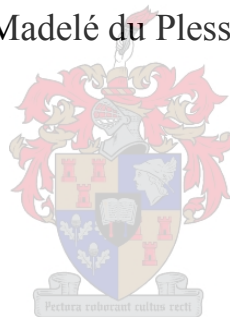


COMPLEXITY IN SECOND LANGUAGE TASK-BASED SYLLABUS
DESIGN FOR POLICE COMMUNICATION IN ISIXHOSA

BY

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Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Masters in
isiXhosa at the University of Stellenbosch

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to present an isiXhosa task-based syllabus design for police communication. The aim is to provide a theory-based rationale for syllabus design to teach English- and Afrikaans-speaking police officials isiXhosa as a second language in order to communicate with the isiXhosa mother tongue police officials inside the police station (internal), as well as with the isiXhosa speaking community (external). For this purpose, a needs analysis is conducted, i.e. the communication needs and objectives of the police officials are determined. Therefore, the aim is to determine the proficiency level of the police officials in terms of their knowledge about isiXhosa.

The thesis undertakes this investigation in order to determine the type of communication used by the police officials. Communicative tasks, appropriate for police officials on an intermediate level, were constructed accordingly for the purpose of identifying central task types. An analysis of each dialogue is done in order to determine the level of cognitive, as well as syntactic complexity. Each of these dialogues can be scaled in terms of their complexity, i.e. the complexity can either be increased or decreased. The aim of the communicative tasks is to teach learners various ways in which different parts of texts relate to one another.

Furthermore, the purpose of this thesis is to determine the way in which Task-based Language Teaching can be incorporated into a syllabus design in order to teach isiXhosa to police officials as a second language. The aim of Task-based Language Teaching is to create natural contexts in which communicative tasks can be performed. The communicative tasks should enable the police officials to use the language in order to communicate in the world outside the classroom.

The study concludes that specific purpose syllabus design is a multi-faceted process, hence it requires a multi-perspective approach as demonstrated in this thesis.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie tesis is om 'n Taakgebaseerde Sillabusontwerp vir polisie-kommunikasie voor te stel. Die mikpunt is om 'n teoreties-gebaseerde rasionaal vir sillabusontwerp te verskaf om sodoende Engels- en Afrikaanssprekende polisielede isiXhosa as tweede taal te leer sodat hulle in staat is om met polisielede in die polisiestrasie (intern), asook met die gemeenskap (ekstern) te kommunikeer. Vir hierdie doeleinde is dit nodig om 'n behoefte-analise saam te stel, met ander woorde die kommunikasiebehoeftes en -doelwitte van die polisielede. Die doel is dus om die bevoegdheidsvlak van die polisielede te bepaal in terme van hul kennis rakende isiXhosa.

Dit sluit 'n ondersoek in om vas te stel watter tipe kommunikasie deur die polisielede gebruik word. Kommunikatiewe take, geskik vir polisielede op 'n intermedieë vlak, is daarvolgens saamgestel om sodoende sentrale taaktipes te identifiseer. Elke dialoog is geanaliseer in terme van kognitiewe, asook sintaktiese kompleksiteit. Elkeen van hierdie dialoë kan georden word in terme van hul kompleksiteit, met ander woorde die kompleksiteit kan óf verhoog óf verlaag word. Die doel van die kommunikatiewe take is om leerders verskeie maniere te wys waarop verskillende dele van tekste verband hou met mekaar.

Verder is die doel van hierdie tesis om te bepaal hoe Taakgebaseerde Taalonderrig in 'n sillabusontwerp inkorporeer kan word om sodoende isiXhosa as tweede taal aan polisielede te leer. Die mikpunt van Taakgebaseerde Taalonderrig is om natuurlike kontekste te skep waarin kommunikatiewe take uitgevoer kan word. Die kommunikatiewe take is veronderstel om polisielede in staat te stel om die taal te gebruik sodat hulle in die wêreld buite die klaskamer kan kommunikeer.

Die gevolgtrekking van die studie is dat 'n sillabusontwerp vir spesifieke doeleindes, 'n multi-kenmerkende proses is, en dus 'n multi-perspektiewe benadering vereis soos wat demonstreeer is in hierdie tesis.

ISICATSHULWA

Injongo yale thisisi kukuvelisa umkhombandlela wesiXhosa omalunga nonxibelelwano emapoliseni. Injongo ikukufundisa isiXhosa kumapolisa antetho isisiNgesi nesiBhulu (isiAfrikansi) njengolwimi lwesibini ukuze akwazi ukunxibelelana nalawo antetho isisiXhosa ngaphakathi kwisikhululo samapolisa nasekuhlaleni. Nangona kunjalo, uphando ngokwemfundo lufanelwe lwenziwe. Umzekelo. Iimfuno neenjongo zonxibelelwano phakathi kwamapolisa maziqinisekiswa. Ngoko injongo kukuqinisekisa izinga lolwazi lwamagosa amapolisa ngokuphathelele kwisiXhosa.

Uphando lwale thisisi lwenziwe ngumfundi ukuqinisekisa uhlobo lonxibelelwano olusetyenziswa ngamapolisa. Unxibelelwano olufanele amapolisa kwizinga eliphakathi lwasekwa ngenjongo zokufumana iintlobo zemigomo. Uhlalutyo lwengxoxo nganye lwenzelwa ukuqinisekisa izinga lomgangatho nokuntsokotha kwayo okunokongezwa okanye kuncitshiswe. Injongo yomsebenzi wonxibelelwano kukufundisa abafundi ngeendlela ezahlukeyo athi amabakala ohlukileyo okubhaliweyo athungelane ngayo.

Ngaphezulu koko, injongo yale thisisi kukuqinisekisa ukuba ingaba uhlobo lokufundisa ulwimi olugxile kwimisebenzi lungabandakanywa njani kumqulu ongumkhombandlela wokufundisa isiXhosa njengolwimi lwesibini emapoliseni. Injongo yokufundisa ulwimi ngokugxininisa kwimisebenzi kukuzama ukudala iimeko zenkqubo ezizizo, apho imisebenzi yonxibelelwano inokwenziwa khona. Unxibelelwano olusekelwe emisebenzini kumele luncede amapolisa akwazi ukusebenzisa ulwimi ukuze anxibelelane ngempumelelo nentlalo engaphandle kwegumbi lokufundela.

Olu phando luveza ukuba uyilo lwenkqubo yokufunda egqale kwiinjongo luyinkqubo exananazileyo, kungoko ke inkqubo elolu hlobo kumele ijonge iinkalo ezahlukeyo nanjengoko kubonisiwe kule thisisi.

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aims and rationale of study

Language proficiency is a very important part of the lives of people since it is seen as an important tool of communication and interaction. Today, it is important to be able to communicate in a second language in the multilingual world we live in, in order to be able to understand each other and be part of the community as a whole. Languages should be treated equally, especially with regard to the official domains of society in South Africa.

There is a great need in South Africa for learning and acquiring an African language, including isiXhosa, in order to be able to communicate in different occupations. There is specifically a need for second language acquisition courses in the public service sectors like the police service and this gap needs to be filled. English- and Afrikaans-speaking police officials in the Western Cape, including the Stellenbosch police station, work with Xhosa-speaking police officials at the station. These police officials also work with Xhosa-speaking people outside the police station. Therefore, these English- and Afrikaans-speaking police officials need to learn and acquire isiXhosa as a second language in order to communicate with the police officials inside the police station (internally), as well as with the people outside the police station (externally).

Different types of communication occur inside, as well as outside the police station. Police officials have different police ranks in the police station. These different ranks have to be taken into consideration as it will determine the type of Xhosa which the different police officials will need to learn and acquire when communicating with each other, i.e. formal or informal.

The purpose of this study is to conduct a needs analysis, i.e. the needs and objectives of the police officials. Therefore, the purpose is to determine the proficiency level of the police officials, what they know about isiXhosa, what they do not know and what they need to learn and acquire to be able to communicate in this second language.

An investigation was first conducted to establish the most general incidents to which the police are normally being called out. After these incidents were established, an investigation was done of the different types of communication tasks that occur during the investigation of these incidents inside, as well as outside the police station. The aim of this study is to use these different incidents and types of communication to create communicative tasks accordingly which are appropriate for police officials at an intermediate level of isiXhosa proficiency. Typical communication tasks include:

- Communication between different ranks on different incidents
- Communication before the investigation
- Communication during investigation
- Communication after investigation
- Communication in police vehicles
- Communication over the radio
- Communication in the police cells
- Communication in the different administrative offices

- Communication before the investigation:
 - Type of communication between the police officials
 - Types of questions that arise
 - Types of instructions given to each other
- Communication during the investigation:
 - The trend of the discussions taking place
 - Types of questions that arise
 - Types of instructions given to each other
- Communication after the investigation
 - The trend of the discussions taking place
 - Types of questions that arise
 - Types of instructions given to each other

The aim of this study is to analyse the communicative tasks as regards to their grammatical sentence structures and core vocabulary. The purpose of this analysis in syllabus design is that learners will be instructed to understand how these structures are formed in order to

produce sentences creatively after the performance of these tasks. Learners, i.e. police personnel of isiXhosa should have knowledge about certain types of events and how these events typically develop. The purpose of the communicative tasks is also to teach learners the ways in which the different parts of a text relate to each other.

