptive level.

Lines 30-40 and 48-59 are segments that illustrate the task type [3] relating to ordering a meal. The task type [3] description can be analyzed in terms of the complexity properties in the same manner as the above task type [2] in that most of the information at each property

remains the same. The analysis of task type [3] differs from that of task type [2] in the properties of the linguistic context and the property of textual features. The level of redundancy in the linguistic context property differs from task type [2] in that the level is no longer high but fair. This means that less redundancy occurs in task type [3]. In the textual features property, the vocabulary and syntax in task type [3] differs from task type [2] as the vocabulary consists of more loan words, making the content easier. Furthermore, the register changes to be more formal because of unfamiliar peers talking to an unfamiliar adult. The syntax in task type [3] entails longer sentences because they consist of some clauses and some elaboration. These clause and elaborations are however fairly simple.

The complexity analysis of the task type [3] description above illustrates that the task type [3] is concrete regarding its level of abstraction. The complexity analysis of this task type [3] expresses that the information processing and textual features require the learners to process information purely at a descriptive level. The task type [3] can thus be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity, as proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006).

The task type [4] relating to discussing weekend plans is illustrated in the segments in lines 60-61 and 65-67. The complexity of this task type [4] description can be analyzed in the same manner as the previous two types of tasks [2and3]. Most of the information at each property remains that same as in the above two types of tasks [2and3]. Some of the information regarding task type [4] differs however at some of the properties. The level of abstraction in task type [4] entail a combination of here-and-now and there-and-then resulting tin the linguistic context consisting of sentences in the past and present tense. Furthermore the level of redundancy also differs in that in task type [4] it is low whereas in types of tasks [2and3] the level of redundancy is high [2] and fair [3]. Lastly, in the property of textual features, the syntax of task type [4] differs from task type [3] since the sentences are short, consisting of no long complex embedded clauses.

The level of redundancy and information density in the complexity analysis above illustrates that the task type [4] does not require the learners to process the information as presented at a very complex level. Furthermore, the textual features contribute to the fact that the processing required from the learner will be that of the descriptive level. Thus on the continuum, the task type [4] description above can be placed towards the side representing less complexity. Keep in mind that this task type [4] can become more complex at more advanced levels of

proficiency when the learners are required to process personal accounts or give personal accounts.

4.8.3 Task type classification for Scenario 7

Scenario 7 is predominantly an information gap task regarding the classifications of tasks of Pica et al. This information gap task differs from the information gap tasks in the other scenarios (Scenarios 1 and 4) as all the participants (Christo, UNontombi, Marlene and the waitress) hold information of their own and supply it to the other participants as they require it (lines 12-30; 33-59; 60-67) (Table 1:1b). One participant (Christo, UNontombi, Marlene and the waitress, at different stages of the conversation) is required to respond or request information held by the supplier (Christo, Unontombi, Marlene and the waitress at different stages of the conversation) of the information, who is then required to supply the necessary information (lines 12-30; 33-59; 60-67) (Table 1:2b). All the participants of the task are working towards convergent goals since they share information in order to catch up on what has happened during the week (lines 12-30), to order a meal (lines 33-59), and to ask what each of them will do the upcoming weekend (lines 60-67) (Table 1: 3a). An information gap task can have only one acceptable answer (Table 1:4a). This information gap has one acceptable answer, but this acceptable answer differs with each participant (example in lines 60-67). The information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange as the receiver (Christo, UNontombi, Marlene and the waitress at different stages of the conversation) of the information requests and adds information that is necessary in order to achieve the goal of the task.

4.9 SCENARIO 8:

Nikki, Natalie and Nomonde are in a residence together. They have to come up with ideas for the residence dance. They were chosen by the other students in the residence to be the representatives. They talk about costs, themes, venues, etc. During their discussion they also come up with ideas how to get enough money for everything because the dance will be very expensive.

UNikki: Molweni! Ndicela uxolo ukuba ndifike kade. Bendisela amanzi emva

                koko ndibone uClaudine epasejini sithethe ngale ntombi igulayo....

| | *(Hey, sorry I am late. I went to drink water and then I saw Claudine in the hallway, we talked about that girl who is sick)* | (3) |

UNatalie: Sicinge ukuba ulahlekile! Sisemva ngexesha, masiqaleni ukuceba (5)
(We thought that you were lost! It is already late, we must start planning) (7)

UNomonde: Hayi, musa ukukhatazeka. Sinexesha elininzi (*No, do not worry. We are with a lot of time*).

UNikki: Unawo namacebo? (*You have plans?*)

UNatalie: Ewe, okokuqala ndicinge ukuba singahombisa iholo njengetempile onke amnatombazana anganxiba iimpahla njengamaArabhu okanye amaGrike, kodwa onke amantombazana akazuku yithanda le nto (13)
(*Yes, first I thought that we can decorate the hall like a temple, all the girls can wear clothes like Arabs or the Greeks, but all the girls will not like this thing*)

UNomonde: Hayi, singasebenzisa eli cebo, kodwa singalitshintsha kancinci. (17)
Singathetha ngeli cebo entlanganisweni (*No we can use this plan, but we can change it a little bit. We can talk about this plan at the meeting*).

UNikki: Kodwa iza kuba nexabiso eliphezulu. Siza kuyifumana njani imali yokwenza zonke ezi zinto (*But it will be very expensive. How will we get money to do all this?*) (23)

UNatalie: Singabuza iRes ukuba isinike imali, sifune kuphela imali yokungena ebantwini (*We can ask the Res to give us money and we can ask (25) entrance money*)

UNomonde: Ewe, kodwa le mali iza kuba ininzi? (*Yes, but will this money be a lot?*)

UNatalie:	Ndiqinisekile. Singabuza (*I am sure. We can ask*)	(29)
UNomonde:	Ewe, kodwa xa le mali incinci singagqiba ukuthengisa imiveliso. Onke amantombazana aza kuthengisa ezi zinto (*Yes, but if this money is little we can decide to sell products. All the girls can sell these things*).	(33)
UNikki:	Ewe eli cebo lilungile. Ndithanda imixholo. Kodwa siza kudanisa phi? (*Yes this plan is good. I like the theme. But where will we do this dance?*)	
UNatalie:	Ndicinga iholo ledolophu. Inkulu (*I think the city hall. It is big*).	
UNomonde:	Ewe okanye singasebenzisa iSanlam Sentrum eNeelsie (*Yes or we can use the Sanlam Sentrum in the Neelsie*)	
UNikki:	Sibhatale ukusebenzisa ezi ndawo (*Must we pay to use these places*?)	
UNomonde:	Ndiza kuqiniseka ngomso. Siza kuyithenga phi imihombiso (*I will make sure tomorrow. Where will we buy the decorations?*)	(41) (43)
UNatalie:	Singenza eminye imihonbiso. Thina namanye amantombazana (*We can make some of the decorations. Us with the girls*)	(45)
UNomonde:	Ndicinga singaxoxa ezi zinto mva. Ngoku masicinge ngendawo yokudanisa, imixholo namaxabiso (*I think we can discuss these things at a later time. Now let us think of a venue, themes and costs*)	
UNatalie:	Ewe, Nomonde uza kubuza ixabiso kwindawo yokudanisa (*Yes, Nomonde you will ask the price of the venue*)	(51)
UNikki:	Ndiza kubuza yimalini esiza kuyifumana kwi residence Emva koko siza kuyazi yimalini esingayibiza yamangeno (*I will ask how much money we will get from the residence. There after we will know how much money we can ask for entrance*)	(55)

UNatalie: Ewe, ndiza kubuza ukuba singayithenga phi imihombiso etshiphu

                     (*Yes, I will ask where we can buy decorations that is cheap*)

UNomonde: Masidibaneni ngomso (*Let us meet again tomorrow*)

UNikki: Cinga ngezinto esingazithengisa ukuze sifumana imali, kuba

                     kufuneka ukuba sifumane imal eninzi (*Think of things that we can*

                     sell to get money, because it is necessary that we get a lot of money)   (61)

UNatalie: Emva koko singaqala ukuceba zonke izinto (*After that we can start to*

                     plan everything)

UNikki: Ndiyavuya kakhulu (*I am very excited*)   (65)

UNomonde: Ndinovuyo, kuba sinexesha elininzi lokucwangcisa (*I am glad we*

                     have a lot of time to plan)

UNatalie: Ndinobuphakuphaku (*I am nervous*)

UNomonde: Mamela mandihambe ngoku ndineklasi (*Listen, I must walk now I*   (69)

                     have a class)

UNikki: Ewe hamba kakuhle (*Yes, go well*)   (71)

UNomonde: Salani kakuhle (*Stay well*)

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) one can identify various types of tasks from one task. The following sections entail the identification of such task types from the scenario above. The task types are then analysed according to various complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) on a complexity scale. Thereafter a suitable task type classification is given to Scenario 8 according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

4.9.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 8

Task type [1]: Giving a reason for being late for a meeting with friends.

Task type [2]: Organizing a venue for a dance.

Task type [3]: Asking about money availability for a dance.

4.9.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 8

The task type [1] relating to giving a reason for being late for a meeting with friends in lines 1-4 has already been analyzed in terms of the complexity properties and therefore will not be analyzed here (see scenario 6).

The task type [2] relating to organizing a venue for a dance is illustrated in the segments in lines 35-40 and 50-51. The complexity analysis of the task type [2] description follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Combination of here-and-now and there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense and some sentences in the future tense. The topic is very familiar to the learner. A relatively low level of redundancy occurs but the information density is quite low giving a good balance for the complexity.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main ideas and thoughts are easily understood. The learner is able to follow the conversation without having to compare or reorganize the information presented.
The text		
The vocabulary	The interlocutors in this conversation know each other thus the conversation is informal. The vocabulary used in the conversation is fairly simple. It includes some loan words which makes the understanding of the text easier.	
The syntax	The sentences are relatively short with no long embedded clauses.	
The text length and structure	The length of the text is fairly short and is structured well.	

The complexity analysis above illustrates that the task type [2] can be placed towards the side representing less complexity on the complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). The reasons for this placing are because the information processing required from the learner is at the descriptive level and the information density is very low. The textual features also contribute to the level of processing and complexity of the task.

The segments in lines 22-29 and 52-55 illustrate the task type [3] relating to asking and answering questions about the availability of money for a dance. The complexity analysis of this task type [3] description follows in the same manner as the analysis of task type [2] above since most of the information in the various complexity properties illustrate the same information in the complexity properties of task type [2]. Task type [3] differs in its complexity analysis in the properties of the linguistic context and the textual features. In this regard, the level of redundancy differs from task type [2] as the level of redundancy that occurs in task type [3] is high and not low as in task type [2]. In the textual feature of syntax, a change occurs as the sentences are fairly longer than in task type [2] due to some elaborations. However, these elaborations are fairly simple and do not have an influence on the complexity level of the task type [3]. The complexity analysis of the task type [3] thus illustrates that the task type [3] can be placed towards the side of the continuum that represents less complexity. This is because the task type [3] does not require the learner to process at a complex level. The level of redundancy and information density expresses that the processing that will occur is that of the descriptive level. This means that the main thoughts and ideas will be understood easily without a lot of explicit instruction from the teacher. Learners may complete the task type [3] by producing a solution in the same structure as in which the information in the task is presented.

4.9.3 Task type classification for Scenario 8

According to the typology of tasks of Pica et al, scenario 8 is predominantly a decision making task and includes features of an opinion exchange task. The task qualifies as a decision making task since all the participants (Nikki, Natalie and Nomonde) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task (Table 1: 1c). They all have resources and information available to them in order to organize the residence dance. The information exchange flow is in a two way direction for even though the interaction is not required (Table 1: 2c), all the participants work towards a single outcome (Table 1:3a), and there are several

outcomes available (Table 1:4b). One outcome is available as they have to organize a successful residence dance, but they may decide on several options available in regarding how they will raise enough money and money available to them (lines 21-33; 52-55; 59-62), where they the dance will be held (lines 34-39; 50-51) and what the decorations will include (lines 42-46; 56-57). During this decision making, the participants are also giving and sharing opinions and ideas regarding the decorations, costs and venue (lines 21-62) – therefore the task has characteristics of an opinion exchange task. Here, the interaction is also not required and more than one outcome is available because the participants do not have to agree with each other (Table 1: 2c and 4b). The participants still work towards reaching a convergent goal (Table 1: 3a), and that is to organize a residence dance.

4.10   SCENARIO 9:

Tessa lost her student card in the Computer Centre. She and her fellow classmate, Phumla, are on their way to the museum to take photos for an assignment they have to do when Tessa discovers that her card is lost. Together they walk back to the Computer Centre to find the missing card. They ask the assistant about the card. Luckily the card is not missing. On their way back to the museum they talk about getting discount at several places and that is why they want to stay students forever.

UTessa: Phumla, kushushu kakhulu namhlanje (*Phumla it is very hot/warm today*)

UPhumla: Ewe, Sisi andiqondi ukuba iza kuna namhlanje, kodwa iindaba zithi iza kuna ngempela-veki (*Yes, sister I do not understand/think that it will rain today, but the news says that it will rain during the weekend*)   (5)

UTessa: Ndiyayithanda imvula, kodwa andimthandi umoya, kuba iinwele zam   (7) uyazivuthuza kakhulu (*I like rain, but I do not like the wind, because it blows my hair a lot*)

UPhumla: Hayi, ndithanda ihlobo kuba singadada elwandle kanti andifuni ukuphatha isambreli eklasini (*No, I like summer because we can swim in   (11) the sea and I do not have to take an umbrella to class*)

UTessa: Yinyaniso (It is true). Iincwadi zam zininzi (*My books are a lot*)

UPhumla: Masiye e-Museum, i-assignment kufuneka iphele kule veki izayo (*We must go to the Museum, the assignment must be finished by next week*)   (15)

UTessa: Ewe, mandiphume apha ukuze siye (*Yes let me log out here so that we can go*)

UPhumla noTessa bahamba bephuma eComputer Centre baya esistratweni (*Phumla and Tessa walk out of the Computer Centre they are in the street*)

UTessa: Phumla, linda iimoto! Awunokusuka uhambe kuphela! (*Phumla wait for   (21) the cars! You can not just walk!*)

UPhumla: Ndicela uxolo, andiyibonanga imoto (*Sorry I did not see the car*)

UTessa: Masihambe ngendlela enquphayo, kuba ilanga likhanya emehlweni wam (*Let us walk the shortcut because the sun shines in my eyes*)

UPhumla: Andiqondi, mininzi imithi eStellenbosch kodwa ilanga lisakhanya emehlweni. (*I do not understand Stellenbosch has a lot of trees but still   (27) the sun shines in the eyes*)

UTessa: Ewe (*Yes*)

Bahamba ixeshana elifutshane bafike eMuseum (*They walk for a few minutes and arrive at the Museum*)   (31)

UPhumla: Masingene. Sibhatale? (*Let us go in. We must pay?*)

UTessa: Ewe, kodwa xa ubonisa ikhadi lomfundi, ungafumana isaphulelo (*Yes, but if you show your student card you can get a discount*)

UTessa uthetha le nto xa efuna ikhadi lakhe (*Tessa says this while looking for her student card*)

UPhumla: Ndinekhadi lam. Wenza ntoni? (*I have my card. What are you doing?*)   (37)

UTessa: Andilifumani ikhadi lam (*I can not find my student card*). Ndiqinisekile (39)

ukuba bendilibeke ebhegini (*I am sure I put it in my bag*)

UPhumla: Kungenzeka ukuba ulibeke eComputer Centre okanye ulibeke kwenye

indawo (*It can be that you lost it at the Computer Centre or you placed*

it in another place)

UTessa: Phumla, ufuna ukubuyela eComputer Centre? (*Phumla you want to* (45)

return to the Computer Centre?)

UPhumla: Ewe, kodwa masihambe khawuleza (*Yes, but we must walk fast*)

UTessa: Ndicela uxolo. Ndinethemba ukuba ikhadi lam alibiwanga (*I am sorry. I*

hope that the student card is not stolen) (49)

UPhumla: Ndiqinisekile liza kuba lapho (*I am sure it will be there*)

UTessa: Ndiyathemba ukuba unyanisile (*I hope you are right*) (51)

UPhumla noTessa bafika eComputer Centre apho bebehleli khona (*Phumla and Tessa*

arrive at the Computer Centre where they were sitting)

UPhumla: Awu! Lilahlekile! (*It is gone/lost*)

UTessa: Masibuze umncedisi, mhlawumbi omnye umntu ulise ikhadi kumncedisi (55)

(*Let us ask the assistant maybe somebody gave it to the assistant*)

UPhumla: Ewe, kulungile (*Yes it is good*)

UTessa: Uxolo, ikhadi lam lokuba ngumfundi lilahlekile (*Sorry my student card* (59)

is lost)

i-Assistant: Nini (*When*)?

UTessa: Ngoku, namhlanje (*Now, today*)

i-Assistant: Omnye umfundi undinike ikhadi lomfundi. Sithini i-student number (*A*

student gave me a student card. What is your student number?)

UTessa: 14669077

i-Assistant: Ewe, Nali ikhandi lakho (*Yes, here is your card*)   (65)

UTessa: Enkosi kakhulu (*Thank you very much*)

i-Assistant: Ulumke. Ugcine ikhadi lakho kuba xa ulilahlile awungeni ezakhiweni   (67)

                 (*You must be careful. You must look after your student card because if*

                 you loose it you can not get into buildings)

UTessa: Enkosi ndiyazi, kodwa ngelinye ixesha xa ndisebenza, ndiyalibala

                 ukulithatha ikhadi (*Yes, I know, but sometimes I work and then I forget*

                 to take the card).

UPhumla noTessa baphinda bahambe besiya eMuseum (*Phumla and Tessa walk to the*   (73)

Museum again)

UPhumla: Umele ukuvuya kakhulu (*You can be very lucky/glad*)   (75)

UTessa: Ewe, xa ndilahle ikhadi lam ndibuya ndibatale i-R80! (*Yes if I loose my*

                 card I must pay R80 again)   (77)

Bangena eMuseum (*They go into the Museum*)

UPhumla: Ndiyathanda ukuba ngumfundi. Sifumana isaphulelo zonke iindawo (*I*

                 like to be a student. We get discount everywhere)

UTessa: Ewe, ndifuna ukuba ngumfundi onke amaxesha! (*Yes, I want to be a*   (81)

                 student for always!)

The following sections focus on the identification of various types of tasks as stipulated by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). These task types are then analyzed according to a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). A task type classification is also provided for Scenario 9 according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

4.10.1   Types of tasks identification for Scenario 9

Task type [1]: Talking about the weather.

Task type [2]: Enquiring about a lost student card and giving information about lost cards.

4.10.2   Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 9

The task type [1] relating to talking about the weather can mostly be found with the type task of greeting and asking well being (see scenario 2 for the complexity analysis of this type task). Task type [1] is illustrated in lines 1-12. This segment can be analyzed in terms of the complexity properties described below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Combination of here-and-now and there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense with some sentences in the future tense. This type of conversation is very familiar to the learners as they also encounter this type of conversation in other contexts. A high level of redundancy occurs and the information density is fairly low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The learner will find it relatively easy to understand the information as presented and do not have to reorganize the information to be able to understand the main thoughts and ideas.
The text		
The vocabulary	The interlocutors of the conversation are familiar peers thus the register is informal. The vocabulary used in this conversation is fairly simple. Highly frequent expressions that learners often learn as formulaic expressions occur.	
The syntax	All the sentences in this conversation have elaborations. This gives the conversation some body, but the elaborations are fairly basic for the clauses only consist of words like kuba and kodwa (because and but)	

The text length and structure	The text can be considered as fairly short even though the sentences consist of elaborations. The sentences and text are structured in such a manner which enables the learner to understand the text.