This study also aims to demonstrate how principles and properties of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) are taken into account in a syllabus design in order to teach isiXhosa as a second language. The purpose is to use TBLT in order to focus on the outcomes of the language in the particular tasks, i.e. that the learners will be able to use the language taught in the communicative tasks in order to be able to communicate in the real world outside the classroom. TBLT should be used to create natural contexts in which learners can perform communicative tasks. Language learning of the learners must be encouraged in order to improve their efficiency and productivity in the workplace.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework adopted in this study is that of current Task-based theory. The discussion of Task-based theory and research is done by exploring the studies and viewpoints of different researchers in different fields of Task-based Language Teaching and Learning. These researchers include Nunan (2001), Robinson (1996, 2009), Raya (2003, 2006, 2009), Benevides and Valvona (2003), Richards *et al* (1986), Breen (1984, 1987), Ellis (2003, 2008, 2009), Willis (1996, 2001, 2004), Prabhu (1987), Skehan (1998a), Samuda and Bygate (2007), Long (1989), Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006), Ortega (2009), Sharwood *et al* (1989), Ringbom *et al* (2009), Kohonen (1992), Wilkins (1976), Schumann (1976), Krashen (1985), DeKeyser (2009), Schmidt (1994, 2001), Paradis (2004), Howatt (1984), White (1988), Hyland (2009), Basturkmen (2006) and Scollon and Scollon (1995).

The first section conducts a discussion of research on syllabus design and the way in which Task-based Language Teaching can be incorporated into a syllabus design for the purpose of proficiency development of second language learners. Raya (2009) defines a syllabus as a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning. Benevides and Valvona (2003: 1) advance the view that Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is a communicative approach to language instruction, using the successful completion of communicative tasks. Therefore, a

task-based syllabus can be designed in order to organise and present what is to be achieved through teaching and learning. According to Raya (2009: 66) this can be done in terms of how a learner may engage his/ her own communicative competence in performing a series of tasks and how learners may develop this competence through learning how to learn and how to communicate.

Tasks can be divided into real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks. Various definitions are given by different researchers to define these two task categories. These researchers include Long (1985), Richards *et al* (1986), Breen (1987), Ellis (2003) and Nunan (2003). Various types of tasks occur as seen in the discussion in section 2.2.2 of Chapter two. Each of these tasks can be graded and sequenced according to its complexity level. Robinson (2009: 303) points out that there are three factors which determine the sequencing of tasks, i.e. code complexity (knowledge about language), cognitive complexity (familiarity of a task, genre or topic, information type) and communicative stress (opportunities to control interaction in a language, number of participants, time pressure). According to Skehan (1998) there will be more focus on form in a language when tasks are sequenced in terms of simple to complex. Issues relating to focus on form are discussed in section 2.2.4 of Chapter two.

Teachers play an important role in TBLT (section 2.2.5 of Chapter two), and Task-based methodology has implications for teaching a second language (section 2.2.7 of Chapter two). Teachers need to realise that experiential learning is an important part of task-based language teaching. Therefore, according to Nunan (2003: 12) the active involvement of the learner is very important and central to the approach and thus it is „learning by doing”.

The discussion of the theoretical framework in section 2.3 of Chapter two presents a discussion concerning recent research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Ortega (2009: 1) argues that Second Language Acquisition is used to investigate the ability of the human being to learn other languages than their first language during childhood, adolescence or adulthood. SLA includes cross-linguistic influences between L1 and L2 and whether these influences are positive or negative. Ortega (2009: 42) maintains that the knowledge of a first language can have a positive impact on the second language learning. According to Håkan Ringbom (1987, 1992, 2007) the rate of second language learning can be accelerated by the relevant knowledge in the first language. Language learners tend to use different types of transfer (section 2.3.3) when learning a second language. Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 15)

advance the view that each learner has different attitudes toward language learning. Furthermore, learners differ concerning their aptitude for the acquisition of a second language (section 2.3.5). Therefore it is important to consider the individual learner characteristics when teaching a certain language, because each learner will use a different type of language learning and thus a different type of language transfer.

In section 2.4 of Chapter two, current research concerning implicit and explicit learning is explored. N. Ellis (2008: 105) points out that the acquisition of first language grammar is normally implicit. This implicit knowledge is extracted from the experience of usage and not from the explicit rules of the language. It is different in the case of adult learning and acquisition of a second language. Adult acquisition of a second language normally requires resources of explicit learning. According to Ellis (2009: 7) there can be distinguished between implicit and explicit second language learning, i.e. whether learning takes place without intention/ awareness or with intention/ awareness respectively. Implicit and explicit learning can be done through implicit and explicit instruction (see section 2.4.2).

Section 2.5 of Chapter two presents a discussion about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Nunan (2003: 6) argues that language can be seen as more than a set of grammatical rules, with attendant sets of vocabulary, to be memorized. In other words, it is a dynamic resource for creating meaning. Therefore, learners, as well as the cognitive processes in which learners engage are important for learning and acquiring a second language.

Lastly, section 2.6 of Chapter two presents a discussion of recent views on teaching language for specific purposes. Hyland (2009: 201) argues that teaching language for specific purposes is required to meet the demands of specific employer groups in order to be „work-ready’. The focus and attention should be on the teaching of specific needs in order for learners to use these language skills in the contexts in which they will be working. Therefore, the focus is on the needs analysis of learners, the analysis of contexts and the language use in these particular contexts. Once learners have acquired relevant language skills and language needs, they will be able to communicate in specific contents.

1.3 Methodology

In order to create communicative tasks for police officers, information is required regarding police communication tasks. The most common incidents which appear were established first. Once this was done, the police personnel in every section of the police station were interviewed to gain the necessary information concerning police communication before, during and after each of these incidents. Information was gathered concerning the type of communication used in the police station between the police officials (internally), as well as outside the police station with the community (externally). The questions that were asked during the interview appear in section 1.1. Dialogues were constructed accordingly for the purpose of identifying central task types.

The communication tasks are divided into two broad categories, i.e. police-public communication (see Chapter four) and police-police communication (see Chapter five). The content in each of the dialogues is based on the information gathered concerning the questions mentioned in section 1.1. Every dialogue simulation consists of the type of communication used between police officials and the public, i.e. external communication, or between the police officials in the police station, i.e. internal communication. The dialogues are analysed in terms of task types (see description in Chapter three), the Cognition Hypothesis of Robinson (description in Chapter three) and the Speech Unit Model of Foster (description in Chapter three).

1.4 Organization of study

Chapter two consists of five sections addressing a range of theoretical and research issues concerning second language learning and acquisition. The first section entails a broad discussion concerning syllabus design and the ways in which Task-based Language Teaching can be incorporated into a syllabus design. Different types of tasks are explored in relation to the ways in which these tasks can be graded and sequenced. The second section entails a discussion about Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Cross-linguistic influences are discussed in terms of the views of Ortega (2009). Furthermore, the influence of the linguistic environment is considered, as well as the different types of transfer that learners tend to use while learning and acquiring a second language. The third section reveals the rationale for

implicit and explicit learning. Implicit and explicit second language learning, implicit and explicit instruction and the interface issue forms part of the discussion. The fourth section explores Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) with reference to the theories of Nunan (2003), Breen (1984), Ellis (2003), Brown and Yule (1983), Howatt (1984) and Littlewood (1981). The last section entails a rational discussion for teaching a second language for specific purposes. This discussion is concerned with the needs analysis of learners, the analysis of contexts and the language use in these particular contexts.

Chapter three consists of six main sections on which the analysis of the dialogues in Chapter four and Chapter five is based. The first section entails a description concerning the different proficiency levels that occur. The proficiency levels are determined by using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001) and the Interagency Language Roundtable (2010). The second section is a description about task types based on the theory of Pica *et al* (1993). In the third section of Chapter 2 the Cognition Hypothesis of Robinson are described and explained. This hypothesis of Robinson is used in order to determine the complexity levels of the various tasks in Chapter 4 and 5. The fourth section of this chapter consists of a discussion concerning the Speech Unit Model of Foster. This theory is used to determine the syntactic complexity of the grammar used in each of the dialogues. In section five, a discussion is presented concerning task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness. The final section contains a description of language functions identified in the various communication tasks.

Chapter four examines isiXhosa dialogue simulations concerning police-public communication. Each dialogue is followed by an analyses of task types using the theory of Pica *et al* (1993) described in Chapter three. The cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity of each dialogue are analysed in terms of the theory of Robinson and Foster, respectively.

Chapter five investigates isiXhosa dialogue simulations of police-police communication. These dialogues present an analysis of task types in terms of the framework presented by Pica *et al*. The cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity of each dialogue are analysed in terms of the theory of Robinson and Foster, respectively.

Chapter six consists of five sections. The first section is an introduction to the focus-on-form instruction. The second and third section explores the various language functions in terms of task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness of the police-public and police-police communication tasks, respectively. Section four examines the ways in which communication tasks can be scaled. To conclude, section five presents a discussion concerning the views of Willis and Willis (2007) regarding focus-on-form.

Chapter seven gives the conclusion to the analysis presented in the previous chapters on communication between police officials and police officials and the public. This chapter also proposes concluding perspectives on the design and implementation of task-based language teaching of isiXhosa as second language for specific purposes.

An appendix is added with several scenarios which can be developed into possible dialogues and which can be analysed in the same manner as Chapter four and five.

CHAPTER TWO
CENTRAL ISSUES IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING
(TBLT) RESEARCH

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explore issues regarding Task-based theory and research by considering views of different researchers in different fields of Task-based Language Teaching and Learning. The aim is also to examine the way in which Task-based Language Teaching can be incorporated into a syllabus design. Furthermore, this chapter aims to discuss the ways in which different types of tasks contribute to task-based syllabus for teaching and learning a second language. In order to teach and acquire a second language, it is necessary to examine the crosslinguistic similarities between a first language and the target language. Furthermore, the aim is to provide second language teachers with the necessary knowledge regarding implicit and explicit instruction in order to teach language for specific purposes.

This chapter presents a discussion of recent views on Task-based Language Teaching. Firstly, considerations regarding syllabus design will be discussed. This will be followed by a discussion of research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Thirdly, issues surrounding implicit and explicit learning will be examined. Thereafter, a discussion will follow regarding Communicative Language Teaching. Lastly, teaching language for specific purposes will be explored. The chapter concludes with a summary of the main discussion concerning Task-based Language Teaching.

2.2 Considerations in Syllabus design

This section explores various research perspectives regarding syllabus design. It also examines recent research concerning Task-based Language Teaching. Different types of tasks are explored and a broad discussion of each is provided. Furthermore, this section examines the way in which tasks are sequenced in a Task-based language teaching approach and where focus on form should be used in a task sequence. A discussion regarding experiential learning and Content-based Instruction will also follow.

Nunan (2001: 1) argues that syllabus design „is concerned with the selection, sequencing and justification of the curriculum.’ Robinson (2009: 294) points out that syllabus design is usually based on decisions that need to be made about ‘units’ of classroom activities, as well as the decisions about the „sequence’ in which these activities need to be performed. Therefore, a syllabus is used to formalize all the content that must be learned. When a syllabus is designed, individual differences of learners need to be considered since a syllabus must be designed accordingly. The units that occur in a syllabus design can be based on the language that is to be learned in terms of grammatical and lexical items. These items can be sequenced in terms of difficulty and frequency, respectively. Units can further be based on the analyses of language components which can be graded in terms of simple or complex components. Units can also be based on the communication and performative skills of a language. According to Robinson (2009: 295) a syllabus can be designed to be fixed, i.e. the syllabus has a fixed decision on what to teach and in what order it should be taught.

According to Raya (2009: 66) a syllabus is primarily a plan of what is to be achieved through teaching and learning. A syllabus is designed to map out the knowledge and those capabilities which are regarded as valuable outcomes from teaching and learning and to work accordingly. A syllabus can be designed to specify particular aspects and to select particular aspects of the language to be taught. It can also be used in social situations for a range of personal and social purposes. In this sense, a task-based syllabus is designed in order to organise and present what is to be achieved through teaching and learning in terms of how a learner may engage his/ her own communicative competence in undertaking a series of tasks successfully and how learners may develop this competence through learning how to learn and how to communicate. Raya (2009: 66) states that a task-based syllabus design consists of two major task types, namely learning/ pedagogical tasks and communicative tasks. A task-based syllabus does not divide language into small pieces. According to Raya (2009: 66) they adopt holistic, functional and communicative tasks, rather than any linguistic form, as the unit of analysis. When a task-based syllabus is designed, the following must be taken into consideration:

- The learners’ capacity to develop their own initial communicative competence (Raya, 2009: 66).

- The learners' capacity to impose order on new knowledge and required capabilities (Raya, 2009: 66).

2.2.1 Task-based Language Teaching

Benevides and Valvona (2003: 1) argue that Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is a communicative approach to language instruction, using the successful completion of communicative “tasks” as its primary organizing principle. According to Benevides and Valvona (2003: 1) instruction is organized in such a way that learners will improve their language ability by focusing on getting something done while using the language, rather than explicitly practicing language forms. Norris (2009: 578) points out that the focus in TBLT is on the outcomes of the language in the form of a task, i.e. what the learners will be able to do with the language after it has been taught. Dewey (1933) cited in Norris (2009: 578) believes that the best way of learning, is by doing (experiential learning).

Benevides and Valvona (2003: 2) state that TBLT provides a structured framework for both instruction and assessment. If tasks are used as the basic building blocks of syllabus design, it will allow the teachers to both sequence lessons and assess their outcomes. At the same time it will ensure authentic parameters within which students can communicate with each other for a purpose. Benevides and Valvona (2003: 2) emphasise that the most important is that it will allow learners to focus on *what* it is that they are saying to each other, rather than on *how* they are saying it.

In a task-based approach, language forms should never be the primary focus (Benevides and Valvona, 2003: 2). Benevides and Valvona (2003: 2) argue that it is important that students must be allowed to make meaning in different ways. It is ideal if teachers assist and correct learners when asked, but they may not restrict the learners' choice of which forms to use before the task is attempted. It is very useful to have a post-task phase in task-based language teaching. During this phase, after the learners have completed the task, the teacher may choose to go over the language used and correct specific errors and/ or highlighting particularly well-suited forms Benevides and Valvona (2003: 2). They point out that it is crucial to focus on the notion of authenticity when learners attempt real-world activities.

Raya (2009: 66) states that task-based language teaching (TBLT) is a teaching approach based on the exclusive use of tasks. Task-based language teaching represents a challenge to mainstream views about language teaching by maintaining that language learning will be most effective if teaching creates contexts in which the learners can practice language. A natural language learning capacity can thus be maintained rather than making a systematic attempt to teach the language in small doses. Therefore, this approach uses a process syllabus. Task-based language teaching is an active process that can only be successful if the learner invests intensive mental effort in performing tasks. Furthermore, TBLT regards learning as an interactive process that can be enhanced by interacting with other learners and/or the teacher (Raya, 2009: 66).

TBLT has the following advantages (Benevides and Valvona, 2003: 2-3):

- Authentic tasks in TBLT are very motivating. Learners attempt authentic tasks, because learners can see that the task is, in itself, interesting and applicable to their lives.
- Targeted real-world tasks (defined in section 2.2) have much clearer outcomes that can be more easily assessed, in contrast with more general or “open” tasks such as having a conversation. For example when someone gives an instruction over the telephone in his second language, he will know whether that person succeeded or not – if the instructions are carried out correctly or not.
- Real-world activities can be sequenced in terms of complexity (Benevides and Valvona, 2003: 2-3). It can be arranged from simpler tasks to more complex tasks. For example. Ordering a pizza will be classified as a simple task, while telling a story will be classified as complex tasks.

2.2.2 Defining the meaning of ‘task’

According to Nunan (2003: 1) the concept of task has become an important element in syllabus design, classroom teaching and learner assessment. By performing tasks, learners will learn to focus on trying to understand what is being written or said. In this way, learners will start to notice the kinds of forms being used and in what way these forms are used

(Norris, 2009: 582). Tasks can be divided into two categories, namely real-world or target tasks and pedagogical tasks. There are several definitions for target tasks, as well as pedagogical tasks. Nunan (2003: 1) argues that target tasks refer to uses of language in the world outside the classroom, while pedagogical tasks are the uses of language in the classroom. According to Long (1985: 89) a target task can be defined as follows:

“It is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Examples of such tasks include painting a fence, driving a car, making a lunch reservation, posting letters, borrowing a library book, sorting letters, etc. In other words by ‘task’ is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between.”

The definition above is non-linguistic, in other words, as Nunan (2003: 2) argues, it describes the things that the person in the street will say if they were asked what they are doing. Thus, it does not concern the study of the language and the grammatical aspects of the language.

The moment that tasks from the real-world are transferred to the classroom, the tasks become pedagogical. According to Richards *et al* (1986: 289) a pedagogical task is defined as follows:

“It is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative, since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake.”

The definition above is formulated according to what learners do in class, rather than what they will use in the real world outside the classroom (Nunan, 2003: 2-3).

Breen (1987: 23) defines a pedagogical task in a different manner. He argues as follow:

“It is any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. ‘Task’ is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans

which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning – from the simple and brief exercise type to more complex and lengthy activities.”

According to Nunan (2003: 3) this definition implies that anything the learner does in class qualifies as a task.

Ellis (2003: 16) argues that a pedagogical task can be defined as follows:

“A task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes.”

Nunan gives his own definition of a pedagogical task. His definition of pedagogic task is as follows:

“It is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning and in which the attention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, middle and an end.”

Meaning and form are interrelated (Nunan, 2003: 4). The ideal is that communication used in the real world, is used to form tasks in the classroom. By doing this, the learners will be familiar with the language the moment they are exposed to situations outside the classroom in a real world context.

According to Benevides and Valvona (2003: 2) a task may be short and self-contained (for example to order a pizza over the telephone) or a task can be longer and more complex (for

example to organize and publish a newspaper). Whether the tasks are short or longer and more complex, they always involve a clear and practical outcome (for example the pizza that arrives with the correct toppings).

According to Ellis (2003: 9-10) a task is a workplan and it involves primary focus on meaning. A task involves real-world processes of language use and a task can involve any of the four language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening). Furthermore, a task engages cognitive processes and has a clearly defined communicative outcome. Various tasks can be differentiated. These tasks are as follows:

- **Task as Response**

Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) cited in Willis (2004: 14) defines Task as Response as „an activity or action which is carried out as a result of processing or understanding language, i.e. as a response.’ Answering questions while listening to a story, or even listening to an instruction and carrying out demands can be seen as tasks. They argue that it is possible that tasks may or may not have the ability to involve the production of language. During the performance of tasks, teachers will be able to specify what will be needed in order to complete the task successfully. The performance of a variety of tasks in language teaching will make teaching more communicative.