The complexity analysis of the task type [1] description above illustrates that the task type [1] does not require the learner to process the information as presented at a complex level. One of the reasons for this is the high level of redundancy that occurs. Another is the information density that is fairly low. Another reason for the level of processing being that of the descriptive level is the vocabulary and expressions that can be learned as formulaic expressions. Thus, this task type [1] can be placed towards the side of the complexity continuum which represents less complexity proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006).

The segments in lines 39-44; 55-72 and 76-77 illustrate the task type [2] relating to enquiring about a lost student card and giving information about lost cards. The complexity analysis follows in the same manner as the above task type [1] as most of the information at each of the complexity properties stays unchanged. The analysis differs in the property of textual features since the sentences consist of no long and complex embedded clauses. Therefore the complexity analysis suggests that one can place this task type [2] towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity. The reasons for this is that the task type [2] does not require the learner to process the information presented at a complex level and the textual features illustrates that the complexity has been manipulated in such a way that the task type [2] is not too difficulty for the beginner learner.

4.10.3   Task type classification for Scenario 9

According to Pica et al's typology of tasks, scenario 9 is predominantly a problem solving task. Both the participants (Tessa and Phumla) hold and request shared information in order to solve the problem of the lost student card (lines 37-73) (Table 1: 1c). The information exchange flow is in a two way direction, but the interaction between the participants is not required in order to solve the problem (Phumla can solve the problem on her own) (Table 1: 2c). However, the participants work together towards a convergent goal (Table 1: 3a) and only one outcome is available (Table 1:4a) in that they have to find the missing student card.

4.11   SCENARIO 10:

Karel and his rugby friend Phumelela play rugby in the same team. After a rugby practice they go to Tollies. There they discuss the match they had against Tukkies and talk about the mistakes they made, how glad they are that they won, etc. While they are talking some of their other friends in the team and in their classes show up. Now they talk about the upcoming test and that it will clash with one of their matches. They discuss whether they should write the test before or after the match and what they must do in such a situation (give a letter that says they are playing a match).

UKarel: Ndidiniwe kakhulu! (*I am very tired*)   (1)

UPhumelela: Masihambe siye eTollies, ndifuna ukusela ibhiya (*Let us go to Tollies, I want to drink a beer*)

UKarel: Ewe, kulungile (*Yes it is good*)

Bafika eTollies babiza iziselo zabo (*They arrive at Tollies and order their drinks*)

UPhumelela: Sizilolonga kakhulu apha eStellenbosch (*We exercise a lot here in Stellenbosch*)   (7)

UKarel: Ewe, lo mbhoxo awunjengombhoxo wesikolo (*Yes, this rugby it is not like school rugby*)

UPhumelela: Kodwa kumnandi kakhulu, ndiyathanda ukuzilolonga kanje (*But is it very nice, I like to practice like this*)

UKarel: Ewe, sizilolonga kakhulu ukuze siphumelela kwamanye amaqela (*Yes we practice a lot so that we can win the other teams*)   (13)

UPhumelela: Ewe, mhlawumbi ndingabizwa ukuba ndidlalele amnye amaqela angcono (*Yes maybe I can get recruited to play for better teams.*)   (15)

UKarel: Ewe, andcingi ukuba ndiza kuthatha umbhoxo njengomsebenzi (*Yes I do not think I will take rugby as my profession*)

UPhumelela: Kodwa ungafumana imali eninzi kakhulu! (*But you can get a lot of*

money)

UKarel:	Ndiyazi, kodwa kufuneka udlale umbhoxo kakuhle (*I know but you must play rugby very good*) (21)
UPhumelela:	Ndiyazi, kodwa ndiza kuzama ukudlalela iSpringboks (*I know I will try to play for the springboks*). (23)
UKarel:	Kodwa ube namanye amacebo xa le nto ingasebenzi (*But you must have other plans if this thing it does not work out*)
UPhumelela:	Ewe, yiyo le nto ndifunda i-Bcomm (*Yes that is why I study Bcomm*) (27)
UKarel:	Ndifunda i-Marketing, kuba ndicinga ukuba ndinganekamva ngalo msebenzi (*I study Marketing because I think that I have a future with this job*)

Xa besathetha abahlobo abanye abadlalayo umbhoxo bafike apho (*While they were still talking some of their fellow rugby mates arrive there*) (31)

UKarel:	Molweni, bahlobo! (*Hallo friends*)
UJohn:	Molweni kunjani? (*Hallo how are you*)
UPhumelela:	Hayi, siphilile, kodwa sinxaniwe (*No, we are still living but we are thirsty*)
UMax:	Ndingabona le nto. Size ukusela ibhiya (*We can see this thing. We came to drink beer*)
UJohn:	Uthini ngokhuphiswano lweveki edlulileyo (*What do you say about the match of last week?*) (39)
UKarel:	Senze iziphoso ezininzi. Masifunde ukupasa ibhola kakhulu (*We made a lot of mistakes. We must practice to pass the ball more*)
UPhumelela:	Ewe, kodwa kwakukho abadlali abaninzi ababonzakele (*Yes, but there where a lot of players that was injured*) (43)

UMax:	Kodwa amalalela akazilolonganga kakhulu (*But the substitutes were not practiced enough*)	(45)

UJohn: Andiqondi kutheni nizikhathaza nje. Ndinovuya kakhulu ukuba siphumelele! (*I do not understand why you worry like this. I am glad that we won!*)

UKarel: Ewe, sivumelana nayo, kodwa sifuna ukuphucula (*Yes, we agree with this but we can improve*)

Bathetha ngokhuphiswano ngexesha elide (*They talk about the game for quite a while*)

(53)

UKarel: Ngeveki ezayo sibhala uvavanyo lweStats. Singabhala uvavanyo phambi kokuba sidlale ukhuphiswano? (*Next week we write Stats. Can we write the test before we play the match?*)

UPhumelela: Andifuni ukwenza le nto. Ndiza kuba ndidiniwe kakhulu! (*I do not want to do this thing. I will be very tired!*) (57)

UMax: Ewe, xa umntu ediniwe nje akanakucinga ukubhala uviwo! (*Yes, when a person is tired like that u can not think to write a test!*)

UJohn: Kodwa singanika incwadi ootishala ethi sidlala ukhuphiswano. (61) Emva koko singalungiselela ukubhala ngenye imini (*But we can give a letter that says we play a match. Then we can organize to (63) write on another day*)

UKarel: Yindaba entle! (*This is good news*)

UPhumelela: Ndinga ndisinga ukubhala phambi koviwo (*I wish we can or we can write the before the test*) (67)

UMax: Hayi uphambene! Andifuni ukubhala phambi kwexesha! (*No, you are crazy! I do not want to write the test before the time!*) (69)

UJohn: Ewe, masibhale emva kokuba abanye abafundi bebhalile (*Yes, let* (71)

us write after the other students have written)

UMax: Kulungile! (*It is good!*)

UKarel: Masicinge ngalo ukhuphiswano lweveki ezayo ngoku! (*Let us think*

                  of this match of next week now!)

UPhumelela: Masisele enye ibhiya (*Let us drink another beer*)   (75)

UMax,   UJohn,
                  Ewe! (*Yes)*
UKarel:

UKarel: Kodwa uza kubhatala (*But you are going to pay*)

UKarel uncuma esithi le nto (*Karel smiles while saying this*)

In the following sections various types of tasks are identified according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) and thereafter these types of tasks are analysed according to Duran and Ramaut's (2006) complexity scale. A task type classification according to the task typology of Pica et al also follows below

4.11.1   Types of tasks identification for Scenario 10

Task type [1]: Talking about future plans and what you want to be/ do someday.
Task type [2]: Greeting and asking well being.
Task type [3]: Giving opinions about a rugby match.
Task type [4]: Planning to move the writing of a test to a later stage/date because of other activities.

4.11.2   Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 10

The task type [1] relating to talking about future plans and what you want to be/ do someday is illustrated in lines 16-30. The complexity analysis follows below:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Combination of here-and-now and there-and-then
The linguistic context	The topic is very familiar to the learner especially in the context of campus. The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense with some sentences in the future tense. A relatively good amount of redundancy occurs and the information density is low.

The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The learner can understand the main thoughts and ideas as presented in the text.

The text	
The vocabulary	The interlocutors are familiar with each other hence the informal register. The words are fairly simple and the vocabulary includes loan words which contribute to the understanding of the text.
The syntax	The sentences are short for they do not consist of long embedded clauses.
The text length and structure	The text is of a reasonable length and structured well.

The complexity analysis above illustrates that the information processing entails that the learner will process the information at a descriptive level. This is because the information density is low and the redundancy is high. These two elements thus balance the complexity of the task type [1] so that it is not complex. The textual features like the simple vocabulary and short sentences also contribute to the complexity of the task type [1]. The task type [1] can thus be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

The task type [2] relating to greeting and asking well being in the segment in lines 33-36 has been analyzed in terms of the complexity properties previously in this section and will thus not be analyzed here (see scenario 2).

The segment in lines 39-51 is an example of the type task description [3] relating to giving opinions about a rugby match. The analysis in terms of its complexity properties follows in

the same manner as the above task type [1] in that most of the information at each of the complexity properties remains the same. The analysis of task type [3] differs from that of task type [1] in the properties of linguistic context and the textual features. The level of abstraction in task type [3] is the same as in task type [1]. The difference, however, lies in the linguistic context as the sentences are mostly in the present and past tense (not the future tense as with task type [1]). The level of redundancy is also higher in the linguistic context of task type [3] than in task type [1]. In the textual features property of task type [3] the vocabulary is more complex than in task type [1] since learners might have to learn new vocabulary. The vocabulary occurs frequently in this type of conversation and is still fairly simple.

The complexity analysis of the task type [3] description above illustrates that the information processing entails that of the descriptive level. Thus the learners will be able to understand the information presented without having to reorganize information to come to an understanding. This will only happen when the learners are familiar with the vocabulary. Some learners might want to use the information in the task outside of this specific context. In this case they will have to manipulate the information so that it is meaningful and understandable in other contexts. This manipulation entails that the task type [3] will become more complex. The textual features like the vocabulary and syntax thus *can* contribute to the task type [3] being complex or less complex. However, the information processing of the above task type [3] description will be at the descriptive level. The task type [3] can thus be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

The task type [4] relating to planning to move the writing of a test to a later stage/ date because of other activities is illustrated in the segments in lines 54-56; 61-64; 66-67 and 71-72. An analysis of the task type [4] description in regards to its complexity properties follows in the same manner as the above task type [3] as most of the information presented at each of the complexity properties is unchanged. The analysis of this task type [4] regarding its complexity properties differs from the previous task type [3] in the properties of the linguistic context and the textual features. The level of abstraction in task type [4] is the same as in task type [3], but the linguistic context differs since the sentences consist mostly of sentences in the present and future tense (not past tense as in task type [3]). The textual feature property differs from that of task type [3] in that the vocabulary is very basic, short and simple.

The complexity analysis of the task type [4] description above illustrates that the information processing entails that of the descriptive level. This is because of the information density

being low. Furthermore, the familiarity of the topic makes the task type [4] inherently less complex. The textual features especially the vocabulary and syntax also play a role in the task type [4] being less complex. This task type [4] can thus be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

4.11.3 Task type classification for Scenario 10

According to the classification of task types by Pica et al, scenario 10 is predominantly a decision making task. All the participants (Karel, Phumelela, John and Max) hold and request shared information in order to decide when they should write a test (lines 54-72) (Table 1: 1c). The information exchange flow is in a two way direction, but the interaction between the participants is not required because not all of the participants have to agree with each other or share information in order to decide when they should write the test (Table 1: 2c). The participants however work together towards a convergent goal (Table 1: 3a) but more than one outcome is available (Table 1:4b) as they may write the test at different dates and times.

4.12 CONCLUSION

The types of tasks identified in this chapter typically occur in student-to-student communication in the context of a university campus. Some types of tasks can also be applied and/ or modified for other language usage situations. This means that learners can use these types of tasks in other contexts in their immediate environment. Therefore the task types identified are relevant and familiar to the learners and satisfy both their objective as well as subjective needs, resulting in a positive and motivating attitude towards learning the second language.

The complexity analyses of the types of tasks reveal that most of the tasks demand cognitive and communicative processing at a descriptive level. This level of processing is most suitable for beginner level learners of the second language, because even though the main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow, some other parameters required in the task may challenge the learners. The task is still doable, motivating the learners to complete the task and perform well in other similar tasks. The complexity analyses also include some types of tasks moving towards the restructuring level of cognitive and communicative processing. These types of tasks will logically be sequenced more to the end of a course for beginner level

learners of the second language because they are more complex than the tasks that require processing at a purely descriptive (as indicated by Duran and Ramaut's (2006) complexity scale).

The task type classifications according to the typology of Pica et al (1993) reveal that the tasks are a combination of predominantly information gap and jigsaw tasks. Therefore most of the tasks entail a high level of interaction requirements from the learners and also initiates a high level of interaction, which pushes learners to modify their output and ultimately has an effect on their inter-language development. The other task types that occur in the scenarios between students are problem-solving and decision making tasks that do not necessarily initiate a high level of interaction among the learners completing the task. However, the exposure of such task types is also important for the inter-language development of the learners because they entail other interaction and cognitive requirements from the learners that are important for language development in the context of campus.

The following chapter consists of scenarios surrounding student-to-lecturer communications in the context of campus and will follow the same procedures as in this chapter regarding the identification of types of tasks, complexity analyses and task type classifications.

CHAPTER FIVE
A COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS OF CAMPUS COMMUNICATION
TASKS: STUDENT-TO-LECTURER

5   INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines scenarios surrounding student-to-lecturer communication in the context of campus. Various types of tasks are identified for each scenario according to the type task parameters proposed by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). Thereafter each of the types of tasks identified are analyzed according to the complexity parameters proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) in order to place the types of tasks on a complexity continuum (complexity scale). The investigation of each scenario is brought to a close by providing a task type classification according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

In this chapter then, 'types of tasks' (or 'task types') refers to the classification of broad, concrete language tasks on the basis of certain characteristics within these types of tasks. Simpler language functions that typically occur in the context of student-lecturer communication and that are present in the types of tasks can also be identified and analyzed according to the complexity properties of Duran and Ramaut (2006). The analyses of complexity of each of the types of tasks must rather be seen as on a continuum than as fixed information (see Duran and Ramaut table on page 54).

5.1   COMMUNICATION TASKS FOR STUDENT-TO-LECTURER
DIALOGUE

The needs analysis done in order to design the dialogues for student-to-lecturer communication in the context of a university campus followed exactly the same procedure as in chapter four (see section 4.2 on communication tasks for student-to-student dialogue). Therefore the type of needs identified also consists of a combination of subjective and objective needs. This means that the content of the dialogues/ scenarios consists of the necessities regarding the language they need in order to function in the second language and what the students and lecturers want to learn about the second language that happens in their everyday situations on a university campus (Brown, 2009). The scale of the scenarios is specific as the population consists of students and lecturers. The focus of the needs analyses is

mostly on promoting the listening and speaking skills of the learners learning the second language. Thus, according to Brown's perspectives (2009), the scenarios will be appropriate for a communication approach following a task-based syllabus.

Note that, in this chapter as well, the English translations provided for each of the dialogues for the isiXhosa text represent approximate meanings of the isiXhosa, rather than translation or the technical versions. The analyses presented in this chpater are, in fact, independent of the English approximations.

5.2 SCENARIO 11:

Gerhard has difficulty answering questions in the test. He also has difficulty learning isiXhosa. He goes to the lecturer's office to ask for advice. The lecturer encourages him never to give up and says that isiXhosa is not a difficult subject. She asks him a few questions like if he knows how to make sentences and how he studies for the subject, etc. After the lecturer has established the problem she/ he gives Gerhard examples of what he can do to improve his marks, for example to get a study partner, etc. She/ he also explains how Gerhard should answer the questions in the upcoming test.

UGerhard: Molo, Professa (*Good day Professor*)

UProf: Molo. Kunjani? (*Good day. How is it*?)

UGerhard: Hayi ndiphilile kodwa ndinengxaki (*No I am fine, but I have a problem*)

UProf: Ungubani kanene igama lakho (*Can you remind me what your name*   (5) *is*?)

UGerhard: Igama lam ndinguGerhard van Wyk. Ndingomnye wabafundi bakho abenza isiXhosa kunyaka wesibini. (*My name is Gerhard van Wyk. I am one of your second year students*)   (9)

UProf: Ke ngoku ndingakunceda ngantoni (*So how may I help you*?)

UGerhard: Professa ndinexhala lokuba ndiza kusitshona isifundo sesiXhosa   (11)

(*Professor, I am worried that I am going to fail this subject of Xhosa*)

UProf:	Gerhard, yintoni ebangela ukuba ucinge ukuba uza kusitshona esi sifundo (*Gerhard what makes you think that you are going to fail this subject?*)	(15)

UGerhard: Yinto yokuba xa ndibhala uvavanyo ndisoloko ndifumana amanqaku amancinci. Andikwazi ukuphendula imibuzo yovavanyo (*It is because when I write I always get low marks. I do not know how to answer the questions*).

UProf: Ndiyakuva. Ungaze uncame. IsiXhosa sisifundo esingenzimanga. Uyakwazi ukwenza izivakalisi esiXhoseni (*I understand. You must never give up. Xhosa is not a difficult subject. Do you know how to make sentences in Xhosa?*) (21)

UGerhard: Ewe, ndingenza izivakalisi ezilula. Kodwa le nto ayiyongxaki yam. Ingxaki yam yinto yokuba andinokwazi ukucacisela omnye umntu ukuba yenziwa njani imiqolo kuba andiyazi indlela yokuqala umqolo ukuba kuthiwani na xa ibizwa. (*Yes I can make simple sentences. But this is not my problem. My problem is that I cannot explain to somebody how to make the sentences because I do not know what the sentences element is called*). (25) (27)

UProf: Ndiyeva. Okokuqala kubalulekile ukuba uye eklasini, kuba apho sixoxa ezi zinto. Okwesibini, fumana umfundi ongancedisana naye ukufunda. Okwesithathu ungacela iTutor xa unexhala ngesi fundo. Ufunda iiyure ezingaphi ngeveki (*I understand. Firstly it is important that you go to class, because there we discuss these things. Secondly, you must get a study partner. Thirdly you can ask for a Tutor if you have worries about the subject. How many hours do you study during the week?*) (33) (37)

UGerhard: Ewe, ndiyaziqonda ezi zinto. Ndifunda iiyure ezintathu ngeveki. Iyure enye ndifunda nomnye umfundi (*Yes I understand these things. I study three hours a week. One hour I study with another student*) (41)

UProf: Kulungile. Xa ufunda kufuneka uzame ukucacisa imigaqo kumhlobo wakho. Ningancedisana. Khumbula ukuba kufuneka uphendula le mibuzo kumhlathi. Ndicinga ukuba kulungile xa nizenzela imibuzo kwangethuba ukuze nibonisane. Nilungisane iimpendulo zenu. Emva koko ningazithathe nizise kwi Tutor ukuze ibone ukuba niyazazi na. (*That is good. When you study you must try to explain the rules to your study partner. You can help each other. Remember that you must answer these questions in paragraphs. I think it is a good idea to work out the questions before hand and then you can show it to each other. You can then correct each other's work. There after you can take it to the Tutor so that she can see if you are on the right track*). (45) (47) (51)

UGerhard: Enkosi Professa. Ndiza kuzama ukufunda ngale ndlela (*Thank you Professor. I will try to study in this way*). (57)

UProf: Kulungile. Khumbula xa uzama ude uqhele. Uza kubona ukuba xa uziqhelisa kakhulu uza kusiqonda isiXhosa. Zama ukufunda ngale ndlela emva koko siza kubona emanqakwini ukuba ufuna enye indlela. (*That is good. Remember practice makes perfect. You will see the more you practice the better you will understand Xhosa. Try to study this way then we will look at the marks and see if we need some other method*). (59) (63)

UGerhard: Enkosi kakhulu Professa. Ndiyakubulela ngexesha lakho apho umamele ingxaki zam. Enkosi kakhulu ngokundinika amacebiso abalulekileyo. Sala kakuhle. Ndiyathemba ukuba uzakuba nemini emnandi kakhulu. (*Thank you very much Professor. I appreciate that you made time to* (65)

listen to my problems. Thank you for giving me your expert advice. Stay

well. I hope you have a nice day).