- **Task as Derived Outcome**

According to Prabhu (1987: 2) Task as Derived Outcome refers to „an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some processes of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process was regarded as a task.’

- **Task as Goal-Orientated Activity**

Willis (1996: 53) argues that Task as Goal-Orientated Activity with Real Outcome is „a goal-orientated activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome.’ Therefore, learners are required to use any language resources at their disposal in order to complete a given task.

- **Task as Focus on Meaning**

According to Skehan (1998a: 95) Task as Focus on Meaning with Assessment of Outcomes is „an activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship comparable to real world activities; task completion has some priority and the assessment is in terms of task outcome.’ Therefore, „tasks do not give learners other people’s meanings to regurgitate; tasks are not concerned with language display; tasks are not conformity-orientated; tasks are not practice-orientated and tasks do not embed language into materials so that specific structures can be focused on.’

2.2.2.1 Task as ‘workplan’

According to Breen (1987: 24-25) any language learning task will be reinterpreted by a learner in his or her own terms. In other words, this implies that a pre-designed task, the task-as-workplan, will be changed the moment the learner acts upon it. Breen (1987: 24-25) argues that the task-as-workplan will be redrawn so that the learner can relate to it in the first place and also make it manageable in that way.

By framing his definition in terms of „workplan’, Ellis uses the definition to refer explicitly only to the intentions of the teacher, and thus excludes the activities the students actually engage in (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 65). In other words, the definition enables „task’ to be defined in terms of pedagogical intention, but not in terms of what happens in practice. Other elements of the definition are not consistent with this position. Tasks involving real-world processes of language use and tasks engaging cognitive processes, for example, are not helpful unless there can be shown what kinds of processes occur. It is also necessary to be able to show that the task as designed does give rise to real-world processes of language use and that it engages cognitive processes. Therefore, it is not enough to look at the activity on paper; it is necessary to observe what happens when learners engage with the activity.

The definition of the term „task’ needs to accommodate the different ways in which it is used (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 65). For example, teachers and teacher educators will ask questions such as: What did you ask the class to do? (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 65) argues that this is normally frequently directed at trainee teachers, for instance. Where a task is concerned, it refers to the task-as-workplan. It is relevant for trainee teachers, because they

can often benefit from being encouraged to reflect on the choice and/ or exact formulation of task instructions and their relationship to the activities that learners actually engage in. In other words, as Samuda and Bygate (2007: 65) argue, teachers are encouraged to reflect on what they ask students to do, since it affects what they end up doing. Therefore, it is necessary that they also need to reflect on task as action and process.

According to Samuda and Bygate (2007: 65) there is a second type of question that is asked by teachers of each other: „How did the task work?’ Or: „How did your group get on with the task?’ In this case, the central concern is with what the learners did. This refers to the task as task-in-process. Samuda and Bygate (2007: 65) state that the question should be asked in light of what the learners are asked to do.

In light of the above two examples, Samuda and Bygate (2007: 65) argue that in educational contexts the interest is never in the task as workplan or the task in process. The interest is only in each in so far as it relates to each other. Therefore, the term „task’ needs to refer to both dimensions of the activity, just as the word „activity’ itself. For example, words such as game, set and match can refer both to the plan prior to the event and to the events of the plan-in-action (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 66). It is important to study and understand how learners respond to and engage with tasks and how they modify and reinterpret the workplan themselves (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 66).

Samuda and Bygate (2007: 66) state that it is more useful to define tasks as a holistic type of pedagogical activity. This term can encompass both the plan itself (the task on paper) and how that plan is subsequently interpreted and enacted by learners and teachers (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 66).

2.2.2.2 Holistic activity vs. Analytical activity

Samuda and Bygate (2007: 7) argue that the aim of second/ foreign language teaching is to develop the ability to use the target language. By „use’ is meant that the language is used not only to practice or show mastery, but also for information (personal and professional), for social, political and artistic purposes, as well as for aesthetic pleasure. One can engage in language use through the use of holistic activity (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 7).

Samuda and Bygate (2007: 7) state that „use’ is holistic in the sense that it involves the learners’ knowledge of the different sub-areas of language (i.e. phonology, grammar, vocabulary and discourse) to make meanings. In holistic activities, the learner deals with the different aspects of language together, in other words, in the way language is normally used. According to Samuda and Bygate (2007: 7) first language learning occurs through holistic activities. Furthermore, holistic activities play a significant role in second language learning, teaching and testing.

Tasks are one kind of holistic activity. Tasks with a holistic nature can be represented schematically (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 7). The following diagram illustrates tasks with a holistic nature:

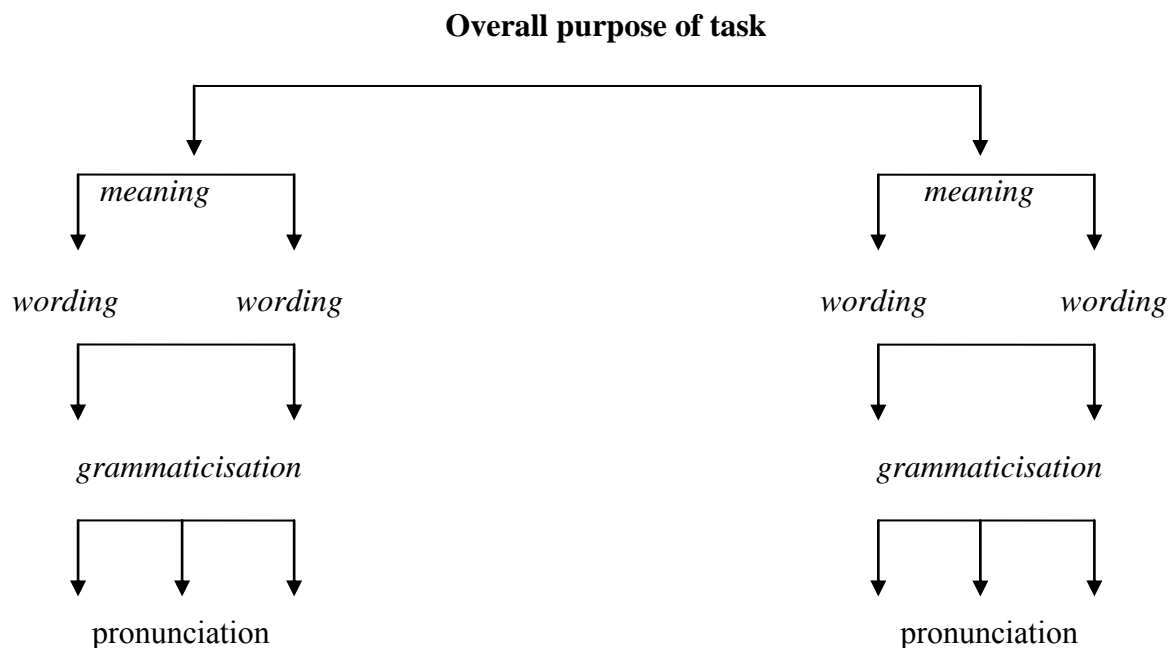


Figure 2-1: Schematic structure of a task (Samuda & Bygate, 2007:8)

In the above diagram, the words in italics show that those are the points where the learners are required to make a choice. The overall purpose is set between the teacher and the learner. The italics further indicate that in order to achieve this purpose, the learner must choose and sequence relevant meanings, words and grammar, with the pronunciation following in the light of that choice (Samuda and Bygate, 2007: 7-8). A task engages holistic language use by involving learners in making purposeful, on-line choices of meaning and form. According to

Samuda and Bygate (2007: 8) learners are led to work with and integrate the different aspects of language for a larger purpose when they engage with the task.

According to Samuda and Bygate (2007: 7) analytical activities reduce the number of aspects of language which the learners have to learn in order to concentrate more narrowly on a selected target feature. Analytical tasks have been used in language teaching to focus attention on selected language items.

2.2.2.3 Focused and unfocused tasks

Beside real-world and pedagogical tasks, tasks can also be classified as either focused or unfocused tasks. Unfocused tasks, on the other hand, are designed to provide learners with opportunities for using language in general communicatively (Raya, 2003: 67).

Raya (2009: 63) argues that focused tasks are designed to provide opportunities for communicative language practice, using some specific linguistic (grammatical) feature. It is necessary that focused tasks meet task criteria. In focused tasks the target linguistic feature is not made explicit for the learners

According to Ellis (2003: 141) it is important to recognize that focused tasks, like unfocused tasks must meet all the criteria of tasks in general. It is necessary that there is a primary concern for message content (although this does not preclude attention to form), the participants must be able to choose the linguistic and non-linguistic resources needed and there must be a clearly defined outcome. Tasks are distinguished as focused tasks and situational grammar exercises. Situational grammar exercises are designed to provide practice of a specific linguistic feature. Raya (2003: 63) argues that learners are made aware of what grammatical structure they must produce. Ellis (2003: 141) promotes that in the case of focused tasks, the learners are not informed of the specific linguistic focus and therefore they tend to treat the task in the same way as they would treat an unfocused task, i.e. they pay primary attention to message content. It does not mean that learners won't attend to the target form while they perform the task. A focused task is designed to elicit primary attention. Ellis (2003: 141) emphasizes that it will however be incidental. In a situational grammar exercise,

on the other hand, the learners are told what the linguistic focus is and therefore learners will attend to it when they perform the task. Therefore, attention to form is intentional.

Ellis (2003: 16) further maintains that the aim of focused tasks is to induce learners to process, either receptively or productively, some particular linguistic features, for example, a grammatical structure. This processing must occur as a result of performing activities that satisfy the key criteria of a task, i.e. that language is used pragmatically to achieve some non-linguistic outcome. Ellis (2003: 16-17) argues that focused tasks have two aims. Firstly the aim is to stimulate communicative language use (as with unfocused tasks), and secondly the aim is to target the use of a particular target feature.

According to Ellis (2003: 17) there are two main ways in which a task can achieve a focus. The first way is to design the task in such a way that it can only be performed if learners use a particular linguistic feature. In other words, the task must be based on the use of grammatical language. The second way is by making language itself the content of a task (Ellis, 2003: 17). In other words, the topics should be drawn from real life or perhaps from the academic curriculum that students are studying. These kinds of tasks require the exchange of meaning and ideas and therefore it is meaning-focused tasks. This is conscious raising (CR) tasks (Ellis, 2003: 17).

Willis and Willis (2001: 173-174) reject focused tasks. They argue as follows:

“The use of the word ‘task’ is sometimes extended to include ‘metacommunicative tasks’, or exercises with a focus on linguistic form, in which learners manipulate language or formulate generalizations about form. But a definition of task which includes an explicit focus on form seems to be so all-embracing as to cover almost anything that might happen in a classroom. We therefore restrict our use of the term ‘task’ to communicative tasks and exclude metacommunicative tasks from our definition. One feature of task-based learning, therefore, is that learners carrying out a task are free to use any language they can to achieve the outcomes: language forms are not prescribed in advance.”

According to Willis and Willis (2001: 173-174) cited in Nunan (2003: 95) an instructional sequence can still include the use of form-focused exercise. They argue that it just should not be referred to as a „task’.

2.2.2.4 Open tasks vs. Closed tasks

Ellis (2003: 89) proposes that open tasks are those where the participants know there is no predetermined solution. Tasks involving making choices, surveys, debates, ranking activities and general discussion are open in nature, because learners are free to decide on the solution. According to Ellis (2003: 89) open tasks vary in their degree of „openness’, for example a task that allowed learners freedom to choose the topics to discuss is more open than a task that stipulates the topic-information. Closed tasks, in contrast, are tasks which require learners to reach a single, correct solution or one of a small finite set of solutions. Information gap tasks, for example, „same-or-different’, are typically closed in nature.

According to Long (1989) closed tasks are more likely to promote negotiation work than open tasks, because they make it less likely that learners will give up when faced with a challenge. Long (1989) further argues that in the case of open tasks such as „free conversation’ tasks, difficult topics are not necessary. It is possible that learners can treat topics briefly and switch topic if necessary. There is also no need for learners to provide or incorporate feedback. Long (1989) states that open tasks have the tendency to take away the need to make an effort to communicate. Closed tasks, on the other hand require learners to always try and make themselves understood. According to Long (1989) it is good for language acquisition.

2.2.2.5 One-Way vs. Two-Way Tasks

According to Pica (1993) cited in Willis (2004: 24) One-Way and Two-Way tasks refer „to the conditions set for the task and describe the direction of information flow among learners.’ Information exchange occurs in a two-way direction the moment when participants are in a relationship of „mutual request and suppliance’ (Pica, 1993: 13). Information will start flowing in a one-way direction from the supplier to the requester the moment relationship of request and suppliance gets more differentiated and less mutual (Pica, 1993: 13).

Willis (2004: 25) argues that one-way and two-way tasks correspond with nonreciprocal and reciprocal tasks respectively. In the case of nonreciprocal or one-way tasks the flow of information is controlled by only one participant in interaction, while the other participants will only be listening or doing something. On the other hand, two-way tasks gives more opportunities for the negotiation of meaning (Willis, 2004: 25).

2.2.2.6 Target Tasks (Real-World Tasks) versus Pedagogic Tasks

Long and Crooks (1992) cited in Willis (2004: 26) argue that target tasks „are everyday tasks that learners may need to do in the real world.’ Examples of target tasks will be to follow instructions concerning directions, to make a telephonic order, to read a manual etc. According to Willis (2004: 26) target tasks can also be referred to as “authentic” tasks. Needs analysis can be used to identify authentic tasks and through the use of needs analysis, these can be broken down into target task types. Pedagogic tasks are derived from these target task types and it is then used to be worked on in the classroom (Willis, 2004: 26-27). It is possible that tasks will rather be used to be carried out in a real life situation, rather than in the classroom.

Table 2-1: A Framework for Describing Tasks (Ellis, 2003: 21)

<i>Design Feature</i>	<i>Description</i>
Goal	This is the general purpose of the task in terms of aspects of communicative competence and possibly in terms of linguistic skills or rhetorical mode – for example, to practice the ability to identify people from oral or written descriptions, to provide an opportunity for the use of post-modifying phrases, to give directions, to narrate and react to stories, to put forward and jointly evaluate possible solutions to a problem in a formally chaired context.
Input	The verbal and / or nonverbal information supplied by the task materials – for example, task instructions, a story or experience recounted by the teacher, a written text, a recording, a picture, a map.
Conditions	The way in which information is presented, or the way in which it is to be used – for example, information seen by both partners for a limited time (as for memory tasks), or <i>split</i> between partners (e.g. comparison tasks), <i>or</i> held by one partner (story to be told while the listener arranges pictures) <i>or</i> shared (statement of problem to be solved cooperatively, the first part of a story for discussion of possible endings). Note that comparison tasks can also be done in a collaborative mode, with two learners helping each other and composing a list together. Even slight changes in the conditions will of course result in a different type of interaction.
Procedures	The methodological procedures to be followed in performing the task – for example, individual/ pair/ group; with/ without pretask planning time; note talking allowed/ not allowed, time limit/ other limit; posttask report spoken/ written.
Predicted Outcomes	<i>Product:</i> The “product” that results from completing the task, for example, a completed table, a route drawn on a map, a solution to a problem, a list of differences/ things in common/ things remembered. <i>Process:</i> The linguistic and cognitive processes the task is hypothesized to generate, for example, shifting, selecting, ordering, sorting, matching, comparing, reasoning, evaluating, justifying, hypothesizing.

2.2.2.7 Description of Type Tasks

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 18-22) argue that learners have certain needs concerning second/ additional language learning. Each learner has their own language learning needs and these language needs are based on their personal development in. There can be distinguished between subjective and objective needs. According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 20) subjective needs are „based on the learner’s own statements’, whereas objective needs „can be deduced by parties other than the learners themselves.’ Subjective needs refer to the goals that learners have in mind when learning a second language, as well as to *what* and *how* learners want to learn a second language. In the case of a curriculum design, subjective and objective needs must be balanced Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 21).

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 22) state that relevant domains and language use situations is important in the case of syllabus design. Domains and situations is used to describe the context in which language is used and not to refer to the things that a learner should do with a language in order for efficient functioning to take place in these situations (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 23). According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 25) it is necessary that language use situations need to require the comfortable use of language. They (2006: 27) maintain that „task’ can be used as a basic unit of description in order to reach the level of specifications. Tasks are derived according to observations in the target domain, the selected language use situation and gathering expert opinions (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 28).

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 31) language tasks can be „classified’ and „clustered’ in different ways. The concept of „Type Task’ was developed by Long (1985). The concept of „Type Tasks’ refer to the fact that concrete language tasks can be classified on the basis of their common characteristics. Type tasks can be seen as „prototypical tasks for a particular domain’ (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 31). Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 31) argue that „the domain itself is the starting point for the selection of parameters that will cluster specific language tasks into type tasks.’

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 31) propose that type tasks involve certain parameters. Parameters are used to illustrate the description of type tasks. The following parameters are involved in the type tasks of police communication specifically (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 32):

- (1) The skills involved, i.e. whether the participant has to speak, listen, read or write in the language use situation.
- (2) Text genre, i.e. the kind of message that has to be conveyed and understood
- (3) Level of information processing, i.e. the level at what the linguistic information need to be processed

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 35) there can be distinguished between four levels of information processing:

- (a) Copying level: “The learner simply has to reproduce information without processing it for comprehension (e.g. reading a text aloud).”
- (b) Descriptive level: “The learner has to process the information in the same structure as it is presented”.
- (c) Restructuring level: “The reader has to rearrange and restructure the information provided”.
- (d) Evaluating level: “The learner has to reflect the language by comparing the information provided in the text with information provided in another text or source”.

The predominant type tasks that will particularly be used in the syllabus design for police communication, is type tasks on a descriptive level, type tasks on a restructuring level and type tasks on a evaluative level. At the descriptive level, the ideas, as well as the main thoughts have to be understood with regard to the information. In other words, the thoughts should be understandable as presented. In this case no manipulation is needed and therefore the learner has to be able to reproduce the information in the same structure as it is presented. At the restructuring level, it is necessary that relevant information and instructions must be selected. The learner must be able to rearrange and restructure the information (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 37).