Prof: Enkosi kakhulu. Hamba kakuhle (*Thank you very much. Go well*).   (71)

The sections below indicate the the identification of various type task descriptions as Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) suggest. These types of tasks are then analyzed according to a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). Lastly the task typology of Pica et al (1993) is applied to this Scenario in order to provide a suitable task type classification.

5.2.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 11

Task type [1]: Greeting, asking about well-being and asking identification of a student.

Task type [2]: Asking about and giving reasons for thinking that a student will fail a subject.

Task type [3]: Giving and stating study methods that can be followed to prepare for the examination.

5.2.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 11

The task type [1] relating to greeting, asking about well-being and asking identification of a student is illustrated in lines 1-9. This segment can be analyzed according to the following complexity properties:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense and the topic is familiar. A limited level of redundancy occurs but the information density is very low	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive	The main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow and thus the information in the text is simple to understand.

The text	
The vocabulary	The register of the conversation is informal even though the interlocutors differ of status. The reason for this informal greeting is because the interlocutors are familiar with each other. The vocabulary in the conversation is fairly simple.
The syntax	The sentences are relatively simple for it consists of no long embedded clauses.
The text length and structure	The turn takings are relatively short and well structured.

The task type [1] description above is very concrete, hence the level of abstraction being in the here-and-now and the topic being very familiar. The information processing that occurs is at the descriptive level because the information density of the task type [1] is very low. This means that the learner does not have to do much with the information as presented. This task type [1] is of importance for the beginner learner for reasons of language development. Learners will learn the vocabulary and sentences in this task type [1] as multi-word phrases. Multi-word phrase learning is important for language development because learners move from learning whole phrases to more complex sentences and vocabulary that are more difficult to learn than multi-word phrases. The fact that the information processing is on a purely descriptive level suggests that one can place this task type [1] towards the side of the continuum that represents less complexity.

Lines 14-20 and 26-31 illustrate the task type [2] relating to asking about and giving reasons for thinking that a student will fail a subject. The complexity analysis of these segments follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense and the topic is fairly familiar in the context. A limited level of redundancy occurs and the information density is of a fairly medium level.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	High descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas

	moving towards the re-structuring level	of the conversation are simple to follow but because the conversation consists of giving personal opinions and problems the conversation is moving towards the re-structuring level.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is fairly simple in that the conversation does not consist of too long and complex words and phrases. The register is still fairly informal hence the nature of the conversation.	
The syntax	A good balance between long and short sentences occur in this conversation but the embedded clauses of the longer sentences are fairly simple	
The text length and structure	The text length is short and structured well so that the learners can easily follow what is meant by the conversation.	

The complexity analysis of the task type [2] above illustrates that the task type [2] description is concrete, but because the learners are exposed to personal accounts and opinions, one can argue that reorganizing of information occurs in order for the learners to come to a better understanding of the content. Learners might want to reorganize the information when the intention is to use the information of the content segment outside of the classroom or in other similar situations. Another may argue that the processing is on the descriptive level because the information as presented is understandable. The conclusion therefore is that the level of processing will rather entail that of a high descriptive level or low restructuring level. No matter which argument is preferred, the placing of the task type [2] will be towards the side of the continuum which represents more complexity.

Task type [3] relates to giving and stating study methods that can be followed to prepare for the examination is illustrated by the segments in lines 32-55 and 58-64. The complexity analysis of the task type [3] description follows in the same manner as the task type [2] above as most of the information in the complexity properties remains the same. The analysis of task type [3] differs from task type [2] in the property of textual features. First, the register in this

segment (task type [3]) is more formal than in task type [2]. The reason for the more formal register is because the adult peer (Professor) is now giving advice to the younger, lower-status peer (Gerhard). Secondly, the vocabulary in task type [3] consists of some new words that the learners might not have background knowledge of, but the vocabulary will still be fairly simple. Thirdly, the sentences in task type [3] are longer than in task type [2] because of some elaboration and embedded clauses. This segment in task type [3] consists of a combination of complex and simple sentences. Four, the length of the text is also longer in task type [3] than in task type [2], but is still well structured.

In the task type [3] description above, the level of abstraction is that of the here-and-now and the topic is familiar, which illustrates that the task type [3] description is concrete. The level of processing entails that of a high descriptive or low restructuring level. The reason for this statement is that, at some point during the task type [3], learners will have to reorganize some of the information to come to a better understanding. The reorganization mostly takes place because the turn-takings are long; therefore a beginner learner will only want to work with the gist of the conversation. The level of processing cannot be purely that of the restructuring level because the conversation is factual rather than transactional making the conversation simpler to follow. Concluding on the task type [3] description above, whether considered being at a high descriptive level or low restructuring level, the task type [3] will be placed towards the side representing more complexity.

5.2.3 Task type classification for Scenario 11

According to Pica et al' typology of tasks, scenario 11 can be classified predominantly as an information gap task. One participant (Gerhard) holds the information and supplies it to the other participant (Professor) as it is requested (lines 11-31) (Table 1: 1b). The one participant (Professor) is required to request the information and the other is required to supply it (lines 11-31) (Table 1:2b). However, both participants are working towards convergent goals since they try to establish Gerhard's difficulty in learning isiXhosa (lines 11-31) (Table 1 3a). There is only one acceptable answer (for example lines 58-71) (Table 1:4a). The outcome of the task is that Gerhard should change the manner in which he studies for isiXhosa. This information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange because the receiver of the information (Professor) also asks questions and adds information that is necessary to achieve the goal (for example lines 32-55 and 58-64). The goal is to improve Gerhard's mark for isiXhosa by

changing his study methods. Interaction is thus required to achieve the goal of one outcome (Table 2).

5.3   SCENARIO 12:

Thandeka has a clash with her classes (she has a Philosophy class scheduled at the same time as one of her tutorial classes). She explains to the lecturer what her problem is. The lecturer asks her if it is possible that she can move her Philosophy class. Thandeka states that it cannot be done and gives her reason (for example, she will have more clashes). The lecturer wonders whether other students in the class might have the same problem. They then organize a time for Thandeka to catch up on the work they do in the tutorial class, because it is important practice for her.

UThandeka: Molo, Professa. Kunjani (*Good day Professor. How is it*?)

UProf: Molo, hayi ndisaphila, wena (*Good day, no I am still fine and you*?)

UThandeka: Hayi ndiphilile. Professa ndinengxaki ngeeklasi zam (*No I am fine.   (3) Professor I have a problem with my classes*).

UProf: Eziphi iiklasi (*Which classes*?)

UThandeka: NgoMvulo ndineklasi yeFilosofi ngo10. Kodwa kumele ukuba ndibe kwiTut yesiXhosa (*On Monday I have Philosophy at 10h00. But I have   (7) to be in the Xhosa tut*)

UThandeka ukhangeleka ekhathazekile ngeli xesha athetha le nto. (*Thandeka looks worried while saying this*).

UThandeka: Ndenze ntoni (*What must I do?*)   (11)

UProf: Ingaba ungakwazi na ukutshintsha iklasi ye Filosofi? Unamaqela? (*Is it possible that you can move that philosophy class? Do you have groups*)?

UThandeka: Ewe, sinamaqela kodwa xa nditshintsha ndiza kuba nongquzulwano   (15)

olukhulu (*Yes, we do have groups but if I move from groups I will have more clashes*).

| UProf: | Ndiyaqonda. Ezinye iiklasi zeTut zona? Ingaba ungangena kuzo (*I understand. And the other tutorial periods? Can you maybe join one of them rather?*) |

UThandeka: Hayi, ndinolunye ungquzulwano lweeklasi. Isizathu sale nto, yinto (21) yokuba ndibuya ndenze izifundo zalo nyaka uphelileyo endizitshonileyo (*No I have other classes then. The reason for this is because I am doing some subject again this year that I failed last year*).

(25)

UProf: Ndiyakuva. Mandikhangele itime table yakho, kuba zibalulekile eziklasi zetut awunokwazi ukuziphosa. Kwezi klasi sifunda indlela (27) yokubiza amagama nokufunda. (*I hear you/I understand. Let me look at your time table. You cannot miss this tutorial class because it is important. In these classes we practice our pronunciation and reading. It is an important aspect of the language*). (31)

UThandeka unika itime table yakhe uProfessa (Thandeka gives her time table to the Professor)

UThandeka: Ndiyaqonda. Andifuni ukuyeka iklasi yeTut kuba ndifuna ukufumana amanqaku aphezulu kwesi sifundo (*I understand. I do not want to miss the tutorial because I want to get good marks for the subject*).

UProf: Hmmm ndibona ukuba ukhululekile emva kweklasi yetut ngoMvulo. (37) Ndicinga ukuba singabonisana emva kweklasi ngomvulo. Ndicinga ukuba masibonane khona. Ndicinga ukuba kubalulekile ukuba nawe uzifumanele umsebenzi ngoku khawuleza ngapha koko uzakuba semva kwabanye abafundi. Ndiqinisekile ukuba bakho abanye abafundi (41)

abaneengxaki yongquzulwano lweklasi. Masibuze eklasini. Ngalondlela angabakho umntu onokwenza le tut nawe (*I see you are open just after the tutorial class on a Monday. I think we must see each other then. I think it is important that you also get the work as soon as possible otherwise you might be behind with the other students. I am also sure that there are other students who might have a clash. Let us ask in class. In this way you can have someone who you do this tutorial with you*).

UThandeka: Omnye umhlobo wam oneTut ngoLwesine ufumana ubunzima ukuya kula klasi. Mhlawumbi ukuba akukho omnye umntu onongquzulwano (51) ngoMvulo angaba kunye nam kule klasi. (*My one friend who has her tutorial on a Thursday finds it difficult to go to that class. Maybe if there is no one else who have a clash on a Monday, she can join me*).

UProf: Ewe, iza kuba ilungile kodwa masibone kuqala eklasini (*Yes that will (55) be fine, but let us see first*).

UThandeka: Enkosi kakhulu, Professa (*Thank you very much, Professor*). (57)

UProf: Hamba kakuhle, sobonana (*Go well, see you again*)

UThandeka: Sala kakuhle Professa. (*Stay well Professor*).

The following sections deal with the identification of various type task descriptions as stipulated by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). The types of tasks are then analysed according to a complexity scale based on several complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). Lastly the task typology of Pica et al (1993) is applied to this Scenario.

5.3.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 12

Task type [1]: Stating a class clash.
Task type [2]: Asking for and giving advice on how to solve the problem of class clashes.

Task type [3]: Stating the importance of a tutorial class and giving reason why it is importance to attend the tutorial classes.

Task type [4]: Sharing information about a suitable period to meet for a tutorial class.

5.3.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 12

The task type [1] relating to stating a class clash is illustrated in lines 3-8 and is analysed in terms of its complexity properties as follows:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense and the topic is familiar. A limited level of redundancy occurs but the information density is very low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive	The main thoughts and ideas of the conversation is easy to follow. The information is simple to understand.
The text		
The vocabulary	The register of the conversation is fairly formal because the interlocutors differ of status but are familiar with each other. The vocabulary is fairly simple.	
The syntax	The sentences are relatively simple for it consists of no long embedded clauses.	
The text length and structure	The turn takings are relatively short and well structured	

The complexity analysis of the task type [1] description above illustrates that the task type [1] description is concrete hence the level of abstraction. Furthermore, the learner is not required to process the information as presented at a very complex level. The reason for this is because the information density is very low and thus the processing will entail processing at a

descriptive level. On the continuum then, this task type [1] can be placed towards the side of the continuum that represents less complexity.

Lines 11 – 20 illustrated the task type [2] relating to asking for and giving advice on how to solve the problem of class clashes. The segment is analyzed in terms of its complexity properties in the same manner as the task type [1] above as most of the information at each property remains the same. The analysis of task type [2] differs from task type [1] in the property of textual features as the vocabulary consists of some new and complex words in combination with other fairly simple vocabulary. The sentences in the task type [2] also consist of some embedded clauses but are still fairly simple. Thus the task type [2] description illustrates that the level of abstraction is concrete. This is because of the here-and-now features and the topic being familiar. The level of processing is that of the descriptive level because the learners are not required to process the information as presented on a complex level. Supporting this is the fact that the information density is low. The information given at each complexity parameter/ property of task type [2] illustrates that this task type [2] can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

The task type [3] relating to stating the importance of a tutorial class and giving reasons why it is importance to attend the tutorial classes in lines 26- 31 and 34- 36 is analysed according to its complexity properties in the same manner as the previous two types of tasks [1 and2] since the information in all the complexity properties are the same for task type [3] as in task type [1and2]. Hence the complexity analysis of the task type [3] description suggests that this task type [3] can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity, as there is no complex information processing required from the learner. The information given at each complexity property is fairly simple and thus demonstrates that the information processing has a low descriptive level. The task type [3] can, however, be made more complex by changing the Professor's advice to being more transactional rather than factual, adding personal opinions and adding longer and complex embedded sentences.

The segment in lines 37-56 illustrate the task type [4] relating to sharing information about a suitable period to meet for a tutorial class. The complexity analysis of the task type [4] description follows below:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense and the topic is familiar. A fairly good level of redundancy occurs and the information density is of a relatively higher level than the previous types of tasks in this scenario.

The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	High descriptive level moving towards the restructuring level.	The conversation follows a logical train of thought but the learners might have to reorganize and select certain information to come to a better understanding.

The text	
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is fairly simple consisting of some new words and phrases. The register is quite formal because of the age and status difference between the interlocutors.
The syntax	The sentences are much longer than the previous types of tasks in this scenario but the embedded clauses are fairly simple.
The text length and structure	The text is of a reasonable length and well structured.

The complexity analysis of the task type [4] above illustrates that the task type [4] description is concrete. The task type [4] requires that the learners process the information at a high descriptive level or a low restructuring level. Reasons for this are that the turn-takings are relatively long, there are embedded clauses and the level of information density is high. But then, the relatively good level of redundancy and the simple vocabulary and logical train of thoughts and ideas in the conversation add to the task type [4] being less complex. If one considers the task to entail processing at the restructuring level, learners may want to reorganize some of the information when they want to use the information outside of the classroom or in similar situations. On the other hand, if the task type [4] is considered to entail processing at the descriptive level the information will be simple enough for the learners to understand without them having to do much with the information to come to better

understanding. Therefore this task type [4] rather deals with processing at a high descriptive level or low restructuring level making the placement of this task type [4] on the side on the continuum representing more complexity.

5.3.3 Task type classification for Scenario 12

Scenario 12 is predominantly an information gap task according to the task typology of Pica et al since one participant (Thandeka) holds the information and supplies it to the other participant (Professor) as it is requested (for example lines 3-31) (Table 1: 1b). The one participant (Professor) is required to request the information and the other is required to supply it (for example lines 6-17) (Table 1:2b). Both participants are working towards convergent goals in that they try to organize a time for a tutorial class because of a clash of classes, though (lines 3-31; 50-56) (Table 1 3a). There is only one acceptable answer to the task (for example lines 26-36) (Table 1:4a). The goal is that Thandeka must have a tutorial class at another time than the rest of the learners because of a clash because of the importance of the class. This information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange because the receiver of the information (Professor) also asks questions and adds information that is necessary to achieve the goal (for example lines 11-25). Interaction is thus required to achieve the goal of the task (Table 2).

5.4   SCENARIO 13:

Kathy registered late for a subject and asks the lecturer whether she may still take the subject. She also asks general questions about the subject like where she can get the notes and when the periods are, whether the subject will be appropriate for her, if she missed any work, etc. The lecturer answers her questions and asks her questions, like in which year she is, gives her information about the notes and the periods they have in a week, informs her about a computer class that she must attend, insures her that she will benefit from the class, etc.

Kathy: Nkqo, nkqo, nkqo

Prof: Ngena (*Come in*)

Kathy: Molo, Professa. Kunjani namhlanje? (*Good day Professor. How are you*   (3)

            today?)

Prof: Molo. Hayi mna ndiphilile. Ndingakunceda njani? (*Good day. No I am fine.*

How can I help you?)

Kathy: Professa, ndibhalise leyithi kule klasi. Ndifuna ukwazi ukuba ndingaba

sathatha esi sifundo? (*Professor, I registered late for this class. I want to*   (7)

know if I can still study/take this subject.)

Prof: Ewe, ungasithatha esi sifundo ixesha lisekho wena. Unawo amaphepha

esisifundo? (*Yes, you can still take this subject it is not too late. Do you have*

the notes?)

Kathy: Hayi andinawo amaphepha. Ndingawafumana phi? (*No I do not have the*   (11)

notes. Where can I find the notes?)

Prof: Ukowuphi unyaka ngoku (*Which year are you now*)?

Kathy: Mna, ndikunyaka wokuqala (*I am first year*)

Prof: Uyakuwafumana kwi-secretary. Egumbini 535. Uyazi ulifumana njani eli   (15)

gumbi? (*Get it at the secretary. In room 535. You know how to get this*

room)?

Kathy: Hayi, Professa. Ndicela undixelele indlela? (*No Professor. Please explain*   (17)

the way?)

Prof: Ewe. Yihla epasejini ude ufika ekugqibeleni. Ligumbi elisekunene phambi

kwegumbi lekhompuyuta (*Yes, you must go down this hallway till you reach*

the end. The room is on the right, across the computer room).

Kathy: Enkosi kakhulu, Professa (*Thank you very much Professor*).   (21)

Prof: Khumbula sineklasi izihlandlo ezintathu evekini (*Remember we have class*

three times a week)

Kathy: Uxolo iiklasi zinini (*Sorry, when are the classes*?)

Prof: Sineklasi ngoLwesibini ngo-12; ngoLwesithathu ngo-2 nangoLwesine ngo-   (25)

10 (*We have class Tuesday at 12; Wednesday at 2 and Thursday at 10*).

Kathy: Enkosi kakhulu, Professa. Sinayo na iklasi ye-tut? (*Thank you very much*   (27)

        Professor. Do we have a Tut class?)

Prof: Hayi, kodwa niza kufumana iklasi yekhompuyuta. Siza kuxoxa lo nto

        eklasini (*No, but you will get a computer class. We will discuss this in class*).

Kathy: Enkosi. Ucinga ukuba esisifundo sizakundilungela (*Thank you. Do you think*   (31)

        that this subject it will be good for me)

Prof: Ewe, yinto entle ukwazi ulwimi lwesintu. Liza kuvulela amathuba. Uza   (33)

        kubona ukuba uzakuyithanda le klasi (*Yes, it is always good to know an*

        African language. It will open doors. You will see that you will enjoy this   (35)

        class).