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 51) point out that it is necessary that participants make progress on a proficiency level when they are at an intermediate level. A complexity scale is developed In order for participants to develop. There can be distinguished between three categories of parameters for task complexity (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 51):

- (a) “Parameters concerning the world represented in the task.”
- (b) “Parameters with regard to processing demands required for task performance.”
- (c) “Parameters with regard to linguistic input features.”

According to Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 54) „each of these categories is set on a three-point scale, ranging from simple (1) to complex (3).’ It is necessary that the terms „simple’ and „complex’ be seen as relative terms. The complex end refers to the „ultimate level of proficiency that as to be attained by the participant on an intermediate level’ (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 54).

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 54) argue that parameters 1-3 describe the category of „world’. Parameter 1 describes the „perspective from which the topic is presented in the text.’ The topic is dealt with in a „here-and-now’ context. Parameter 2 describes „the degree of visual support that is provided to the learner.’ The visual support can be used in order to help the learner to form a conceptual representation of the world in the text. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 54) state that parameter 3 refers to the „degree of verbal redundancy in the text.’ Parameter 3 also refers to the linguistic context. Information can be provided to learners in a lot of different linguistic ways through texts. Texts can have a high density of information and in these texts learners can extract much information. It can also be that a text has a high level of redundancy. In this case little information can be extracted (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 54).

Parameters 4 and 5 describe the second category of „task’ (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 55). Parameter 4 refers to the „cognitive level at which the information in the text need to be processed.’ Three levels of information processing are identified, namely the descriptive level, the restructuring level and the evaluative level. Parameter 5 refers to „the way in which the participant should produce the answer or solution’ (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 55).

Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006: 55) state that parameters 6-9 represent the third category of „text’. Parameter 6 describes the extent to which vocabulary is included in texts. This vocabulary can range from high to infrequent words. Parameter 7 (syntax) refers to the length of the sentences used in the text. These sentences can be either short, simple sentences or long, embedded sentences. Parameter 8 describes the degree of explicit and clear structures

that are used in the text. The length of the text is described by parameter 9. These texts can range from short to long (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 56). Figure 1 illustrates the description of the complexity scale (Van Avermaet and Gysen, 2006: 52-53).

Parameters	Simple		Complex
(a) World			
1. Level of abstraction: concrete or abstract approach to the topic?	Concrete descriptions (here-and now)	In other time/ space (there-and-then)	Abstract perspective
2. Degree of visual support: to what extent is visual support provided, and does it support task performance?	Much visual support	Limited visual support	No visual support
3. Linguistic context: to what extent is linguistic context available, and does it support task performance?	High level of redundancy; low information density	Limited level of redundancy	High density of information; low level of redundancy
(b) Task (communicative and cognitive processing demands)			
4. Level of processing: what should students do with information in the text? At what level must the information be processed?	Descriptive (understanding information as presented)	Restructuring (reorganizing information)	Evaluative (comparing different information sources)
5. Modality: how should students provide their answers or produce the outcome?	Non-verbal reaction	Limited verbal reaction (writing/ talking at copying level)	Verbal reaction (talking or writing at descriptive level)
(c) Text			
6. Vocabulary: is the vocabulary used highly frequent or not?	Highly frequent words	Less frequent words	Infrequent words
7. Syntax: are the sentences simple or complex?	Short, simple sentences	Reasonably long sentences with juxtaposition	Long, embedded sentences
8. Text structure: is the text clearly/explicitly structured?	Structure is explicit and clear	Structure only partly explicit	Structure is left implicit
9. Text length: is the text short or long?	Short	Reasonably long	long

Figure 2-2: Complexity scale used for sequencing reception-based language tasks (and opposite) (Van Avermaet & Gysen, 2006: 52-3)

2.2.3 The grading and sequencing of tasks

Teachers are always faced with the decision on what to teach and in what order to teach these materials. The order in which tasks are taught, are referred to as grading. According to Richards, Platt and Weber (1986: 125) cited in Nunan (2003: 113) grading is described in the following way:

“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, skills, etc. are presented. Gradation may be based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken [language] or its importance for the learner.”

In light of the above definition, Nunan (2003: 113) points out that the tasks that are chosen to be taught first, is because it could be considered as easy enough for beginner learners to learn, or it is tasks that tend to appear most frequently or it is even tasks that are needed for communication in the real world. Skehan (1998) cited in Robinson (2009: 303) argues that there will be more focus on form in a language when tasks are sequenced in terms of simple to complex. According to Robinson (2009: 303) tasks should be sequenced in order to lead to both increased complexity and accuracy of production. There are three factors which determine the sequencing of tasks, i.e. code complexity (knowledge about language), cognitive complexity (familiarity with a task, genre or topic, information type) and communicative stress (opportunities to control interaction in a language, number of participants, time pressure). Robinson (2009: 303) points out that tasks should be sequenced from simple to more complex in order to minimize the negative effects that tasks tend to have on learners and, instead, develop accuracy, complexity and fluency of speech in a language.

Nunan (2003: 114) argues that the grading and sequencing of tasks is a difficult process because of the fact that the development of language is an „organic’ process. By an „organic’ process is meant that language items are not seen as isolated entities that must be taught one at a time. Language items are integrated and therefore they should be taught as a whole. When learners learn a language, they are likely not to learn one aspect of a certain language perfectly. Learners will rather learn a few items simultaneously, but they will only partially acquire these items.

According to Willis and Willis (2007: 21) a task-based lesson will involve a sequence of tasks and each of these tasks will relate to one another. Willis and Willis (2007: 21) advance the view that a teacher-led introduction is a very advantageous task itself. It teaches learners how to process language for meaning and therefore to focus on meaning. Furthermore, it prepares learners for the follow-up tasks in the sense that it helps learners to use their own knowledge in relation to the topic and it also introduces learners to the vocabulary that will be needed in order to complete the tasks (Willis and Willis, 2007: 21).

2.2.3.1 Grading input

Nunan (2003: 114) maintains that the complexity of the input is important in the case of task sequencing. For example, a text that consists of simple sentences, are considered simpler than tasks that consists out of sentences with long, embedded sentences or even subordination. Texts are usually grammatical more complex according to the length of the text, how much information is given in a text and how this information is presented, the complexity of vocabulary that is used, the number of speakers that are involved in a text and also according to the explicitness of the information in the given text (Nunan, 2003: 115).

Nunan (2003: 115) argues that support to a learner is also important. For example, a text that is provided with headings and sub-headings, and even photographs, and a text that is divided into paragraphs, is much easier to process than a text that does not consists of any of these. The genre of the text can also be taken into consideration in terms of complexity. A narrative or even a descriptive text will be much easier to be processed by learners (Nunan, 2003: 117). A text that is based on a familiar topic will also be easier to process than a text that is based on an unfamiliar topic.

2.2.3.2 Learner factors

Pearson and Johnson (1972) cited in Nunan (2003: 118) point out that there can be distinguished between „inside the head’ factors and „outside the head’ factors. „Inside the head’ factors refer to „all those that the learner brings to the task of processing and producing language such as background knowledge, interest, motivation, etc.’ According to Pearson and Johnson (1972) cited in Nunan (2003: 118-119) comprehension is very important.

Comprehension is used to link the known of the unknown. In other words, comprehension is used to try and work new knowledge into prior knowledge. According to Brindley (1987) cited in Nunan (2003: 120) learner factors will include things like motivation, learning pace, prior knowledge, confidence, experience, cultural knowledge/awareness, ability in language skills and linguistic knowledge.

Nunan (2003: 121) states that learner factors and input factors are interdependent. Therefore, it is important that the amount of background and linguistic knowledge of the learner must be considered. There is also an interaction between the content knowledge and the linguistic knowledge of learners. Second language learners whom may experience a lack of linguistic knowledge in their second language, can compensate by drawing on their second language content knowledge.

2.2.3.3 Task Continuity and sequencing within tasks

According to Nunan (2003: 125) „chaining’, „continuity’ and „dependency’ refers to the same thing, namely the „interdependence of tasks, task components and supporting enabling skills within an instructional sequence.’ Nunan (2003: 125) points out that the „psycholinguistic processing’ approach is an alternative. In the case of this approach, tasks are being sequenced according to the cognitive complexity the performance demands that are required. When tasks are sequenced, the demands required of learners are gradually increased. These demands are increased within the task, as well as from one task to the next.

Sequencing can take place within tasks. Nunan (2003: 128) argues that there are three phases that occur in within-task sequencing. These three phases are the pre-task phase, the task-proper phase and the follow-up phase. The pre-task phase helps to focus the attention of the learner on the task, to make the learner interested in the particular task and to provide the language that will be required in order to complete the task. During the task-proper phase the learners are required to complete the task. During the follow-up phases, learners are debriefed from the teacher and they are required to give feedback to the whole class.

2.2.4 Focus on Form

Nunan (2003: 93) argues that the use of focus on form in task-based language teaching is controversial. He (2003: 93) states that some theorists argue that it is important that communicative interaction form part of a language. It is also necessary for sufficiency of language acquisition and therefore, in this sense, focus on form is not necessary. According to Krashen (1981, 1982) cited in Nunan (2003: 93) there are two processes in the case of language development. These are subconscious acquisition and conscious learning. Krashen (1981, 1982) proposes that focus on form is aimed on the conscious learning of language.

Nunan (2003: 93) points out that there is a relationship between a task that must be performed and the language that must support the performance of this task. The uncertainty that occurs in this case is whether or not to use a particular grammatical structure. There is also an uncertainty of whether one can complete a particular task successfully with only a few linguistic tasks that one have at one's disposal.

Lantolf (2000) cited in Nunan (2003: 94) postulated sociocultural theory. This theory is employed in accounting for the acquisition of language in contexts that are instructional. This sociocultural theory is based on the psychological theories of Vygotsky. According to Nunan (2003: 94) Vygotsky has seen language as a cognitive tool and also as a social tool and learners are able to use these tools in order to make a difference in the world. Researchers usually use this theory in order to study the interaction that exists between two or more learners when they are required to complete a task. This is done in order to see how these interactions can provide opportunities for the learning of a second language. It usually occurs when a task is performed where only one of the learners have certain linguistic knowledge which the other learner does not have but is needed in order to complete the task (Nunan, 2003: 94). Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) cited in Nunan (2003: 95) argue that it is not always necessary to use a particular form in order to complete a task successfully. Sometimes it happens that certain forms appear naturally during the completion of a task. Linguistic forms can also be used for the completion of tasks.

2.2.4.1 Conscious-raising (CR) tasks

Nunan (2003: 98) argues that conscious-raising tasks are tasks that attempt to draw the attention of learners to a specific linguistic feature. This is done through a whole range of deductive and inductive procedures. Ellis (2001: 162-163) points out that conscious-raising tasks is different from a lot of other focused tasks. It differs in two ways:

“First, whereas structure-based production tasks, enriched input tasks and interpretation tasks are intended to cater primarily to implicit learning, CR-tasks are designed to cater primarily to explicit learning – that is, they are intended to develop awareness at the level of ‘understanding’ rather than awareness at the level of ‘noticing’. Thus, the desired outcome of a conscious-raising task is awareness of how some linguistic features work. Second, whereas the previous types of tasks were built around content of a general nature (e.g. stories, pictures of objects, opinions about the kind of person you like), CR-tasks make language itself the content. In this respect, it can be asked whether CR-tasks are indeed tasks. They are in the sense that learners are required to talk meaningfully about a language point using their own linguistic resources. That is, although there is some linguistic feature that is the focus of the task learners are not required to use this feature, only think about it and discuss it. The ‘taskness’ of a CR-task lies not in the linguistic point that is the focus of the task but rather in the talk learners must engage in, in order to achieve an outcome to the task.”

Nunan (2003: 99) maintains that it is necessary to focus on a specific feature for attention when CR-tasks are designed for learners to perform. It is helpful to provide the learners with input data that illustrates the given feature, as well as a rule that explains this feature. After the learners are provided with the information concerning the feature, they are required to understand the particular feature and they should also be able to describe the grammatical structure.

2.2.4.2 Where focus on form should be used in an instructional sequence

Nunan (2003: 101) argues that focus on form should be used at some point in the instructional sequence. Earlier in the task-based language teaching, focus on form was introduced first. This stage was called the ‘pre-communicative stage’. By introducing the

focus on form, a basis was provided for communicative work that took place at a later stage. According to Nunan (2003: 99) it would have been unrealistic if learners were expected to first use the language before it have been taught to them explicitly.

Nunan (2003: 31-33) introduces six steps to the developing units of work. These six steps are schema building, controlled practice, authentic listening practice, focus on linguistic elements, provide freer practice and introduction of the pedagogical task. According to these six steps, focus on form should be taught in step four. Nunan (2003: 101) advances the view that by placing focus on form in the fourth step, learners have the chance to hear, see and eventually use the language in the prior steps. Learners also have the opportunity to then see and hear how first language speakers use the language communicatively. In this sense, learners will be able to identify the linguistic forms, as well as the communicative functions.

There are different task/ exercise types that can be provided to learners in order for them to develop and acquire the second language. The following table provides different task/ exercise types as well as a description for each of these tasks (Nunan, 2003: 102).

Table 2-2: Task/ exercise Types which are adapted from Richards, Hull and Proctor (1997: iv-v)

Task/exercise type	Description
Snapshot	The snapshots graphically present interesting real-world information that introduces the topic of a unit or cycle, and also develop vocabulary. Follow-up questions encourage discussion of the snapshot material and personalize the topic.
Conversation	The conversations introduce the new grammar of each cycle in a communicative context and present functional and conversational expressions.
Grammar focus	The new grammar of each unit is presented in colour boxes and is followed by controlled and freer communicative practice activities. These freer activities often have students use the grammar in a personal context.
Fluency exercise	These pair, group, whole class, or role-play activities provide more personal practice of the new teaching points and increase the opportunity for individual student practice.
Pronunciation	These exercises focus on important features of spoken language, including stress, rhythm, intonation, reductions and blending.
Listening	The listening activities develop a wide variety of listening skills, including listening for gist, listening for details, and inferring meaning from context. Charts or graphics often accompany these task-based exercises to lend support to students.
Word power	The word power activities develop students' vocabulary through a variety of interesting tasks, such as word maps and collocation exercises. Word power activities are usually followed by oral and written practice that helps students understand how to use the vocabulary in context.
Writing	The writing exercises include practical writing tasks that extend and reinforce the teaching points in the unit and help develop students' compositional skills. The Teacher's Edition demonstrates how to use the models and exercises to focus on the process of writing.
Reading	The reading passages use various types of texts adapted from authentic sources. The readings develop a variety of reading skills, including reading for details, skimming, scanning and making inferences. Also included are pre-reading and post-reading questions that use the topic of the reading as a spring board to discussion
Interchange activities	The interchange activities are pair work, group work, or whole class activities involving information sharing and role playing to encourage real communication. These exercises are a central part of the course and allow students to extend and personalize what they have practised and learned in each unit.

2.2.5 The role of teachers and learners

Nunan (2003: 64) argues that the term „role’ is used to refer to the part that learners and teachers are suppose to play when learning tasks have to be carried out. Furthermore, „role’ refers to the interpersonal and social relationships that exist between the different participants. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986) cited in Nunan (2003: 64) learners are able to make certain contributions to their learning processes and that tasks can reflect assumptions about these contributions that occur. The following table distinguishes between some approaches that occur in given tasks. There are also distinguished between the roles that learners have and the roles that teachers have concerning these tasks (Nunan, 2003: 184-186).

Table 2-3: Learner and teacher roles in different activities (Nunan, 2003)

Activity Types	Learner Roles	Teacher Roles
<i>Oral Situational Language Teaching</i> Repetition, substitution drills; avoid translation and grammatical explanation; learners should never be allowed to make a mistake	To listen and repeat, respond to questions and commands; learner has no control over content; later allowed to initiate statements and task questions	Acts as a model in presenting structures; orchestrates drill practice; corrects errors, tests progress
<i>Audiolingual</i> Dialogues and drills, repetition and memorization, pattern practice	Organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses	Teacher-dominated; central and active teacher provides modes, controls direction and pace
<i>Communicative</i> Engage learners in communication, involving processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction	Learner as negotiator and interactor who gives as well as takes.	Facilitator of the communication process; needs analyst counsellor; process manager
<i>Total Physical response</i> Imperative drills to elicit physical actions	Listener and performer; little influence over the content of learning.	Active and direct role as 'the director of a stage play' with students as actors
<i>The silent Way</i> Learners responses to commands, questions and visual cues. Activities encourage and shape oral responses without grammatical explanation or modelling by teacher	Learning is a process of personal growth. Learners are responsible for their own learning and must develop independence, autonomy and responsibility.	Teachers must a) teach, b) test and c) get out of the way; remain impassive. Resist temptation to model, remodel, assist, direct exhort.
<i>Community Language Learning</i> Combination of innovative and conventional. Translation, group work, recording, transcription, inflection and observation, listening, free conversation	Learners are members of a community. Learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment, but something that is achieved collaboratively.	Counselling/parental analogy. Teacher provides a safe environment in which students can learn and grow.
<i>The Natural Approach</i> Activities allowing comprehensible input about things in the here-and-now. Focus on meaning, not form	Should not try and learn language in the usual sense, but should try and lose themselves in activities involving meaningful communication	The teacher is the primary source of comprehensible input. Must create positive low-anxiety climate. Must choose and orchestrate a rich mixture of classroom activities.
<i>Suggestopedia</i> Initiatives, questions and answer, role play, listening exercises	Must maintain a passive state and allow the materials to work on them (rather than vice versa)	To create situations in which the learner is most suggestible, and present material in a way most likely to encourage positive reception and retention. Must exude authority and confidence.

The above outline of learning activities captures the fact that learners have certain roles in the case of the performance of tasks. The roles given in the table above can be summarised into the following main roles (Nunan: 2003: 65):

- Learners are seen as passive recipients of the outside stimuli that occur.
- Learners are seen as negotiators, as well as interactors. In this sense, learners are capable of giving and also capable of taking.
- Learners are performers and also listeners. In this sense learners only have little control concerning the content of learning.
- When learners perform tasks, they are part of a process of personal growth.
- Learners are also part of social activities. Learners have social and interpersonal roles. These roles of the learners cannot be separated from the psychological processes of learners.
- During the process of learning, learners are in control of their own learning. Learners have to be able to take responsibility for their skills in the process of learning how-to-learn, as well as for the development of their autonomy.