Kathy: Ndiyayilangazelela iklasi ngoLwesibini. Kodwa, Professa ingaba ndiphose

        umsebenzi? (*I am looking forward to the class on Tuesday. But Professor did*   (37)

        I miss any work?)

Prof: Hayi, asikaqali ukwenza umsebenzi. Siza kuqala ukwenza imisebenzi

        ngoLwesibini (*No, we have not started with any work. We will start doing*

        work on Tuesday).

Kathy: Ndiza kuba lapho ngoLwesibini. Sala kakuhle, Professa (*I will be there on*   (41)

        Tuesday. Stay well Professor).

Prof: Ndinethemba lokuba uza kubakho. Hamba kakuhle (*I hope that you will be*   (43)

        there. Go well).

The following sections deal with the identification of various types of tasks according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), and then these types of tasks are analyzed according to a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). A task type classification is also provided according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

5.4.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 13

Task type [1]: Stating a late registration for a subject and enquiring if taking the subject is still possible.

Task type [2]: Asking and answering questions about notes (if the learner has the notes and where to get the notes).

Task type [3]: Giving direction to a room in the building.

Task type [4]: Reminding and stating the amount of classes per week and the times of the classes.

Task type [5]: Asking and answering a question about the importance of a subject for the learner's future.

Task type [6]: Asking and answering about missed class work.

5.4.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 13

The task type [1] relating to stating a late registration for a subject and enquiring if taking the subject is still possible is illustrated in lines 6-9 and is analysed according to it complexity properties as follows:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense and the topic is familiar. A limited level of redundancy occurs but the information density is very low	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow and thus the information in the text is simple to understand.
The text		
The vocabulary	The register of the conversation is formal because of the age and status difference of the interlocutors. The vocabulary in the conversation is fairly simple.	

The syntax	The sentences are relatively simple for it consists of no long embedded clauses.
The text length and structure	The turn takings are relatively short and well structured

The complexity analysis of the task type [1] description above illustrates that the level of abstraction is concrete. The textual features of the task type [1] do not contribute in making the task type [1] very complex. The fact that a high level of redundancy occurs and the information density is low ensures that one can place this task type [1] towards the side that represents less complexity. The task type [1] does not require the learner to process information at a complex level. The information processing will entail a low descriptive level.

Lines 9-15 illustrate the task type [2] relating to asking and answering questions about notes (if the learner has the notes and where to get the notes). The complexity analysis of the task type [2] description follows in the same manner as the task type [1] above as most of the information at each complexity property remains the same. The analysis of the task type [2] differs from that of task type [1] in the property of the linguistic context. The linguistic context differs as the level of redundancy occurring in task type [2] is of a higher level than that of task type [1]. However, the difference does not significantly change the complexity of the task type [2] for the level of cognitive processing remains that of the descriptive level. Therefore the level of abstraction of task type [2] is concrete, hence the here-and-now feature and the fact that the topic is familiar. The complexity analysis of this task type [2] illustrates that the information processing and textual features require that the learners process information purely at a descriptive level. The task type [2] can thus be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

The task type [3] relating to giving direction to a room in the building illustrated in lines 15-21 is analysed in the same way as in scenario 1 (see task type [6]).

The segment in lines 22-30 illustrates the task type [4] relating to reminding and stating the number of classes per week and the times of the classes. The complexity analysis of the task type [4] description follows in the same manner as in task type [1and2] as the information at each complexity property remains the same. Although a low level of redundancy occurs in this task type [4], the low level of information density ensures that the learners are not required to process the information at hand at a very complex level. Furthermore, the textual

features contribute to the fact that the processing required from the learners will be that of the descriptive level. Thus on the continuum, this task type [4] description can be placed towards the side representing less complexity.

The task type [5] relating to asking and answering a question about the importance of a subject for the learner's future is illustrated in lines 31-35. The complexity analysis follows in the same manner as the task type [4] above since all the information of the complexity properties remains the same. The task type [5] is concrete, hence the level of abstraction entailing the here-and-now feature as well as the topic being familiar. The low level of redundancy is compensated by the low level of information density, making the task type [5] less complex. The textual features contribute to the fact that the processing required from the learners will be that of the descriptive level. Keep in mind that this task type [5] can become more complex at more advanced levels of proficiency if the learners are required to process longer complex embedded sentences, personal accounts and long explanation. This will force the learners to reorganize some of the information to come to a better understanding. To conclude, this task type [5] can be placed towards the side representing less complexity.

Lines 36-42 illustrate the task type [6] relating to asking and answering about missed class work. The complexity analysis of this segment follows in the same manner as the above two types of tasks [4and5] in that all the information at each of the complexity properties remains the same. The complexity analysis illustrates that the task type [6] can be placed towards the side representing less complexity on the complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). This placing is justified by the low information density which ensures that the learners are not required to process at a high cognitive level. Furthermore the textual features are fairly simple and thus contribute to the level of cognitive processing.

5.4.3 Task type classification for Scenario 13

According to the task typology of Pica et al this scenario [13] is predominantly an information gap task. One participant (Kathy) holds the information and supplies it to the other participant in the interaction (Professor) as it is requested by that participant (for example lines 6-8) (Table 1: 1b). The one participant (Professor) is required to request the information while the other is required to supply the information (for example lines 4-5) (Table 1:2b). Both participants are working towards convergent goals as they try to establish whether Kathy has

all the necessary notes, class information and whether the subject will be appropriate for her (lines 6-41) (Table 1 3a). There is only one acceptable outcome to the task (Table 1:4a). The goal is that Kathy gets all the necessary notes and class information such as when and where the classes are (for example lines 24-26). This information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange because the receiver of the information (Professor) also asks questions and adds information that is necessary to achieve the goal (for example lines 9-14; 18-26). Interaction is thus required to achieve the goal of the task (Table 2).

5.5   SCENARIO 14:

Sivuyile did not attend the test because he was ill. He goes to the lecturer after the class and apologizes to the lecturer and asks whether he may still write the test. The lecturer suggests that they go to his/ her office because the students of the next class have already arrived. There she asks him why he did not write the test and asks him about his well being and also if he has a letter from the doctor. She/ He also asks Sivuyile if he knows what work he must write about – they also talk about what he must focus on for the test, etc. The lecturer advises him to go to the secretary with his letter from the doctor. There Sivuyile and the secretary exchange greetings and they organize a date and place for him to write.

USivuyile uya kuProfessa emva kweklasi *(Sivuyile goes to the Professor after class).*   (1)

Sivuyile: Professa, andilubhalanga uvavanyo. Ndingakwazi ukulubhala kwakhona

(*Professor I did not write the test. Can I still write?*)

Prof: Ewe, kodwa masiye e-ofisini yam. Kukho enye iklasi apha ngoku (*Yes, but*

we must go to my office. There is another class here now).   (5)

Bahamba baya e-ofisini kaProfessa *(They walk to the Professor's office).*

Prof: Kutheni ungalubhalanga uvavanyo (*Why did you not write the test?)*   (7)

Sivuyile: Bendingaphilanga. Ndihleli ekhaya iintsuku ezimbini (*I was ill. I stayed at*

home for two days).

Prof: Uyile kwagqirha? (*Did you go to the doctor*?)

Sivuyile: Ewe, Professa. Uthe ndine-flu (*Yes, Professor. He said that I had flu*).   (11)

Prof: Uziva ngcono ke ngoku (*Are you better now?*)

Sivuyile: Ewe, ndibhetele ngoku. Ndingakwazi ukubhala uvavanyo (*Yes, I am better now. I will be able to write the test*).

Prof: Kuqala kufuneka unike incwadi kagqirha u-Secretary. Unayo (*First you must give the doctor's letter to the Secretary. You have it?*) (15)

Sivuyile: Ewe, Professa. Nantsi incwadi (*Yes Professor. Here it is*). (17)

Prof: Nika le ncwadi u-Secretary ngoku. Singaxoxa ngexesha nendawo ozokubhalela kuyo (*You must give this letter to the Secretary now. You can discuss a time and place so that you can write*). (19)

Sivuyile: Enkosi kakhulu Professa (*Thank you very much Professor*). (21)

Prof: Uyayazi into ozakubhala ngayo? (*You know what you must write about*?)

Sivuyile: Ewe, ngamaphepha 45 – 75 kuphela (*Yes, pages 45-75 only*).

Prof: Ewe nephepha 92. Uza kuphendula imibuzo emibini. Umbuzo wokuqala uza kubiza amanqaku anga-40 kwaye umbuzo wesibini uza kubiza amaqaku anga-60. Uqiniseke ukuba uphendula imibuzo ukuze ibe ngendlela yomhlathi (*Yes and page 92. You will answer two questions. Question one will count 40 marks and question two will count 60 marks. Make sure that you answer the question so that they are in paragraph form*). (25)

Sivuyile: Enkosi kakhulu, Professa. Ucinga ukuba ndingabhala nini? (*Thank you very much, Professor. When do you think I can write*?) (31)

Prof: Ndicinga ukuba kufuneka ufunde imihla emithathu, kodwa ke kuxhomekeke kuwe ukuba sewuwazi na umsebenzi wakho, kwaye sele uqalile ukufunda na? (*I think that it is necessary that you study for three days but it depends whether you understand the work and if you have started to study yet*) (33)

Sivuyile: Hayi, sendiqalile ukufunda. Enkosi kakhulu Professa. Sala kakuhle (*No, I have started already. Thank you very much Professor. Stay well*).   (37)

Prof: Hamba kakuhle Sivuyile (*Go well Sivuyile*).

Sivuyile unika icwadi kagqirha u-Secretary *(Sivuyile gives the letter of the doctor to the Secretary).*

Sceretary: Hmmm, Sivuyile. Ndiyathemba ukuba uphilile ngoku, kuba andifuni undisulele ngeflu (*I hope you are fully better now, because I do not want flu*).   (41)

ISecretary incume *(The Secretary smiles).*   (43)

Sivuyile: Ewe, nkosikazi. Ndiphilile. Ndiyathembisa ukuba awuzukuyifumana i-flu (Yes, Mrs. I am fully better. I promise you will not get flu).

Secrectary: Kulungile! uProfessa uthi ungabhala na? (*That is good! The Professor said that you can write?*)

Sivuyile: Ewe. Uthe ukuba zesiphinde sixoxe ngexesha nendawo yokubhala, kodwa kufuneka ndizinike imihla emithathu yokufunda (*Yes. She said that we must discuss a time and a place so that I can write, but I need three days to study*).   (48)

iSecretary: Ke ngoku uyakuba sele ugqibile ngoLwesine ngentsimbi yokuqala (*So you will be ready by Thursday at one*?)   (51)

Sivuyile: Ewe, ndicinga njalo (*Yes I think so*).

iSecretary: Uphinde uze e-ofisini yam ngoLwesine ngentsimbi yokuqala ukuze uzokubhala egumbini lokufundela phaya (*You must come again to my office on Thursday at 1'o clock then you can write here in the study room.*)   (55)

Sivuyile: Enkosi kakhulu nkosikazi. Ndiyathemba ukuba uza kuba nemini emnandi (*Thank you very much Mrs. I hope you have a nice day*)

iSecretary   Enkosi nawe ngokunjalo. Sobonana ngoLwesine. Hamba kakuhle (*Thank*   (59)

you the same to you. See you on Thursday. Go well).

The following sections consist of the identification of the various type task descriptions present in Scenario 14 as proposed by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). The second part of this section deals with the analyses of these various types of tasks according to complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). Lastly, a task type classification is given according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

5.5.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 14

Task type [1]: Enquiring and stating why a learner did not write a test.

Task type [2]: Instructing a learner on what to do when he/she did not write a test because of illness.

Task type [3]: Confirming and stating that the learner has the right information about the test (such as the work that has to be learned and how he/she should answer the questions in the test).

Task type [4]: Asking and giving advice on writing a missed test (how many days to study for the test).

Task type [5]: Organizing and confirming a date to write a missed test.

5.5.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 14

The task type [1] relating to enquiring and stating why a learner did not write test is illustrated in lines 7-14 and is analyzed according to the complexity properties as below:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now with some reference to the there-and-then
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of a combination of sentences in the present tense and the past tense. The topic is familiar. A low level of redundancy occurs and the information density is relatively low.
The communicative and cognitive processing demands	

The level of processing	Descriptive	The main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow and therefore the information in the text is simple to understand.
The text		
The vocabulary	The register of the conversation is informal even though the interlocutors differ of status and age. The reason for this informal greeting is because the interlocutors are familiar with each other. The vocabulary in the conversation is fairly simple.	
The syntax	The sentences are still relatively simple because even though the sentences consist of the past tense structure, the sentences do not consist of long embedded clauses.	
The text length and structure	The turn takings are relatively short and well structured which aid the understanding and reading of the text.	

The complexity analysis of task type [1] above indicates that this task type [1] can be placed towards the simpler side of the complexity continuum proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). The reason for this view stems from the level of processing and the low level of information density. The learners do not have to do a lot with the information as presented in order to come to an understanding and even though a low level of redundancy occurs, the vocabulary and syntax properties ensure that the complexity level of the task type [1] stays at a simpler descriptive level.

Lines 15-21 illustrate the task type [2] relating to instructing a learner on what to do when he/she did not write a test because of illness. The complexity analysis of this task type [2] description will mostly reveal the same information as the complexity analysis of task type [1] above because the level of processing entails the descriptive level. Therefore the main thoughts and ideas are easy to follow and simple to understand. The information under the different complexity properties will be the same as in the above complexity analysis for task type [1]. However the analysis for task type [2] differs at the level of abstraction in that it will only entail the here-and-now, resulting in the linguistic context entailing that the sentences of the conversation are only in the present tense.

The information represented in the complexity analysis for task type [2] illustrates that the information density is low and therefore the learners do not have much to do with the information as presented. The processing level is that of the descriptive level, thus the main thoughts and ideas are easy to follow. The textual features of the task type [2] are fairly simple even though the level of redundancy is low. This task type [2] can be placed towards the simple side of the complexity continuum.

The task type [3] relating to confirming and stating that the learner has the right information about the test (such as the work that has to be learned and how he/ she should answer the questions in the test) can be analyzed according to its complexity properties in the same manner as the task type [2] description above. This task type [3] is illustrated in lines 22-29. The complexity analysis demonstrates the same information in most of the complexity properties as in the above task type [2]. The level of redundancy will differ as the level of redundancy in this segment is relatively higher than in the previous task type [2]. The syntax property will also have some change as the sentences in this segment are longer than in the above task type [2]. The longer sentences however do not consist of long embedded sentences and therefore will not influence the complexity of the task to a great extend.

To summarize the solutions of the complexity analysis of task type [3], the information reveals that the learners are required to process the information as presented at a descriptive level. The information density is low and hence they do not need to reorganize or restructure any of the information that they are presented with. It is clear that this task type [3] description can be placed towards the simple side of the continuum regarding its complexity

The task type [4] relating to asking and giving advice on writing a missed test (how many days to study for the test) is illustrated in lines 30-38. The complexity analysis of this task type [4] description is given below:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense. The topic is familiar. A limited level of redundancy occurs and the information density is relatively low

The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive (moving towards the restructuring level)	The main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow and therefore the information in the text is simple to understand but the conversation consists of giving personal opinion. This might force the learners to restructure some of the information to come to an understanding.
The text		
The vocabulary	The register of the conversation is informal even though the interlocutors differ of status and age. The reason for this informal greeting is because the interlocutors are familiar with each other. The vocabulary in the conversation is new but still fairly simple.	
The syntax	The sentences in this conversation are a combination of long and short sentences. The longer sentences consist of embedded clauses but they are fairly simple to understand.	
The text length and structure	The turn takings are relatively short and well structured.	

The complexity analysis above indicates that the processing level is at the descriptive level moving towards the restructuring level. The reason for this is that the learners will be able to use the information as presented and will be able to understand it, but the giving of a personal opinion can be made more complex. In doing so, the level of processing will move towards the restructuring level. It is thus safe to say that this task type [4] description can be placed on the simple side of the complexity continuum, hence the fact that the processing is still on the descriptive level.

Lines 48- 56 illustrate the task type [5] relating to organizing and confirming a date to write a missed test. This segment is analyzed in the same manner as the task type [4] above as the

information reveals the same conclusion on most of the properties, except for the level of abstraction and the linguistic context. The level of abstraction entails a combination of the here-and-now and the there-and-then. Therefore the sentences in the linguistic context will consist of present and past tense sentences. The level of processing of this task type [5] will also be of the descriptive level and can be placed on the simpler side of the continuum regarding its complexity.

5.5.3 Task type classification for Scenario 14

Scenario 14 is predominantly an information-gap task according to Pica et al's classification since only one participant (Sivuyile) holds the information and supplies it to the other participant (Professor/ Secretary) as it is requested by that participant (lines 7-9) (Table 1: 1b). The one participant (Professor/ Secretary) is required to request the information and the other is required to supply it (lines 7-9) (Table 1:2b). However, both participants are working towards convergent goals since they try to establish what should be done about the problem stated by Sivuyile (he must write a missed test) (lines 15-21) (Table 1 3a). There is only one acceptable answer (lines 51-58) (Table 1:4a) and that is that Sivuyile must write the test. This information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange because the receiver of the information (Professor and Secretary) asks questions and adds information that is necessary to achieve the goal (for example lines 22-38). The goal is to find an appropriate date for Sivuyile to write the missed test. Interaction is thus required to achieve the goal of one outcome (Table 2). Without the interaction taking place in the scenario [14], an outcome would not be possible.

5.6   SCENARIO 15:

Alice arrives late for the class while the lecturer is busy with the class. She asks forgiveness for being late and the lecturer accepts her apology before going on with the class. After the class she asks the lecturer about work she missed and also gives her reason for being late. The lecturer reminds her that she should always be on time for her classes and also states why she should attend all her classes on time. The lecturer informs her about the work she had missed and always advises her that she should know the work for the test and that there is a tutor available if she does not understand the work.

UProfessa Silumko uthetha nabafundi eklasini.Benza umsebenzi obalulekileyo wemviwo. *(Professor Silumko is talking to the students in the class. They are busy with important work for the examination).*

Prof: …..Phofu ke khumbulani ukuba lo msebenzi ubalulekile kakhulu hayi nje ukulungiselela iimviwo qha nangenye imini xa nisebenza emisebenzini (5) yenu. Ke ngoko ndilindele ukuba niwuqondisise lo msebenzi kwaye ningawufundi nje ngenxa yemviwo qha. (*And remember that this work is very important not only for the test but for one day when you will be working in your jobs. Therefore I will expect you to understand the work and not just learn it for the sake of the test).*

UAlice: Molweni *engena eklasini ukhangela idesika evulekileyo ukuze ahlala kuyo.* Professa, ndicela uxolo ukuba ndingafiki kwangethuba *(Good day, she says (11) shyly while she enters the class and looks for an open desk to sit at. Professor I ask forgiveness that I am late*).

UProf: Kulungile Hlala phansti. Senza umsebenzi wemviwo. Khupha iincwadi zakho sifunda kwi phepha 121 esazulwini (*Ok. Sit down. We are busy with (15) the work for the exam. Take out your books we are on page 121 in the middle*).

UProfessa uqhubekeka ngeklasi kude kufika ixesha lenye iklasi *(The Professor continues with the class until it is time for the next period).*

UAlice: Uxolo Professa ukuba ndibe leyithi. Kuye kwabakho ingxinano yemoto (19) edleleni kulentsasa. Andifumananga nendawo yokupaka imoto naphina. Ndithe ekugqibeleni xa ndifumana indawo yokupaka kwabe kufuneka ndiye (21) ngasese. Ndizilibele emotweni iincwadi zam (*Sorry Professor that I am late. There was a traffic jam this morning. I could not find parking anywhere…And when I finally got parking I had to go to the bathroom. I*

forgot my books in the car….)

UProf: Kulungile, kodwa ndifuna ukuba uqonde ukuba le klasi ibalulekile   (25)

ukulungiselela imviwo nobomi bakho. Abazali bakho bayabhatala ngale

klasi. Abazukuthanda xa befumanisa ukuba uza leyithi kuzo zonke iklasi

(*Good, but I want you to understand that this class is important for the*

exam, and for your life. Your parents pay for this class. They will not like it

if they know that you come late for every class).

UAlice: Ndiyazi, Professa. Uxolo. Ingaba ndiphose umsebenzi na? (*I understand*

Professor. Sorry. Did I miss any work?)   (31)

UProf: Besisenza iiphepha 119 no120, kodwa ke omnye umsebenzi ubusele

useklasini.Qiniseka ukuba uyawafunda kwakhona lamaphepha uwazi, kuba   (33)

andizukuphinda ndidlule kuwo kwakhona (*We did pages 119 and 120, but*

for the rest of the work you were in the class. Make sure that you go

through those pages on your own and that you understand it, because I will

not go through them again).

UAlice: Ewe enkosi kakhulu, Professa. Ndiyathembisa soze ndiphinde ndibe leyithi

ukuza eklasini ezayo. (*Yes, Thank you very much Professor. I promise I will*   (39)

never be late again).

UProf: Ewe, kulungile. Xa usokola ngalo msebenzi ungacela iTutor ikuncede kuba   (41)

kufuneka siwugqibe lo msebenzi phambi kwemviwo. Yilonto kukho iTutor

ukunceda ufunde (*Yes, good. If you struggle with the work you can always*   (43)

ask the tutor to help you, but we need to go through this work quickly and

thoroughly before the exam. That is why the tutor is there to help you with   (45)

the studying.)

UAlice: Enkosi kakhulu, Professa (*Thank you very Professor*).

The following sections discuss the various type task classifications in scenario 15 as proposed by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). The discussion looks at the identification of the various types of tasks as well as analysing them according to a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). Furthermore, a suitable task type classification is provided according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

5.6.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 15

Task type [1]: Asking forgiveness for being late for a class and giving reasons for being late for a class and giving reasons for the importance of class attendance.

Task type [2]: Asking information and giving information about missed work.

Task type [3]: Suggesting the help of a tutor and stating the reason for the suggestion.

5.6.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 15

Lines 10- 13 and 19-29 illustrate the task type [1] relating to asking forgiveness for being late for a class, giving reasons for being late for a class and giving reasons for the importance of class attendance. This segment has been analyzed according to its complexity properties as previously stated in this section (see scenario 6 Task type [2]). The complexity analysis of the task type [1] follows in the same manner as in task type [2] in scenario 6, as some of the information given in the complexity analysis of aforementioned task type [2] is unchanged. The complexity analysis of task type [1] differs from that of task type [2] in scenario 6 in the properties of the level of abstraction and therefore also in the linguistic context. The level of abstraction in this task type [1] will include both the here-and-now and the there-and-then, with the result that the linguistic context consists of sentences in the present and past tense. Another property that is different for task type [1] is the level of cognitive processing. Task type [1] includes an elaborate explanation that relates to personal experiences, hence learners might have to reorganize some of the information to come to a better understanding. However, the main ideas and thoughts are still clear and understandable. The textual features property will also differ as this task type [1] consists of new vocabulary, but the vocabulary is still fairly simple even though the past tense is used.

The complexity analysis of task type [1] demonstrates that the level of processing is that of the descriptive level moving towards the restructuring level because of the elaborate

explanation given that refers to personal experiences. This might force some learners to reorganize some of the information as presented to get a better understanding. Task type [1] does not require the learners to fully process at a restructuring level because the main thoughts and ideas are still fairly simple and easy follow. The textual features, low information density and the concrete level of abstraction add to the processing being at the descriptive level. This task type [1] can be placed towards the simple side of the continuum regarding is complexity, but will be more complex than the task type [2] analyzed for scenario 6.

The task type [2] relating to asking information and giving information about missed work is illustrated in the segment in lines 30-36. The complexity analysis of this segment follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now with some reference to the there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of a combination of sentences in the present tense and the past tense. The topic is familiar. A limited level of redundancy occurs and the information density is relatively low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive	The main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow and therefore the information in the text is simple to understand.
The text		
The vocabulary	The register of the conversation is informal even though the interlocutors differ of status and age. The reason for this informal register is because the interlocutors are familiar with each other. The vocabulary in the conversation is fairly simple.	
The syntax	The sentences are still relatively simple because even though the sentences consist of the past tense structure, the sentences do not consist of long complex embedded clauses.	
The text length and	The turn takings are relatively short and well structured	

| **structure** | which aid the understanding and reading of the text. |

The complexity analysis above demonstrates that the task type [2] description entails processing at the descriptive level and that the information density is low. Therefore the learners do not have much to do with the information as presented. The textual features reveal that the task is relatively simple. The task type [2] can be made more complex by manipulating the textual features to be more complex, but because the textual features are relatively simple and the processing is at the descriptive level, the task type [2] can be placed towards the simple side of the continuum proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006).

Lines 41- 45 illustrate the task type [3] relating to suggesting the help of a tutor and stating the reason for the suggestion. The segment is analyzed according to the complexity properties in the same manner as the previous task type [2] description and will demonstrate the same level of processing. The analysis of task type [3] differs from the analysis of task type [2] above at the level of abstraction and the linguistic context. The level of abstraction only deals with the here-and-now, with the result that the linguistic context consists of present tense sentences. The complexity analysis of task type [3] thus demonstrates that, because of the processing level and the low information density along with the relatively simple textual features, this task type [3] description can be placed towards the simple side of the continuum regarding its complexity.

5.6.3 Task type classification for Scenario 15

Scenario 15 is predominantly an information-gap task according to Pica et al's classification since only one participant (Alice) holds the information and supplies it as it is requested by the other participant (Professor) (lines 10-16) (Table 1: 1b). One participant (Professor/ Alice) is required to respond to or request the information needed while the other participant is required to supply information (lines 19-37) (Table 1:2b). Both participants are working towards convergent goals since they try to establish an outcome to Alice's problem of missed work (lines 30-45) (Table 1 3a). Only one acceptable answer is available (lines 30-37) (Table 1:4a). This information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange because the receiver of the information (Professor) asks questions and adds information that is necessary to achieve the goal (for example lines 32-45). Interaction is thus required to achieve the goal of one outcome (Table 2).

5.7   SCENARIO 16:

Peter achieved very good marks for his test. The lecturer asks her/ his secretary to call Peter so that he can make an appointment with her/ him. The secretary asks questions to find out exactly which Peter the lecturer is talking about. She phones Peter and they make an appointment for him to see the lecturer. Peter goes to see the lecturer who praises him for the good work he has done and also talks and asks him questions about his future in the subject matter.

UProfessa ecela iSecretary (*The Professor asks the secretary*):

UProfessa: Nkosikazi, khawufonele UPeter Snyman. Wenze idinga lokundibana ngemviwo ezi ebezibhale ngoMvulo (*Mrs, Please phone Peter Snyman. He must make an appointment with me about the test they wrote on Monday*).

iSecretary: Ewe, uPeter ukweyiphi iklasi kanene? (*Yes, in which class is Peter?*)   (5)

UProf: Uxolo, uneklasi e-214 (*Sorry, he is in 214*)

iSecretary: Enkosi, ndiza kufumana inombolo yakhe. Ndilenzele eliphi ixesha elidinga lenu? (*Thank you I will get his number. What time suits you?*)

UProf: Khangela iDiary yam, ndicinga ukuba uLwesine ngentsimbi yeshumi uzabe elungile (*Look in my Diary, I think that I can see him on Thursday at 10*)   (9)

ISecretary ifowunela uPeter. Benza isigqibo sokudibana ngoLwesine ngo 10h00 (*The secretary phones Peter. They make an appointment for Thursday 10h00*).

iSecretary: Peter, uProfessa Silumko ufuna ukukubona ngoLwesine ngo-10 (*Peter, Prof. Silumko wants to see you on Thursday at 10*).

UPeter: Ewe? Kutheni? (*Yes, why?*)   (15)

iSecretary: Ufuna ukuthetha nawe ngoviwo lwakho olubhale ngoMvulo. Eli xesha likufanele (*He wants to talk to you about your exam that you wrote on*

Monday. Does the time suit you?)

UPeter: Ewe, nkosikazi. Ndiza kuba lapho (*Yes Mrs. I will be there*).   (19)

iSecretary: Enkosi, sala kakuhle (*Thank you stay well*)

ULwesine (*Thursday*)

UPeter: Molo, Professa (*Good day Professor*)

UProf: Molo, Peter, ngena. Ndiyaziqhenya ngawe, ngoba ufumene amanqaku   (23)

angaphezulu komntu wonke eklasini ngoviwo lwakho olu ubulibhala

ngomvulo. Wenze kakuhle (*Good day Peter, come in. I am very proud to*

say that you have achieved the best marks in the class for the exam that

you wrote on Monday. Well done!)

UProfessa unika iphepha uPeter *(The Professor gives the paper to Peter).*

UPeter ebona iphepha, encuma *(Peter looks at the paper and gives a broad smile)*   (29)

uPeter: Enkosi kakhulu Professa. Kodwa ndifunde kakhulu (*Thank you very*

much Professor. But I studied a lot/hard!)

UProf: Peter, ucinga ukuba uza kuqhubekeka ngesisifundo kunyaka ozayo?

Ndicinga ukuba ngumsebenzi omhle kakhulu, ndithandile ukumakisa   (33)

iphepha lakho kuba ndiyabona uyawuthanda. Usebenze kakhulu (*Peter,*

do you think that you will continue with this subject next year? I think

this is very good work and I enjoyed marking your paper, because I can

see that you are interested and that you work hard).

UPeter: Ewe, ndifuna ukuqhubekeka, kuba ndiyasithanda esisifundo kakhulu.

Ndicinga ukuba ndiza kulusebenzisa ulwazi endilufundileyo eklasini   (39)

emsebenzini wam ngenye imini (*Yes, I want to continue, because I like*

the subject very much. I think that I will use the knowledge that I learn in

class in my work one day).

UProf: Kulungile! Ndifuna ukuba uqhubekeke ngesisifundo, kuba ndicinga   (43)

uzakusebenzisa kakuhle ulwazi olufemene apha kuzo zonke inkalo zobomi bakho. Ufuna ukuba yintoni ngenye imini? (*Good! I want you to continue with the subject, because I think you will make good use of the knowledge in every aspect of your live. What do you want to be one day*?)

UPeter: Ndifuna ukusebenza kurhulumente (*I want to work in the government*)   (49)

UProf: Inika umdla Kutheni! (*Interesting! Why)*?

UPeter: Yinto yokuba/Kuba…. (*because*)

UPeter noProfessa bathetha ixesha elide ngesifundo nekamva lakhe kwade kwafika umntu ocwangcise ukudibana noProfessa *(Peter and the Prof. talk for a long time*   (53) *about the subject and his future until the person arrives for the next appointment).*

The following sections involve the identification of various types of tasks according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) and will be analyzed according to the complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) in order to place these various types of tasks on a complexity scale. Lastly the task typology of Pica et al is applied to this Scenario in order to provide a suitable task type classification.

5.7.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 16

Task type [1]: Asking and stating a suitable time to meet with a learner.
Task type [2]: Expressing feelings of being proud of a student for achieving high marks in a test.
Task type [3]: Asking about and sharing plans for the future of a student and the continuing of a subject in the next year.

5.7.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 16

The task type [1] relating to asking and stating a suitable time to meet with a learner is illustrated in lines 7-15 and is analyzed according to it complexity properties below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense and is a familiar topic. The redundancy that occurs is of a fair amount and the information density is low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The conversation follows a logic train of thoughts that are easy to follow and understand
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is fairly simple and frequently used in this type of conversation. The number of loan words also aid to the vocabulary being simple. The interlocutors know each other and are adult peers therefore the register is informal.	
The syntax	The sentences are fairly simple in that they are short and do not consist of long and complex embedded clauses.	
The text length and structure	The length of the text is short and well structured which contribute to the text being easy to follow.	

The task type [1] description above is very concrete as realized by the level of abstraction. The level of information processing required from the learner is relatively simple. Also, the complexity analysis above illustrates that the processing required entails the descriptive level. Therefore the learners do not have to reorganize the information as presented in order to come to a better understanding of the text. The textual features of vocabulary and syntax contribute to the task not being very complex. To conclude, the task type [1] can be expected to be placed towards the side of the complexity scale representing less complexity, as proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006).

Lines 23 -31 illustrate the task type [2] relating to expressing feelings of being proud of a student for achieving high marks in a test. The complexity analysis of this task type [2] follows in the same manner as the task type [1] above since the information revealed at each of the complexity properties remains the same. The analysis of task type [2] differs from task type [1] as the level of redundancy is very low. However, this will not influence the

complexity of the task type [2] because the information density is still low. The segment also does not consist of any loan words but the vocabulary is still fairly simple. The interlocutors are of a different age, yet the register is still informal because of the familiarity of the interlocutors. Task type [2] entails that the level of processing is that of the descriptive level, demonstrating that the learners do not have to do much with the information as presented. The task type [2] can be placed towards the side of the continuum resembling less complexity.

The task type [3] which relates to asking about and sharing plans for the future of a student and the continuing of a subject in the next year is illustrated in lines 38-51. The analysis of its complexity properties follows in the same manner as in the analyses above (task type [1] and [2]). Thus most of the information at each of the complexity properties remains the same. However, the analysis differs at the properties of vocabulary and syntax. The vocabulary is still fairly simple but consists of some new words. The sentences are fairly longer than in the previous analyses (task type [1] and [2]), consisting of embedded clauses. The level of processing is at the descriptive level, but because the sentences include expressing personal opinions, the level of cognitive processing will be higher than that of the previous types of tasks (task type [1] and task type [2]). The level of processing is not at the level of restructuring because of the information density being low and the vocabulary being fairly simple. The task type [3] can be made more complex by elaborating on the giving of personal opinions; this will result in the cognitive level being on the restructuring level and thus placing it towards the more complex side of the continuum. Because the level of processing is still at the descriptive level, the task type [3] can be placed towards the simple side of the continuum.

5.7.3 Task type classification for Scenario 16

According to Pica et al's typology of tasks, scenario 16 is predominantly a decision making task and includes features of an information exchange task. The task qualifies as a decision making task since all the participants (Peter and the professor) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task (knowledge of Peter's mark for the test) (Table 1: 1c). They all have resources and information available to them in order to establish whether or not Peter will continue with the subject in the next year. The information exchange flow is in a two way direction, and even though the interaction is not required (Table 1: 2c), all the participants work towards a single outcome (Table 1:3a). However, there *are* several

outcomes available (Table 1:4b). Peter can decide if he wants to continue with the subject or not (lines 38-49) and he may state his answer why he would like to continue or not (lines 49-51). During this decision making process/ discussion, the participants are also giving and sharing opinions and the one participant (professor) requests information as the other supplies it – therefore the task has characteristics of an information exchange task (lines 32-49).

5.8   SCENARIO 17:

Thandile was absent from class for a few weeks. She visits the lecturer in his/ her office. She explains that she missed some work and that she is scared because she now does not understand the work that they have done in the class and she has to write a test about the work soon. The lecturer asks her why she was not in class and Thandile gives her reason (example-she was in an accident etc.). The lecturer tells her what she has missed and also advises her on what she should do if something like this happens again.

UThandile   Nkqo, nkqo, nkqo   (1)

UProf   Ungangena (*Please come in*)

UThandile ungena eofisini (*Thandile enters the office*)

UProf   Ndingakwenzela ntoni? (*What can I do for you*?)

UThandile   Professa ndinguThandile Mafika. Ndingumfundi okunyaka wesibini (5)

(*Professor I am Thandile Mafika. I am in the second year class*).

UProf   Ewe? Yintoni le nto ikukhathazayo (*It is what this thing that worries

you*)

UThandile   Ingxaki yam inkulu kakhulu. Andikhange ndiye eklasini iveki ezimbini,

ndiphose umsebenzi omninzi kakhulu. Ngoku andiwazi lo msebenzi   (11)

siwenzayo eklasini. Ndiyoyika kakhulu, ndinexhala ngemviwo (*My

problem is big. I was not in class for a few weeks and I missed a lot of

work. Now I do not understand the work that we are doing in class. I

am very scared because what about the exams?*)

UProf   Awu?! Kutheni ubungekho eklasini? Uthi ziveki ezingaphi ungekho? (17)

(Why were you not in class? And how many weeks of work did you miss?)

UThandile   Into yile yokuba bendikwingozi kwafuneka ndihlale esibhedlele iveki yonke, kwaye noGqirha uthe kufuneka ndihlale enye iveki futhi (21) ekhayeni. Ndiphose umsebenzi weveki ezimbini (*It is because I was in an accident I was in the hospital for one week, but the doctor said I was stay at home for another week. Thus I missed two weeks of class*).

UProf   Uziva njani ngoku? (*How do you feel now?*)

UThandile   Hayi, ndisaphila ngaphandle komlenze wam (*No I am fine except for* (27) *my leg*)

UThandile ubonisa uProfessa umlenze wakhe. Unezinxonxo ezininzi *(Thandile shows her leg to the Prof. It has a lot of scars)*.

UProf   Ubonakala ubuhlungu. Kodwa kwixesha elizayo xa into enjengale (31) iphinda isenzeka kufuneka ufowunele iSecretary uyixelele ukuze indazisa ngento enje. Ngalondlela silungisela ukuba ufumane umsebenzi kwangethuba. Kwaye singakwazi nokulwandisa ixesha lovavanyo. Xa ubuya njengangoku usinike incwadi kagqirha nje (35) ngesiqinisekiso (*That looks very sore. But next time when something like this happens you must contact the secretary to inform her of the situation. In that way we can organize that you get the work. And in some cases we can extend your test date. When you are back, like now,* (39) *you must give your letter from the doctor to her as proof*).

UThandile   Ndiyayiqonda lonto, Prof. Bendingayazi. Uxolo (*I understand* (41) *Professor I did not know. Sorry*).

UProf   Ngoku, kufuneka uye kuSecretary ukuze akunike amaphepha

omsebenzi owuphosileyo. Ndifuna ukuba uwafunde onke lamaphepha.

Xa unanyo iingxaki ungaphinda uzokundibona. Ndizakulungisa ixesha (45)

neTutor (*Now you must go to the secretary so that she can give you the*

notes of the work that you missed. I want you to go through it and study

it. If you have further problems you can come back to me. I will then

organize a time for you with a tutor).

UThandile   Enkosi kakhulu Professa (*Thank you very much Professor*)

UProf   Kodwa ungathathi ixesha elide ukufunda wonke lomaphepha. (51)
Kubalulekile   ukuba   ufunda   ngokhawuleza,   kuba   uzokwazi
ukubafumana abanye, kodwa ukuba uthatha ixesha elide umsebenzi
uzakubanzima (*But do not take a long time to go through this work. It*

is important to go through it as soon as possible, because then you can

still catch up, but if you wait too long you may find the work very

difficult)

UThandile   Enkosi   kakhulu,   Professa.   Musa   ukukhathazeka   ndiza   kuya
kwiSecretary ngoku ukufumana amapheha. Sala kakuhle Professa (59)
(*Thank   you   very   much   Professor.   Do   not   worry   I   will   go   to   the*

Secretary now to get the notes. And start to go through it today still.

Stay well Professor).

UProf   Kulungile! Hamba kakuhle. Ndiyathemba ukuba umlenze wakho (63)

uzakuphila ngokukhawuleza (*Good! Go well. I hope your leg feels*

better soon)

In the following sections various types of tasks are identified according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). These types of tasks are analyzed and placed on a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). A task type classification is also provided according to Pica et al's task typology.

5.8.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 17

Task type [1]: Stating and giving a reason for not being in class for a few weeks.

Task type [2]: Giving a learner advice on what should be done (according to procedures to be followed) in the case of missing classes and giving instruction on what should be done in order to catch up with the work that the learner has missed.

5.8.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 17

The task type [1] relating to stating and giving a reason for not being in class for a few weeks is illustrated in lines 10- 25. The analysis of the type task according to its complexity properties follows below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Combination of here-and-now and there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense and some sentences in the future tense. A relatively low level of redundancy occurs but the information density is of a good level.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	High Descriptive level moving toward a low restructuring level.	The main ideas and thoughts are easily understood. The learner is able to follow the conversation but because the conversation consist of personal experiences some of the learners might have to reorganize some of the information in order to come to a better understanding.
The text		
The vocabulary	The interlocutors in this conversation do not know each other and differ of age therefore the register of the conversation is more formal than informal. The vocabulary used in the	

	conversation is fairly simple.
The syntax	The sentences are a combination of long and short sentences. The longer sentences consist of embedded clauses that are more complex than the shorter sentences.
The text length and structure	The length of the text is of a good length and is structured well.

The complexity analysis of the task type [1] illustrates that the task type [1] description is concrete. Because the learners are exposed to personal experiences, one can argue that reorganization of the information occurs in order for the learners to come to a better understanding of the content. The learners will have to reorganize the information when the intention is to use the information of the content segment outside of the classroom. In such cases, the information processing will entail processing at the restructuring level. However, the information in this task type [1] is still understandable as it is presented, therefore it can be concluded that the level of processing will rather be of a high descriptive level. No matter which argument is preferred, the placing will be towards the side of the continuum that represents more complexity.

The task type [2] relating to giving a learner advice on what should be done (according to procedures to be followed) in the case of missing classes and giving instruction on what should be done in order to catch up with the work that the learner has missed is illustrated in lines 31-58. The complexity analysis of this task type [2] description follows in the same manner as the task type [1] above. The level of cognitive processing remains the same as above (high descriptive to low restructuring), but not for the same reasons as in task type [1]. Some of the information at the various complexity properties differs. The analysis of task type [2] differs from task type [1] at the level of abstraction, linguistic context, and syntax and text length. The level of abstraction only deals with the here-and-now, making the task type [2] concrete. The level of abstraction is causative for the linguistic context, consisting of only present tense sentences. The syntax differs from that of task type [1] since the sentences are very long, consisting of long and complex embedded clauses that also contribute to the text being much longer than in the segment of task type [1].

To conclude on task type [2], the level of cognitive processing is of a high descriptive level or low restructuring level. This is due to the text length, syntax and level of redundancy as well as the level of information density. The long, elaborated and more complex sentences may

result in some learners having to reorganize the information in order to understand and follow the text better. Because the information density is not very high, the task type [2] will not entail processing at a purely restructuring level (some learners will be able to follow the text without having to reorganize the information at hand). No matter which argument, the placing of this type task [2] will be to the more complex side of the complexity continuum.

5.8.3 Task type classification for Scenario 17

According to Pica et al's typology of tasks, scenario 17 is predominantly a problem solving task. Both the participants (Professor and Thandile) hold and request shared information in order to solve the problem: that Thandile has to catch up with and understand missed work in order to write the examination (for example lines 10-25, 31- 57) (Table 1: 1c). The information exchange flow is in a two way direction, but the interaction between the participants is not required in order to solve the problem (Thandile can solve the problem on her own) (Table 1: 2c). The participants work together towards a convergent goal (Table 1: 3a), which is to make sure Thandile catches up with the class work and understands it. There is only one outcome available (Table 1:4a) as Thandile has to understand the work in order to write the test.

5.9   SCENARIO 18:

William has to do a presentation in class but he will not be able to be in class because of other responsibilities (for example he has to go for his driver's license). He notifies the lecturer that he will not be able to do his presentation. The lecturer is not really pleased because the students knew about the presentation for a long time, but is glad that William excused himself before the due date of this presentation. The lecturer gives him handouts that William must study and arranges another time for him to do his presentation.

UWilliam   Molo Professa (*Good day Professor*).   (1)

UProf   Molo. Ungubani igama lakho (*Good day. What is your name*)?

UWilliam   NdinguWilliam, ndenza u-318 (*I am William I do Xhosa 318*)

UProf   Ewe, ndingakunceda ngantoni? (*Yes, with what can I help you*?)

UWilliam   Andizukwazi ukwenza i-presentation ngomso ngokuba ndiya kuviwo (5)

lokuqhuba eTraffic Department (*I cannot do my presentation tomorrow*

because I will go for my drivers license at the Traffic Department).

UProf   Kodwa ubusazi nge-presentation ixesha elide (*But you knew about this*

presentation for a long time)

UWilliam   Ndiyazi kodwa andinakuya ngelinye ixesha kuba i-license yam iza

kuphelelwa. Leli xesha kuphela ekuzakube kuvuliwe e-traffic Department (11)

(*I know but I cannot go another time because my license will expire. It is*

the only time they have open at the Traffic Department).

UProf   Ndiyakuva. Kulungile, enkosi ngondazisa Thatha nanga amaphepha. Siza

kwenza wona ngomso. Ufunde lamaphepha (*I hear you. Good thank you* (15)

for letting me know. Take these notes we will do them tomorrow. Make

sure that you go through them to).

UWilliam   Enkosi kakhulu Professa (*Thank you very much Professa*)

UWilliam uthatha amaphepha *(William takes the notes)* (19)

UWilliam   Ndingayenza ipresentation eklasini elandelayo xa uProfessa eyifuna

lonto? (*I can do the presentation in the next class if Professor wants it that*

way?)

UProf   Hayi, uLisa uza kwenza ipresentation yakhe. Kodwa ungenza

ipresentation yakho emva kwakhe ukuba likhona ixesha, ngapha koko (23)

ungenza eyakho ipresentation emva kokuba begqibe bonke abantu

ngezabo kwiklasi yango Lwesine. (*No Lisa will do her presentation. But*

you can do your presentation after her if there is time otherwise you can

do it after everybody has done their presentations in the Thursday class).

uWilliam   Kulungile Professa (*That is good Professor*) (27)

UProf   Uxhalabile ngengomso? (*Are you nervous for tomorrow?*)

uWilliam   Ewe, ndide ndane ndawo etyityimbayo lixhala! Ndizobe ndiqala ukwenza

lento. Andiyazinento emandiyilindele (*Yes, I am shaking of nerves! This

will be my first time. I do not know what to expect).

UProf   Sukuzikhathaza. Ndiqinisekile ukuba zonke izinto ziza kulunga (*Do not

worry. I am sure you will be fine)

UWilliam   Ndiyathemba (*I hope so*)

UProf   Yanga ungaphumelela William (*You can pass William*)   (35)

UWilliam   Enkosi Professor. Sala kakuhle (*Thank you Professor. Stay well*)

UProf   Hamba kakuhle William (*Go well. William*)

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), various types of tasks can be identified in a task. The following section includes such identification of various tak types. Thereafter these task types are analyzed and placed on a complexity scale proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). A task type classification is provided according to the work done by Pica et al (1993).

5.9.1 Types of tasks identification for Scenario 18

Task type [1]: Stating and giving reasons for not being able to do a presentation.
Task type [2]: Organizing an alternative date for a presentation.
Task type [3]: Expressing and sharing feelings about anxiety and reassurance.

5.9.2 Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 18

The task type [1] relating to stating and giving reasons for not being able to do a presentation is illustrated in lines 5-17 and is analyzed according to its complexity properties below:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now
The linguistic context	The conversation consists of sentences in the present tense and the topic is familiar in the context of the campus. A relatively low level of redundancy occurs and the level of

	information density is also low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main thought and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow and to understand.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is simple, consisting of some loan words and frequently used vocabulary in the context. The register is of a slightly formal nature because the interlocutors differ of age but they know each other.	
The syntax	The sentences are of a fairly good length as some of the sentences consist of clauses. These clauses are fairly simple.	
The text length and structure	The text is of a good length and is well structured.	

The complexity analysis of the task type [1] description above illustrates that the task type [1] description is concrete, hence the level of abstraction. The learner is not required to process the information as presented at a very complex level. This is because the information density is low and the processing will thus entail processing at a descriptive level. This task type [1] can be placed towards the side of the continuum that represents less complexity.

Lines 20-26 illustrates the task type [2] relating to organizing an alternative date for a presentation. This task type [2] description is analyzed according to its complexity properties in the same manner as in the task type [1] above. The information at each of the properties remains the same. However, the analysis differs regarding syntax and text length. The sentences are fairly simple, which are also causative for the text being much shorter than the segment of task type [1]. The analysis thus reveals that the level of processing remains that of the descriptive level and therefore the learners are not required to do much with the information as presented. The vocabulary and syntax as well as the text length features are fairly simple, contributing to the placing of the task type [2] to the side of the continuum representing less complexity.

The task type [3], which relates to expressing and sharing feelings about anxiety and reassurance, is illustrated in lines 28-35. The analysis follows in the same manner as in the

two types of tasks above (task type [1] and task type [2]). The information at each of the complexity properties remains the same. The level of processing is still that of the descriptive level and the vocabulary, syntax and text length remains fairly simple. Even thought the level of redundancy is low, the information density is also low, contributing to the level of processing being at the descriptive level. The conversation includes the expression of personal feelings, but these can be learned as fixed expressions by beginner learners and are therefore not seen as complex. The task type [3] can thus be placed towards the side representing less complexity on the continuum proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006).

5.9.3 Task type classification for Scenario 18

According to Pica et al's typology of tasks, scenario 18 is predominantly a problem solving task. Both the participants (Professor and William) hold and request shared information in order to solve the problem of the date of William's presentation (lines 6-18) (Table 1: 1c). The information exchange flow is in a two way direction, but the interaction between the participants is not required (Table 1: 2c). The participants work together towards a convergent goal (lines 20-26) (Table 1: 3a) in order to find a suitable time for William to do his presentation.Only one outcome is available (Table 1:4a): William has to do the presentation.

5.10 SCENARIO 19:

Some of the students in the class did not receive textbooks. They go to the lecturer and ask where they can find textbooks and the framework of the year. The lecturer asks them why they did not receive the textbooks as she handed them out in the class and that they had to sign that they received the textbook and notes. The students give her/ him their reasons. The lecturer asks how many of the students did not receive the textbook. When they answer her, she/ he is very shocked and angry and explains why it is so important that they must attend their classes (for example, they miss important information and they pay for each class). He gives them the textbooks and notes.

Abafundi   Molo Titshala (*Good day teacher*)

Utitshala   Moloweni Bafundi. Ndinganinceda ngantoni namhlanje (*Good day*

              students. With what can I help you today?)

Umfundi omnye uyaphendula. Igama lakhe nguLisa. (*One student answers. Her name is Lisa*). (5)

ULisa   Titshala, asizifumenanga iincwadi zesisifundo (*Teacher we did not receive the books for this subject*)

UTitshala   Kutheni? (*Why?*)

Bonke abafundi bayanjongana abaphenduli (*All the student look at each other not saying a word*). (9)

UTitshala   Beniseklasini? (*Were you in class*?)

ULarissa   Ewe, Titshala. Bendiseklasini kodwa ziye zaphela esithubeni (*Yes, Teacher. I was in class but there were not enough notes*).

ULisa   Hayi, bendingekho mna eklasini kodwa bendicele umhlobo wam ukuba andiphathele, kodwa khange ndizifumane kuye. (*No, I was not in the class but I asked a friend to get the books for me, but I did not get it from her*). (15)

UTitshala   Ewe, yinto yokuba bonke abafundi basayine ukuba bazifumene iincwadi. Ndiqinisekile ukuba bekukho iincwadi ezoneleyo, kuba ndibuze eklasini khange kubekho bafundi bathi abazifumenanga (*Yes it s because each student must sign that they receive the textbooks. I am sure that there were enough books because I asked in class if everybody received books and nobody said that they did not*). (19)

ULarissa   Sicela uxolo Titshala. Andikhange ndikuve (*We are sorry Teacher. I did not hear you*) (25)

USara   Ndineencwadi, kodwa andiyifumenanga i-framework (*I have the books but I did not get the framework*) (27)

UTitshala   Ewe, ndiyazi ukuba i–framework bezizakuphela esithubeni. Nibangaphi abafundi abangafumenanga zincwadi? (*Yes, I know that the frameworks were not enough. How many of you did not get the textbooks?*)

ULisa   Sisixhenxe, Titshala (*Seven, Teacher*)

UTitshala   Isixhenxe! Awu! Nibaninzi kakhulu! Kwaye beningekho eklasini? (33)

Andizukiyinyamezela le nto ukusukela ngoku, kufuneka niqiniseke ukuba

niseklasini amaxesha onke, ukuze nizokufumana yonke inkcazelo kunye

nencwadi. Xa usazi ukuba awuzukwazi ukuza eklasini kufuneka undazise

ukuze sizokuyilungiselela lonto kwangethuba. Into yesibini, abazali benu (37)

bayabhatala ngeziklasi ninanzo. Ndiqinisekile ukuba abayithandi le nto.

Nicitha imali yabo emanzini! (*Seven! That is a lot! And you were not in*

class. I will not tolerate this in the future; you must make sure that you are

in all the classes so that you can get the information and notes. If you

know that you will not be able to come to class you must let me know so

that I can arrange something for you. Secondly, your parents pay or each (43)

and every class you have. I am sure they will not like it if you do not go to

your classes. You are throwing their money in the water!)

UTitshala unomsindo kakhulu xa ethetha le nto (*The teacher is very angry when he*

says this)

UTitshala   Hambani niyekuSecretary. Uza kuninika iincwadi nee-framework. Kodwa

ndiza kuyithathela ingqalelo lento. Kuzo zonke iklasi sizakubhala phantsi (49)

abantu abangekhoyo ukuze xa kuphela unyaka ukuba awusebenzanga

kakuhle kwaye ufuna ukukhalaza sibone ukuba ubusiza na apha eklasini

(*Go to the Secrectary. She will give you the books and framework. But I*

will take note of this. In every class we will have an absentees list so that (53)

at the end of the year if you do badly and you want to complain we can see

if you were in class).

Abafundi   Uxolo Titshala (*Sorry Teacher*)

ULisa   ndiqinisekile ukuba le nto ayizukwenzeka kwakhona (*I am sure this thing* (57)

will not happen again)

ULarissa   Siyathembisa (*We promise*)

UTitshala   Kulungile. Niqiniseke ukuba nifumene yonke into kuquka nazozonke iincwadi ne-framework kuba umninzi umsebenzi ekufuneka siwenze (61) kulonyaka kwaye andifuni niphoswe nangomnye (*That is good. Make sure that you get all the books and framework for we have a lot of work to do this year and I do not want you to miss any work*).

Abafundi   Ewe Titshala (*Yes Teacher*)   (65)

ULarissa   Enkosi kakhulu (*Thank you very much*)

Abafundi bama ngaselucangweni belindele ukuhamba (*The students stand ready to go at the door*)

UTitshala   Hambani kakuhle. Sobonanani eklasini (*Go well. See you again in class*)

Abafundi   Sala kakuhle. Sobonana (*Stay well. See you again*)

The following section looks at the identification of various types of tasks as proposed by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), which are then analyzed according to various complexity properties in order to place the type of task on a complexity scale. These complexity properties and the complexity scale are proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). A task type classification is also provided according to the task typology of Pica et al.

5.10.1   Types of tasks identification for Scenario 19

Task type [1]: Stating and giving reasons for not receiving class notes, frameworks and books.
Task type [2]: Asking and stating how many students did not receive class notes, books and frameworks (This task type [2] also entails the expressing disappointment and giving reasons and advice on why class attendance is important).
Task type [3]: Instructions on where and how learner can obtain class notes, books and frameworks (this task type [3] also entails expressing warning).

5.10.2   Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 19

Task type [1] relating to stating and giving reasons for not receiving class notes, frameworks and books is illustrated in lines 6-28. This task type [1] is analyzed according to its complexity properties below:

The world		
The level of abstraction	Combination of here-and-now and there-and-then	
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the past and present tense. The topic is familiar in this context. A fair level of redundancy occurs. A relatively fair level of information density occurs.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	High descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas are understood and can be followed. The information density in the text requires that some learner might have to focus more in order to follow the conversation.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is used fairly frequent in this context. There is some new vocabulary present in this segment (mostly because of the past tense structure that is used). The vocabulary consists of a combination of simple and more complex words. The register is of a more formal nature because of the age difference between the interlocutors.	
The syntax	The sentences consist of a combination of long and more complex sentences and short simple sentences. Most of the sentences consist of embedded clause making them more complex than the other shorter sentences.	
The text length and structure	The text is of a reasonable length and well structured.	

The complexity analysis of the task type [1] description above indicates that this task type [1] can be placed towards the more complex side of the continuum proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). The level of information density is higher than in some of the other task type descriptions that also entail processing at a descriptive level. This is because there are more participants in the conversation; therefore the learners need to focus more on following the conversation. Because the level of redundancy is fair and the textual features are not of a very complex nature, the task type [1] will entail processing purely at a high descriptive level

Task type [2], relating to asking and stating how many students did not receive class notes, books and frameworks, is illustrated in lines 29-47. (This task type [2] also entails the expressing disappointment and giving reasons and advice on why class attendance is important.) Lines 48- 55 and 60-65 illustrate the task type [3] relating to instructions on where and how learner can obtain class notes, books and frameworks (this task type [3] also entails expressing warning). The complexity analysis of this task type [2] follows in the same manner as the task type [1] analysis above. However, the analysis differs at some of the complexity properties. The information at the level of abstraction and linguistic context differ from the analysis of task type [1]. The level of absraction entails only the here-and-now, causing the linguistic context to entail sentences mostly in the present tense. The level of redundancy and information density of task type [2] remains the same as in task type [1]. This is because of the complex sentences and length as well as the more complex vocabulary that is used in the segment of task type [2]. Therefore the level of processing will remain that of a high descriptive level and the task type [2] can be placed towards the side of the continuum that represents more complexity.

Task type [3]: Instructions on where and how learner can obtain class notes, books and frameworks (this task type [3] also entails expressing warning).

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense. The topic is familiar in this context. A low level of redundancy occurs. A relatively low level of information density occurs.
The communicative and cognitive processing demands	

The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas are understood and can be followed.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is used fairly frequent in this context and are fairly simple. The register is of a more formal nature because of the age difference between the interlocutors.	
The syntax	The sentences consist of a combination of long and more complex sentences and short simple sentences. The longer sentences consist of embedded clauses. These embedded clauses are however fairly simple	
The text length and structure	The text is of a reasonable length and well structured.	

The complexity analysis above illustrates that this task type [3] can be placed towards the side of the continuum representing less complexity. Even though a low level of redundancy occurs in the task type [3], the level of information density is still relatively low. Therefore the learners are not required to do a lot with the information as presented.

5.10.3   Task type classification for Scenario 19

According to Pica et al's typology of tasks, scenario 19 can be classified predominantly as an information gap task. The one group of participants each holds information of their own (Lisa, Larissa and Sara) and supplies it to the other participant (Professor) as it is requested (lines 6-17; 29-33) (Table 1: 1b). The one participant (Professor) is required to request the information and the other is required to supply it (lines 6-17; 29-33) (Table 1:2b). Both participants are working towards convergent goals since they try to establish who received all the class notes, frameworks and books (lines 29-33) (Table 1 3a). There is only one acceptable answer (the number of learners who did not receive notes, books and frameworks) (Table 1:4a). The outcome of the task is that all these learners must receive the suitable work that they did not receive. This information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange because the receiver of the information (Professor) also asks questions and adds information that is necessary to achieve the goal (for example lines 11, 18-24, 29-30). The goal is to make sure

all the learners receive class notes, books and frameworks. Interaction is thus required to achieve the goal of one outcome (Table 2).

5.11 SCENARIO 20:

It is almost the end of the year. Melissa wants to go on with the subject but is not sure if it is possible because of certain criteria (for example if she did the right modules in order to continue with the subject the following year). She visits the lecturer, Dr. Ngcobo, in his office. They have some 'small talk' before she states the reason for her visit. The lecturer reassures her that she will be able to have the subject the next year, because she is a hard worker and because she achieved high marks for the subject. She/ He advises her on what she might experience the following year regarding the work load etc. and what modules she needs to take for the next year.

UMelissa   Molo, Gqirha Ngcobo (*Good day, Doctor Ngcobo*)

UGqirha   Molo. Ndicela uhlale phantsi. Masithethe (*Please sit down. Let us talk*)

UMelissa uhlala phantsi esitulweni (*Melissa sits down on the chair*).   (3)

UGqirha   Baninzi abafundi abazokundibona. Andikhumbuli onke amagama abo,
              kodwa ndikhumbula ubuso. Ndiyabazi ubuso bakho kodwa ungubani
              igama lakho? (*There are so many students who come to see me. I do not
              remember all the names, but I remember the faces. I know your face but
              what is your name?*)

UMelissa   NdinguMelissa ndenza isiXhosa 114 (*I am Melissa, I do Xhosa 114*).   (9)
              Ungakhathazeki ndiyayiqonda lento uyithethayo. Nam andiwakhumbuli
              amagama wabafundi. Sibanintsi! (*Do not worry I understand. I also
              cannot remember the names of the students. We are so many!*)

UGqirha   Ewe, ningaphaya kwekhulu phaya eklasini! Ndiyakukhumbula ngoku.   (13)
              Uhlakaniphile, usoloko uhlala ngaphakathi esididikini seklasi. Unxiba
              iindondo ukuba andiphazami? *Yes, you are over a hundred in the class. I*

remember you now. You are the bright student who always sits in the middle of the class. You wear glasses if I am not mistaken?)

UMelissa   Ewe! Yinto yokuba ndingaboni ebhodini (*Yes it is do that I can see on the boar*d)

UMelissa uyancuma ngelixesha athetha le nto (*Melissa smiles while saying this*)

UGqirha   Ndingakunceda njani namhlanje? (*How can I help you today?*)   (21)

UMelissa   Ndifuna ukuqhubekeka ngesiXhosa kunyaka ozayo. Ingxaki yam yinto yokuba ndinesiXhosa somgangatho omnye, andiyazi ukuba (23) ndingaqhubekeka na ngesisifundo, ngenxa yalonto (*I wish to go on with isiXhosa next year. The problem is that I have basic Xhosa only and I do not know if I may go on with the subject because of this*).

UGqirha   Ewe, ungaqhubekeka, kodwa kufuneka ukuba ubenamanqaku ancumisayo (27) napha esiXhoseni kuba umsebenzi uza kuba mninzi kakhulu kunyaka ozayo. Enye into, kufuneka uzimisele ukusebenza nzima kakhulu. Kufuneka ukuba ubeneklasi ezingaphezulu kunesiqhelo. Ucinga ukuba uzokwazi ukwenza lonto? (*Yes, you may go on with the subject, but it is* (31) *necessary that you have a good mark for isiXhosa, because the work will be a lot next year. The other thing is that you must be able to work hard. It is necessary that you go to an extra class as well. Do you think you will be able to do this?*)

UMelissa   Ewe, Professa! Ndiyasithanda esi sifundo kakhulu! Ndiza kufunda nzima kakhulu kuba ndicinga esi sifundo siza kundivulela amacango amaninzi. (37) Ndiyazi ukuba ndingasebenza nzima kuba ndisasebenza nzima. Ndifumene i-90% ngesiXhosa! (*Yes, Professor! I am willing to study hard* (39) *because I believe that this subject will open doors for me. I know I will be able to work hard because I work hard the whole year. I got 90% for*

isiXhosa!)

UGqirha	Kulungile! Kufuneka ukuba ubeno-75% kwisiXhosa, xa ufuna	(43)

ukuqhubekeka nesiXhosa kunyaka ozayo. Ke wena usilungele! Ndiqinisekile ukuba ungumfundi osebenza nzima. Ndisoloko ndikubona naseklasini, kwaye imisebenzi yakho ifika kwangexesha. Andinagxaki ngawe kulonyaka kwaye ndiyathemba ukuba kuzakuba njalo nakozayo (47) unyaka. Into ebalulekileyo yokuba wena uzithembe, kwaye usoloko uzilolonga kwesisifundo. (*The criterion is that you must have at least 75% for basic Xhosa if you want to go on with it in the second year. So you qualify! And I am sure that you are a hard worker. I always see you in class and you always give in your assignments in on time. I did not have a problem with you this year and I am sure I will not have a problem with* (53) *you next year. The only thing is that you must believe in yourself and practice, practice, practice*).

UMelissa   Enkosi Gqirha (*Thank you Dr.*).

UMelissa ulungiselela ukuphakama (*Melissa gets herself ready to stand up*)   (57)

UMelissa   Enye into, xa ndikhetha iimodule ngonyaka ozayo, ndikhethe eziphi iimodule? (*Another thing, if I choose the modules for next year, which module must I choose?*)

UGqirha   Kufuneka ukuba ukhetha iimodule 214 no-244. Kufuneka ezi zimodule (61) uzithathe zombini (*It is necessary that you take modules 214 and 244. You must take both modules*)

UMelissa   Enkosi, Gqirha. Sala kakuhle (*Thank you Doctor. Stay well*)

UGqirha   Hamba kakuhle. Ubeneholide emnandi kakhulu. Ndiza kukubona (65) kunyaka ozayo. Uphumle kakhulu uza kusebenza nzima kunyaka ozayo (*Go well. Have a nice holiday. I will see you next year. Make sure that you*

rest well so that you can work hard next year).

UGqirha uncumile xa ethetha lento (*The Doctor smiles while saying this thing*)   (69)

UMelissa   Ndizokwenza njalo. Enkosi kakhulu Gqirha. Sala kakuhle (I will. Thank

you Doctor. Stay well).

UMelissa uthetha le nto ephuma e-ofisini (*Melissa says this while exiting the office*)

Below, various types of tasks are identified according to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). Thereafter these types of tasks are analyzed according to complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006). The analyzed task types can then be placed on a complexity scale with regards to the information that the various complexity properties reveal. Lastly a task type classification is provided according to the task typology of Pica et al (1993).

5.11.1   Types of tasks identification for Scenario 20

Task type [1]: Asking and giving information on the identification of a learner.

Task type [2]: Enquiring whether or not a learner may continue with a subject in the next year.

Task type [3]: Asking about and stating the ability to continue with a subject in the next year.

Task type [4]: Giving criterion of a subject for the next year.

Task type [5]: Asking and stating the choice of modules for the next year.

5.11.2   Complexity analyses for the types of tasks of Scenario 20

Task type [1] relating to asking and giving information on the identification of a learner is illustrated in lines 4-19. This task type [1] description is analyzed according to its complexity properties below:

The world	
The level of abstraction	Here-and-now
The linguistic context	The conversation consists mostly of sentences in the present tense. The topic is very familiar to the learners learning the content. A relatively fair amount of redundancy occurs and

	the information density is fairly low.	
The communicative and cognitive processing demands		
The level of processing	Descriptive level	The main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow.
The text		
The vocabulary	The vocabulary is frequently used in this type of conversation and is fairly simple. The register is of a more formal nature hence the age difference between the two interlocutors.	
The syntax	The sentences are fairly short consisting only of a few simple clauses and conjunctions such as **kuba** (because) and **kodwa** (because).	
The text length and structure	The text is fairly short and well structured.	

The complexity analysis of task type [1] above indicates that the level of cognitive processing entails that of the descriptive level. The level of redundancy is low as is the the level of information density. Therefore the learners are not required to do a lot with the information as presented. The textual features such as the vocabulary, syntax and text length contribute to placing of the task type [1] on the simpler side of the continuum represented by Duran and Ramaut (2006) because of their simplicity.

The task type [2] relating to enquiring whether or not a learner may continue with a subject in the next year is illustrated in the segment in lines 21-30. This segment is analyzed in the same manner as the task type [1] above since most of the information given at each of the complexity properties remains unchanged. The complexity analysis of task type [2] differs from that of the above task type [1] as the level of redundancy that occurs is higher and the information density is low. On the complexity scale, this task type [2] will be the same as the previous task type [1]: on the side representing less complexity on the continuum.

Lines 30- 42 illustrate the task type [3] relating to asking about and stating the ability to continue with a subject in the next year. The complexity analysis of this task type [3] description follows in the same manner as the two types of tasks above (task type [1] and task type [2]). However, the complexity analysis will differ in the properties of level of

abstraction, linguistic context, vocabulary and text length and structure. The level of abstraction deals with a combination of the here-and-now and there-and-then, causing the linguistic context to consist of mostly present and future tense sentences. The level of redundancy is fairly good and the information density is low. The vocabulary is simple and the text is shorter than task type [1] and task type [2]. To conclude, the task type [3] can be placed towards the side of the complexity scale representing less complexity because the level of processing remains that of the descriptive level and does not require the learners to do much with the information as presented.

The segment in lines 43- 55 illustrates the task type [4] relating to giving criterion of a subject for the next year. The analysis in regards to the complexity properties of this task type [4] follows in the same manner as all the types of tasks above (types of tasks [1], [2] and [3]). The information at each of the complexity properties remains the same. The analysis differs from that of task type [3] since the level of redundancy is lower but the information density is still relatively low. The level of cognitive processing remains on the descriptive level, therefore not requiring the learners to do much with the information as presented. Thus this task type [4] can be placed towards the side of the complexity scale representing less complexity.

Task type [5], which relates to asking and stating the choice of modules for the next year, is illustrated in lines 58-63 and is analyzed according to its complexity properties in the same manner as the above task type [5]. The level of redundancy is much higher than in the previous types of tasks (task type [1], [2], [3], and [4]), which might be because of the text length being shorter. The level of processing remains on the descriptive level, therefore the placing of this task type [5] will be towards the side of the complexity proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006) representing less complexity.

5.11.3   Task type classification for Scenario 20

According to Pica et al's typology of tasks, scenario 20 can be classified predominantly as an information gap task. One participant (Melissa) holds the information and supplies it to the other participant (Professor) as it is requested (lines 23-26) (Table 1: 1b). The one participant (Professor) is required to request the information and the other is required to supply it (lines 21 and 30) (Table 1:2b). Both participants are working towards convergent goals since they try to establish whether Melissa can continue with the subject in the following year (Table 1

3a). There is only one acceptable answer: that there are certain criteria that Melissa has to meet in order to continue with the subject in the next year (Table 1:4a). This information gap task has a two way flow of information exchange because the receiver of the information (Professor) also asks questions and adds information that is necessary to achieve the goal (for example lines 43-55). Interaction is thus required to achieve the goal of one outcome (Melissa needs information about the criteria of a subject in order to know if she qualifies to continue with the subject) (Table 2).

5.12 CONCLUSION

The types of tasks identified in this chapter typically occur in student-to-lecturer communication in the context of a university campus. Some types of tasks can also be applied and/ or modified for other language usage situations. In other words, learners can use these types of tasks in other contexts in their immediate environment. Therefore the types of tasks identified are relevant and familiar to the learners and satisfy both their objective as well as subjective needs, resulting in a positive and motivating attitude towards learning the second language.

The complexity analyses of the types of tasks reveal that most of the tasks demand cognitive and communicative processing at a descriptive level. This level of processing is most suitable for beginner level learners of the second language, because even though the main thoughts and ideas of the conversation are easy to follow, some other parameters required in the task may challenge the learners. However, the task is still doable, motivating the learners to complete the task and perform well in other similar tasks. The complexity analyses also include some types of tasks moving towards the restructuring level of cognitive and communicative processing. These types of tasks will logically be sequenced more to the end of a course for beginner level learners of the second language because they are more complex than the tasks that require processing at a purely descriptive level (as indicated by Duran and Ramaut's (2006) complexity scale).

The task type classifications according to the typology of Pica et al (1993) reveal that the tasks are predominantly information gap tasks. Most of the tasks entail a high level of interaction requirements from the learners and also initiate a high level of interaction, which pushes learners to modify their output and ultimately has an effect on their inter-language

development. The other task types that occur in the student-lecturer scenarios are problem-solving and decision making tasks, with some elements of information gap tasks that do not necessarily initiate a high level of interaction among the learners completing the task. Still, the exposure to such task types is also important for the inter-language development of the learners because they entail other interaction and cognitive requirements from the learners that are important for language development in the campus context.

Both chapters 4 and 5 consist of highly interactive tasks with various interaction requirements for the learners participating in completing the tasks. The information and rationale behind the tasks links to the rationale for task-based language learning and teaching since learners acquire the second language by 'doing' and thus using the second language rather than learning isolated grammar items.

CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter is to present a summary and to review the main findings of the investigation conducted in this study regarding task-based language learning and teaching. The chapter consists of seven broad sections which includes: the five areas of research related to second language learning and teaching that was conducted in this study; a section reviewing the main findings of the analyses of the isiXhosa dialogue in chapters four and five; and a section that concerns the key directions for future research and implications for second language learning of isiXhosa.

6.1   KEY ISSUES IN TASK-BASED THEORY AND PRACTICE

Section 2.1 is divided into six subsections, each addressing various aspects that are important when discussing the TBLT approach. First a broad discussion was introduced on the move towards a TBLT approach. This discussion addressed the characteristics of TBLT and the advantages that TBLT provides to the learning of a second language as advanced by Ellis (2003) and Samuda and Bygate (2009). The discussion continued in section 2.1.1 with defining a task in which the aim was to provide a clear definition of what a task is. It was noted that Van den Branden (2006) stated that the term has become very controversial in TBLT, providing a broad definition in order to establish what a task is. Van den Branden tried to satisfy most of the views about what a task should be in a language learning classroom. It has been established that a task is an activity with certain language goals. Section 2.1.2 addressed the issue of defining a task further by classifying tasks according to various approaches as stated by Ellis (2003). The classification is set according to two viewpoints regarding language learning and acquisition, namely the viewpoint of communication teachers and the second language researchers. Ellis (2003) stated that tasks can be classified according to a pedagogic approach (taking the viewpoint of the communication teacher), according to rhetoric, or according to a cognitive approach. Otherwise a task can be given a psycholinguistic classification. The psycholinguistic classification was established to be of most importance for this study because this classification includes various types of tasks and their potential for learning according to Pica et al (1993). Section 2.1.3 concluded the discussion on defining a task by considering the various components of tasks according to Samuda and Bygate (2009), Ellis (2003) and Nunan (2003). The study concluded that a task

should consist of an outcome, phases and input materials and conditions. These components can be manipulated in order to achieve certain language goals.

Following the discussion above, section 2.1.4 comprised of a broad discussion of focus on form and comparing focus on form of TBLT with the focus on form of a traditional approach to language teaching. The study established that TBLT puts the focus on the meaning of communication and uses linguistic elements as enhancement, whereas the traditional approaches focus on isolated linguistic elements of the language. This focus on meaning, rather than on isolated linguistic elements of the language, results in more efficient learning since learners are able to internalize the language and minimize rote learning. Ellis (2003) provided several advantages for focus on form in TBLT, maintaining that focus on form does have a place in a TBLT approach. Section 2.1.4.1 argued for the integration of focus on form into a task-based classroom and how focus on form should be integrated. The aim of this section was to establish a place not only for focus on form into the classroom, but its place in the teaching sequence. Eliss's (2003) notion of the implicit and explicit instruction of grammar elements was also discussed in this section. Section 2.1.4.2 broadens the discussion of focus on form by distinguishing between focused tasks, consciousness-raising tasks and grammar activities. The study addressed the differences between these tasks, because knowledge about these different tasks can improve the language learning in the classroom. In finding a balance between focus on form and communicative teaching, section 2.1.4.3 aimed to show how tasks with varying levels of interaction can be implemented into the classroom in order to ascertain that enough focus is put on form (in an appropriate manner) and interaction.

Section 2.1.4.4 discussed notions of noticing, attention and consciousness which link the above focus on form with the psycholinguistic models in language learning and acquisition in section 2.1.5. The models discussed in this section included Krashen's four hypotheses on language acquisition as postulated by Nunan (2003); Schimidt's noticing hypothesis; Swain's output hypothesis; Long's interaction hypothesis; and the social-cultural approach of Vygotsky as postulated by Skehan (1998), Edward and Willis(2005), Ellis (2003) and Skehan (2003). Section 2.1.6 continued with a discussion that broadens the hypothesis of Long. This discussion consists of a clear definition of the negotiation of meaning, the relationship between the negotiation of meaning and interaction, and the importance of both in a communicative classroom.

The next section of this chapter recapitulated the main findings of section 2.2 of this study relating to the psycholinguistic cognitive processes involved in language learning and usage. The discussion considered aspects such as cross-linguistic similarities in language learning, sequences and processes in language learning, and cognitive-psychological processes in second language learning.

6.2   PSYCHOLINGUISTIC COGNITIVE PROCESSES INVOLVED IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND USE

Section 2.2 is divided into three subsections, all consisting of aspects relating to psycholinguistic cognitive processes involved in language learning and usage. The first subsection presented a review on research perspectives done by Ringbom and Jarvis (2009) on the different types of cross-linguistic similarities and the effects they have on learning a second language. The study established three main types of similarities: perceived similarities, actual similarities and assumed similarities. Their study established that the perceptions of similarities between languages change as the learners' second language experience and proficiency increases – thus assumed similarities have the strongest and most direct impact on second language learning and performance (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009). This section also explored views from recent research on the relationships that exist between two languages. The process of perceiving similarities between languages, namely transfer, was discussed in section 2.2.1.1. This section explored different types of transfer and the implications transfer has for teaching a second language.

Section 2.2.2 reviewed some key issues discussed by Ortega (2009) regarding the relationship between interlanguage, instruction, sequences in grammar and central processes regarding second language input. Interlanguage, as postulated by Ortega (2009), is the systematic **innovations** that learners **independently** create when they are trying to figure out the workings of a new language system and functions as a systematic and natural language in its own right. In order to categorize the various stages that learners go through when developing their interlanguage, this study discussed the various interlanguage domains. During the developments through these sequences, learners move and undergo several processes in order to develop their internal grammars. Ortega (2009) mentioned five such central processes: simplification, overgeneralization, restructuring, U-shaped behaviour and fossilization. This

section is concluded with five generalizations regarding interlanguage, sequences and processes that influence second language teaching as postulated by Ortega (2009).

Section 2.2.3 presented a broad review on the research done by DeKeyser (2009) regarding the components of second language knowledge, and how the components of second language knowledge are used, acquired, learned, monitored and practiced. The distinctions discussed included the competence-performance distinction, the declarative-procedural distinction, the explicit-implicit distinction, item-rule, and the knowledge-use distinction. The knowledge distinction, which received most attention in this study, was the explicit-implicit distinction and the declarative-procedural knowledge because of the close link that exists between the two as well as their link with Ellis' (2003) implicit and explicit instruction in section 2.1.4.1. In using these types of knowledge, DeKeyser (2009) argued that implicit knowledge is the main focus in a second language classroom, but that explicit, declarative, procedural and automatized knowledge also helps in the acquisition of implicit knowledge. Therefore the presence of the one type of knowledge is conducive to or plays a causal role in the development of the other.

The following section in this chapter consists of the main areas of discussion in section 2.3 of this study. Section 2.3 presented a review of recent research on the relevant aspects of syllabus design.

6.3   Syllabus design

Section 2.3 is divided into four subsections. The first subsection provided some characteristics of a syllabus. The characteristics mentioned revealed that a syllabus consists of goals and objectives for a particular program. Nunan (2003) stated that the goals and objectives need to be identified, listed, organized, graded and assessed. Brown (1994) stated that a syllabus is concerned with certain linguistic- and subject matter objectives/ outcomes that have to meet the needs of a particular group of learners. Different types of syllabi can also be distinguished. Basturkmen (2006: 21) broadly identified synthetic and analytic syllabi. In synthetic syllabi, the focus is on presenting learners to the grammar elements of the language; the syllabus will not insist on focusing too much on the communicative aspect of the language. In analytic syllabi, the language is presented without any insisted focus on linguistic or grammar elements as the language is seen as a holistic phenomenon. Robinson (2009) stated that the

traditional approaches to syllabus design such as grammar syllabi and notional-functional syllabi will follow a synthetic approach, whereas a task-based approach and other contemporary syllabi will follow an analytic approach. Section 2.3.2 continues with the notion of syllabus design. Here the main focus of the discussion was on the steps needed in order to conduct a needs analysis as postulated by Brown (2009) and some characteristics of a task-based syllabus and how such a syllabus should be designed.

Section 2.3.3 continued with a discussion on the various aspects regarding the grading and sequencing of tasks within a syllabus. First, reference was made to Nunan (2003) who defined the notion of grading by stating that grading is an arrangement of content within a syllabus and that this grading and sequencing in a task-based syllabus is done according to the levels of complexity. A distinction was thus made between task complexity and task difficulty in section 2.3.3.1. Task difficulty is more concerned with external factors, whereas complexity has to do with the cognitive requirements of the learner and the performance requirements of the task. In sequencing tasks, this study also referred to Nunan's (2003) concepts of task chaining and task continuity. Sections 2.3.3.2 to 2.3.3.3 continued with the idea of developing a sequence, yet this sequence dealt with the teaching sequence and consisted of aspects such as the role of the teacher, the task cycle as postulated by Willis (1996) and Norris (2009), and the teaching principles of Nunan (2003).

The last subsection, 2.3.4, proposed a framework for implementing elements into a task-based classroom that has an effect on learner performance. The aspect element discussed in this study was that of the importance of task repetition. Reference was made to Ellis (2005), who stated that by repeating tasks or similar tasks, learners learn to notice linguistic elements and functions, which they can also build on to improve their language resources. This, in turn, is good for their interlanguage development and performance. The second aspect referred to task and interlocutor familiarity and included studies done by Plough and Gass (1993) and Varonis and Gass (1985), as postulated by Samuda and Bygate (2009) and Plough and Gass (1993), in order to establish whether performance is influenced positively when learners are familiar with the task or with each other when competing in the same task. No significant results were found, but interesting information was revealed on how interlocutor and task familiarity might have an effect on learner performance. This aspect was followed by a brief discussion on how planning can have an influence on learner performance. Ellis (2003) and Samuda and Bygate (2009) stated that by implementing different types of planning, teachers can focus on different aspects of performance such as fluency, accuracy and complexity. Section 2.3.4.4 consisted of

a very brief discussion on participant roles on the distribution of roles and the effects this element has on learner performance. The final aspect discussed relates to a very controversial and complex element that can have various effects on performance, namely error correction, and is discussed by reviewing research of Ellis (2009). Corrective feedback, although negative, can have very positive effects on performance but should be used with care for interrupting corrective feedback considerably can have quite the opposite result.

The next section in this chapter recapitulates section 2. 4 in this study and is concerned with the principles and options regarding teaching for specific purposes.

6.4   Teaching language for specific purposes

Section 2.4 is divided into five subsections relating to ideas and options about teaching for specific purposes. The first three sections consist of discussions of building a case for specific purpose courses, types of specific purpose courses and issues regarding a needs analysis for specific purposes. The main focus of discussion for this study, however, was the discussion in sections 2.4.4 to 2.4.5. It was conducted with regards to a framework proposed by Basturkmen (2006) which was developed for researching ideas and options in English for specific purposes.

This framework involved ideas regarding the nature of language, learning a language and teaching a language. In discussing the nature of language, language systems and language uses were discussed in this study as postulated by Basturkmen (2006). In discussing language systems, Basturkmen (2006) stated that language systems are often the first step in teaching language for specific proposes. She further quotes Harper's (1987) definition of a language system: a language system is a set of abstract structures recognizable by all the participants that is required for the effective use of the language. Section 2.4.4.1.1 explored grammatical structures and core vocabulary as two different language systems. Section 2.4.1.2 explored the pattern of text organization as another language system. The purpose was to make the teacher aware of how these systems work. In discussing language uses, the focus was on the communicative purpose of language and how language can be used to achieve a purpose. The explanations aimed to find ways in which language can be organized outside of the linguistic system of that language. Basturkmen (2006) argued that language can be organized according to speech acts, genres and social interaction formulas used in various situations. Section

2.4.4.2.1 discussed speech acts and genres and various language uses outside of the linguistic system of language. Speech acts were established in terms of Van Avermaet and Gysen's (2006) understanding of types of tasks and are made relevant in chapters three to five. Genres were discussed as being more specific than speech acts and are socially derived. Basturkmen (2006) stated that a genre-based teaching approach should be used in a classroom where the learners all aim to enter into the same community. Section 2.4.5 discussed broad objectives in teaching language for specific purposes. The conclusion here was that teachers need to be aware of these objectives in order to focus the learners' attention on specific features of the second language.

The following section recapitulates the main findings in chapter three of this study. This chapter was mainly concerned with establishing a theoretical background of complexity analysis in second language tasks and syllabus design that is needed in order to understand the information provided in the analyses in chapters four and five.

6.5   THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS IN SECOND LANGUAGE TASKS AND SYLLABUS DESIGN

Chapter three consists of five subsections. Each of these subsections aimed to build a theoretical basis of complexity analysis in second language tasks and syllabus design for chapters four and five. Section 3.1 consists of a detailed description of research done by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) on parameters to determine type task descriptions. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) defined types of tasks as the classification of broad, concrete language tasks on the basis of certain characteristics within types of tasks. According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), the identification of various types of tasks in a syllabus is needed in order to cluster similar tasks together in a syllabus. The study thus aimed to show how the identification of various types of tasks can provide a framework for sequencing tasks within a syllabus. The discussion regarding the parameters for identifying types of tasks is elaborated on in section 3.1.1. This section consists of a discussion regarding the challenges that arise during the process of determining types of tasks as postulated by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006). The issue of generalization is the main challenge raised by Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 45). This problem, the problem of extrapolation, looks at whether the language performance in one task can predict the language performance in anther task. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006) established that there is no such guarantee. In solving this problem, Van

Avermaet and Gysen suggested that the motivation of the learners plays a big role and that clustering tasks regarding various similarities together could solve this problem.

Section 3.2 consists of a discussion on the research done by Duran and Ramaut (2006) with regards to parameters for determining the complexity of tasks. The parameters are also related to the research in section 3.1 of Van Avermat and Gysen (2006). In section 3.2, the various parameter categories are discussed as postulated by Duran and Ramaut (2006), namely: the world represented in the tasks; the processing demands regarding communicative and cognitive processing factors; and the text that is the linguistic input features. In each of these categories, various properties for complexity were established: in the **world**, the level of abstraction, the degree of visual support and the linguistic context; in the **processing demands category**, the level of processing and the modality; and in the **text category**, the vocabulary, syntax, the text structure and the text length. Ultimately, the aim of the study was to demonstrate how these parameters can influence the complexity of tasks in order to be able to place the tasks on a complexity scale from less complex to more complex. The complexity properties and the placing of tak types on a complexity scale, as proposed by Duran and Ramaut (2006), help in the sequencing of tasks within a syllabus

Section 3.3 followed with a discussion on research done by Pica et al (1993) with regards to classifying various task types. Various elements were discussed in order to establish how teachers and syllabus designers can classify tasks. These elements consisted of issues regarding tasks requirements and interactant requirements as postulated by Pica et al (1993). The identification of task types is necessary in a syllabus because, as Pica et al (1993) suggest, these task types influence the development of interlanguage. These elements of task requirement and interactant requirements can be manipulated to achieve certain outcomes regarding the output of the learner. The following section entailed a short discussion of the perspectives on cognitive complexity of Robinson (2005). Section 3.4 supports the discussion of Duran and Ramaut (2006) in section 3.2 as most of the complexity properties of Duran and Ramaut (2006) correlates with that of Robinson (2005). Furthermore, the discussion of Robinson (2005) also linked with the section regarding the discussion of Pica et al (1993) regarding the issue of interlanguage development. Therefore the discussion of Robinson in this study also aimed to show how a framework can be achieved in order to sequence and grade tasks in a syllabus. It also showed how some task elements can be manipulated by the teacher and syllabus designer in order to achieve certain outcomes regarding learner output and the level of interaction.

Chapter 3 concluded with a description of the various proficiency levels and the proficiency levels required for the performance necessary for the learners who will be performing the scenarios in chapters 4 and 5. Section 3.5 presented a discussion on the relevant proficiency level descriptions as postulated by the Common European Framework of reference for Languages and the Interagency Roundtable. This discussion is necessary because the aim of the study was to establish an entry-level profile and consensus regarding the learner competence in any complexity analysis where learners are involved.

6.6 A COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS OF CAMPUS COMMUNICATION TASKS: STUDENT-TO-STUDENT AND STUDENT-TO-LECTURER

Chapters four and five comprised of the analysis of ten scenarios of isiXhosa dialogue regarding communication on a university campus. The ten scenarios of chapter four consist of student-to-student dialogue and the ten scenarios of chapter five consist of student-to-lecturer dialogue. In each of the chapters, first the scenarios are created. This comprises of a short paragraph stating the particular scenario in the dialogue. Thereafter the dialogue is provided with the English approximations. Each dialogue is then followed by three subsections.

The first subsection considered the identification of the various types of tasks that exist within the dialogue provided as proposed by Van Avermaet and Gysen in chapter 3 section 3.1. The types of tasks in chapter four are related to student-to-student communication and the types of tasks in chapter five are related to student-to-lecturer communication. Some types of tasks can also be applied and/ or modified for other language usage situations. In other words, learners can use these types of tasks in other contexts in their immediate environment. Therefore the types of tasks identified are relevant and familiar to the learners and satisfy both their objective as well as subjective needs (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006), resulting in a positive and motivating attitude towards learning the second language.

The second subsection concerned the complexity analyses according to the complexity properties proposed by Duran and Ramaut in chapter 3 section 3.2. The proposed properties were applied to each of the types of tasks identified in the first subsection by means of an informative table or a comparing paragraph. The complexity analyses were concluded with a closing paragraph stating the main findings of the complexity analysis. The complexity

analyses of the types of tasks in the scenarios in chapters four and five revealed that most of the tasks demand cognitive and communicative processing at a descriptive level. According to Duran and Ramaut (2006), this level of processing is most suitable for beginner level learners of the second language. The complexity analyses also included some types of tasks moving towards the restructuring level of cognitive and communicative processing. These types of tasks will logically be sequenced on the proposed complexity scale of Duran and Ramaut (2006) to the end of a course for beginner level learners of the second language, because they are more complex than the tasks that require processing at a purely descriptive level.

The third subsection concerned the task type classification according to the typology of Pica et al (1993), as discussed in chapter three in section 3.3. The classifications revealed the task type that is predominant in each of the scenarios. The task type classifications, according to the typology of Pica et al (1993), revealed that the tasks are a combination of predominantly information gap and jigsaw tasks. Thus most of the tasks consisted of a high level of interaction requirements from the learners and also initiates a high level of interaction, which pushes learners to modify their output and ultimately has an effect on their interlanguage development (Pica et al, 1993). The other task types that occur in the student-to-student and student-to-lecturer scenarios are problem-solving and decision making tasks which do not necessarily initiate a high level of interaction among the learners completing the task. However, the aim of the study was to show that the exposure of such task types are also important for the interlanguage development of the learners because these tasks consist of other interaction and cognitive requirements that are important for language development in the camput context.

The study thus made the conclusion that both chapter four and five consisted of highly interactive tasks. These tasks had various interaction requirements, therefore the aim of the scenarios in this study was to create a link between the information revealed through the analyses of the various tasks to the rationale for TBLT as learners acquire the second language by 'doing' and thus using the second language rather than learning isolated grammar items.

The following section in this chapter discusses the key direction for future research and the implications for second language learning of isiXhosa.

6.7 KEY DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING OF ISIXHOSA

A task-based approach denotes various implications for the teaching of isiXhosa as a second or additional language. The discussion below considers the aspects of: focus on form; explicit and implicit knowledge; the negotiation of meaning; cross-linguistic similarities in language learning; complexity properties relating to the grading and sequencing of tasks; and specific purpose teaching as investigated in this study that might hold implications for the learning and teaching of isiXhosa and therefore needs further research.

TBLT encourages the learner to be active in learning the second language. This implies that the learner has more control over his/ her learning, because the learner is no longer required to only listen and copy the teacher. This furthermore implies that the teacher should be less in control of the action in the classroom. This study has explored the aspect of negotiation of meaning and interaction and has established that through negotiation of meaning and interaction, learners internalise the language more sufficiently and develop their interlanguage. With regards to negotiation of meaning and interaction, TBLT acknowledges that there should be a place for focus on form in the teaching sequence. This study explored how focus on form could be integrated into a task-based language classroom as well as the importance of focus on form. However, the implication for teachers is to create a balance between tasks with high levels of interaction and tasks with low levels of interaction. This can be done through various teaching techniques such as implicit and explicit instruction. The implication for the teacher is to know which type of instruction would work best for a given task and when or how to employ explicit instruction. In TBLT, explicit instruction aids the acquiring of implicit knowledge. Teachers can provide learners with metalinguistic information about linguistic features, but the aim is to create tasks where forms can be noticed without the teacher pointing out the salient form. Therefore the teacher needs to have knowledge about the implicit-explicit distinction in language learning and teaching.

In relation to the aspects above, the crosslinguistic similarities between two languages also hold an implication for the learning of isiXhosa as a second or additional language. The majority of learners learning isiXhosa in educational institutions have Afrikaans or English as their mother tongue. This implies that there is a zero relationship between their first language

and the second language that they want to learn. A zero relationship between languages has been investigated in this study and it has been established that learning a second language that has little or no relation to the first language is much more difficult than languages that have some relation to each other. The implication for the teacher is that he/ she needs to show some similarities between the first and second language because it has been proven that learning the similarities between langauges are more efficient than learning the differences between languages. This study has established that there are universal similarities between all languages that teachers can show in the case of languages that have no relation.

Furthermore, a TBLT approach requires that the tasks within the syllabus be sequenced according to content or complexity. This implies that the teacher should be aware of the learners' proficiency levels within the classroom in order to sequence the tasks appropriately. This study investigated the properties of complexity analysis for the purpose of sequencing tasks within a TBLT syllabus. The analyses only considered only the beginner proficiencies of second language learning. Therefore further analyses *and* needs analyses should be conducted in order to include the more advanced proficiency levels for learning isiXhosa. Furthermore, the tasks or dialogues in chapters four and five are not exhaustive, thus further needs analyses should be conducted in order to create more communicative tasks in the context of a university campus. This study did not focus on specifically placing the tasks in a sequence within a syllabus but rather revealed the level of complexity of each type of task. The study implies that the teacher chooses which tasks are more relevant in the given context because teaching needs and learning needs differ in various contexts. Logically, the study implies that for beginner learners the teacher should start the teaching sequence with less complex tasks, gradually moving towards more complex tasks as their knowledge about the second language improves and they are able to negotiate meaning in a more relaxed manner.

Learning and teaching isiXhosa for specific purposes implies that the teacher or syllabus designer should conduct an appropriate needs analysis to determine the language learning needs and the objectives of learning the second language. The teacher needs to determine what the learners need to know about the second language in a given context and what they would want to know about the second language in that specific context. Learners learning a second language like isiXhosa for specific purposes often have minimum time to acquire the language. The implication for the teacher is therefore to be as time efficient as possible. This poses a problem for the learning of a second language because it often includes learning and becoming part of that language's culture. This aspect often goes lost in teaching for specific

purposes, for only key features and communication aspects are taught in detail in order to save time. These types of approaches imply that if a learner wants to know more about the language and wants to become fluent, he/ she has to do a lot of self study and practice the second language. This also poses a problem because most learners expect to learn everything about a language in the classroom and from the teacher in a limited time. Learning a second language takes time and effort and no one can teach anybody everything about a language. One has to learn by doing and, in the case of learning isiXhosa; this implies that the learners try to speak the language inside and outside of the language teaching classroom. This further implies that the teacher as well as the second language learner creates opportunities inside and outside of the classroom in which they can communicate in the second language.

Computer assisted learning has become a renowned research direction in second language learning and acquisition. It is only logical that a key direction for future research should be concerned with how computer assisted learning can contribute to the learning of isiXhosa as a second language. Moreover, what such a program should consist of and how much of the instruction should depend on the teacher and/ or the computer.

As the name suggests, the computer instruction should only **assist** the instruction. The implication is that the computer instruction should assist the instruction that takes place in the classroom and not replace the instruction of the classroom. This means that the computer instruction should be communicative and provide the learners with appropriate feedback. A problem concerning the feedback provided by the computer is that this feedback is very general and does not necessarily aid in providing the learner with specific feedback on his/ her problem. The implication is that the teacher is still needed in this computer assisted program. Teachers can give specific feedback where it is required and where the computer has failed to do so. Another implication is that teachers should know when and how to provide the feedback. The computer instruction should not be teacher-led. Therefore, on a positive note, the computer assisted learning can aid the learning of isiXhosa because the learners are in control of their own learning. Lastly, the computer assisted learning can provide the learners with appropriate repetitions of tasks, which has been argued in this study to be of great importance, especially for isiXhosa where there is a zero relationship between the learners' first language of Afrikaans or English and the second language.

To end this study, it should be stressed that in South Africa the learning of a second language, especially an African language, has become a very important aspect in language teaching and

learning. This is because there are eleven official languages and people have become aware that learning each others' languages is important in order to not only understand each other and bridge gaps between the various cultures within South Africa, but in order to move forward as a country.

> "If you don't speak their language, you may touch the head, but you may never touch the heart. And that is what a mother tongue does… If you lose your language, you lose yourself" – Wangari Maathai.

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