The fact that learners have control over their own learning, their skills in the process of learning how-to-learn, as well as the development of their autonomy help learners in the development of an awareness of themselves. Learners will become better if they are able to identify their own learning style and also if they are able to reflect on their own learning processes and strategies. As learners develop in their language learning skills they will become better learners who are able to be reflective, critical and autonomous (Nunan: 2003: 65).

Nunan (2003: 67) points out that it is necessary that teachers adopt a different role when they set out more active roles for learners. It can happen that there may occur problems if there is a mismatch between the role of the teacher and the role of the learner. Breen and Candlin (1980) cited in Nunan (2003: 67) advance the view that teachers have three main roles in communicative classrooms, namely that teachers should act as the facilitators of the communicative processes which exist in the classrooms, teachers must act as a participant and that teachers should act as observers, as well as a learner in the classroom context. Norris (2009: 584-5) states that it is important that teachers bear in mind the diverse learner types. Guidance of teachers is also an important factor.

The following table distinguishes between language learners that have developed and the implications for teachers (Nunan, 2003: 66-67):

Table 2-4: Distinction between good language learners and implications for teachers

Good language learners	Implications for teachers
Find their own way	Help learners to discover ways of learning that work best for them, for example how they best learn vocabulary.
Organize information about language	Develop ways for learners to organize what they have learned, through making notes and charts, grouping items and displaying them for easy reference.
Are creative	Encourage learners to experiment with different ways of creating and using language, for example with new ways of using words, playing with different arrangements of sounds and structures, inventing imaginative texts and playing language games
Make their own opportunities	Facilitate active learning by getting students to interact with fellow learners and with you, asking questions, listening regularly to the language, reading different kinds of texts and practicing writing.
Learn to live without uncertainty	Require learners to work things out for themselves using resources such as dictionaries.
Use mnemonics	Help learners find quick ways of recalling what they have learned, for example through rhymes, word associations, word classes, particular contexts of occurrence, experiences and personal memories.
Make errors work	Teach learners to live with errors and help them learn from their errors.
Use their linguistic knowledge	Where appropriate, help learners make comparisons with what they know about language from their mother tongue as well as building on what they have already learned in the new language.
Let the context help them	Help learners realize the relationships that exist between words, sounds and structures, developing their capacity to guess and infer meaning from the surrounding context and from their background knowledge.
Learn to make intelligent guesses	Develop learners' capacity to work out meanings and to guess on the basis of probabilities of occurrence.
Learn formulized routines	Encourage learners to memorize routines, whole phrases and idioms.
Learn production techniques	Help learners not to be so concerned with accuracy that they do not develop the capacity to be fluent.
Use different styles of speech and writing	Develop learners' ability to differentiate between styles of speech and writing, both productively and receptively.

2.2.6 The four interlanguage processes in the importance of learner language development

The memory of formulas, as well as the induction of abstract generalizations that are experience-based, help that, as grammar develops, the internal knowledge systems of learners will engage in the process of building, revising, expanding and refining second language representations (Ortega, 2009: 116). This can be done by the use of four ways, namely simplification, overgeneralization, restructuring and U-shaped behaviour.

Ortega (2009: 116) states that simplification „reflects a process that is called upon when messages must be conveyed with little language.’ Simplification specifically occurs at the early stages of second language development and it also occurs among naturalistic learners. During the later stage of development of the second language, simplification can be seen in the second language morphology. This can be seen when learners assume a one-meaning-one-form mapping (Ortega, 2009: 116).

Overgeneralization is „the application of a form or rule not only to contexts where it applies, but also to other contexts where it does not apply’ (Ortega, 2009: 117). It especially occurs with morphology. It is common that learners have the tendency to overgeneralize things in many non-target-like contexts. Overgeneralization can be either random or it can be systematic. Systematic overgeneralization is important in the sense that overregularization is involved in morphology and it must involve the attempt to let irregular forms fit regular patterns. According to Ortega (2009: 117) it is important that forms or rules can be adjusted in order to be used in relevant contexts.

Restructuring can be defined as „the process of self-reorganization of grammar knowledge representations’ (Ortega, 2009: 117). According to McLaughlin and Heredia (1996) restructuring can be used to modify prior knowledge. Therefore, it is possible that restructuring can involve knowledge changes that can be either large or small, abrupt or gradual, but it is always qualitative and always related to progress or development (Ortega, 2009: 117-118).

The U-shaped behaviour „manifests itself as part of restructuring’. Progress cannot always be translated into accuracy and this is a clear notion of the U-shaped behaviour (Ortega, 2009: 118). Sharwood *et al* (1989: 220) defines progress as „the appearance of correct, or nativelike, forms at an early stage of development which then undergo a process of attrition, only to be re-established at a later stage.’ Therefore, according to Ortega (2009: 118), linguistic knowledge that occurs in the first phase cannot be distinguished from the linguistic products in the final phase. Accuracy appears to only be a coincidence in the first phase because of the fact that representation of target-like functions and target-like meanings that must underlie the final phase is lacking.

2.2.7 The implications for teaching

Ringbom *et al* (2009: 114) argues that teachers need to have extensive knowledge concerning the mechanisms which are used for language learning. It is necessary to bear cross-linguistic similarities in mind and the role it plays in language learning, i.e. patterns or items of the target language that are formally and/ or functionally similar to patterns or items in the L1 (Ringbom *et al*, 2009: 109). Learners that are closely related to a particular language, tend to have a smaller language burden than learners with a distant relation. Learners with a close relation to a second language need to learn less and they can incorporate what they have learned more easily into their existing knowledge. Furthermore, these learners reach a higher proficiency level in a shorter time period. Learners with a distant relation will take longer to reach the criterion of a target language. According to Rivers *et al* (2009: 251) prior cross-linguistic knowledge is important in language learning, because the degree of knowledge will determine the extent to which the learning of a new language will be influenced.

When cross-linguistic similarities are used in a teaching environment, contextual and learner variables need to be considered. These variables are as the relation between the L1 and L2, comprehension vs. production, language proficiency and individual learner characteristics (Ringbom *et al*, 2009: 115-116).

- *Relation between the L1 and L2:* When two languages have a close relation, there will only have to be a brief outline concerning the systematic correspondences. The closer

the relation, the more there can be focused on the differences that exist between the languages.

- *Comprehension vs. production:* Speaking and written production will only be necessary for learners who struggle with comprehension in a target language.
- *Language Proficiency:* When learners have a close relation with a language, the focus will only have to be on the similarities between the first language and the second language. It is likely that confusion can occur between related languages. These confusions normally occur if the learner has not yet successfully learned grammatical rules, as well as semantic properties in the target language.
- *Individual learner characteristics:* Sometimes it happens that learners do not notice obvious similarities between two languages or they assume similarities where there are not any similarities. Learners must be encouraged to notice and use actual similarities.

2.2.8 Experiential learning

Nunan (2003: 12) argues that experiential learning is an important basis for task-based language teaching. Nunan (2003: 12) further states that this approach is concerned with the immediate experience of the learner. The moment learners engage in and reflect on sequences of tasks, intellectual growth occurs. Therefore, the active involvement of the learner is very important and central to the approach and thus it is „learning by doing”.

According to Nunan (2003: 12) social psychology, humanistic education, developmental education and cognitive theory form part of experiential learning. David Kolb (1984) promoted an integration of action and reflection. In Kolb’s (1984) model, learners move from what they already know and what they already can do to the incorporation of new knowledge and skills. In order to be able to do this, learners need to make sense of some immediate experience and then learners need to go beyond the immediate experience through a process of reflection and transformation.

Kohonen (1992) designed a model of experiential learning to language teaching. Nunan (2003: 12) argues that Kohonen’s model can be seen as a blueprint for task-based language

teaching. This can be seen from the following precepts for action which is derived from Kohonen's work:

- “Encourage the transformation of knowledge within the learner rather than the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the learner.”
- “Encourage learners to participate actively in small, collaborative groups (group and pair work is very important).”
- “Embrace a holistic attitude towards subject matter rather than a static, atomistic and hierarchical attitude.”
- “Emphasize process rather than product, learning how to learn, self-inquiry, social and communication skills.”
- “Encourage self-directed rather than teacher-directed learning.”
- “Promote intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation.”

Kohonen (1992: 37) points out the following about experiential learning:

“Experiential learning theory provides the basic philosophical view of learning as part of personal growth. The goal is to enable the learner to become increasingly self-directed and responsible for his or her own learning. This process means a gradual shift of the initiative to the learner, encouraging him or her to bring in personal contributions and experiences. Instead of the teacher setting the tasks and standards of acceptable performance, the learner is increasingly in charge of his or her own learning.”

2.2.9 Content-based Instruction (CBI)

Wilkins (1976) cited in Nunan (2003: 131) argues that content-based instruction fits well within the analytical syllabus tradition. The content of the content-based instruction might be generated from the needs and interests of learners. According to Mohan (1986) cited in Nunan (2003: 131) learning is facilitated with language and not through language. The content-based instruction gives learners the opportunity to engage in the mastery of content, as well as in the acquisition of a second language.

According to Ribe and Vidal (1993) cited in Nunan (2003: 133) CBI existed through three task generations. The first generation refers to the communication ability that is being developed. The second generation tasks develop communicative competence and the cognitive aspects of the learner. The third generation tasks develop motivation and learner awareness.

According to Brinton (2003) cited in Nunan (2003: 132) five principles characterise content-based instruction. These five principles are as follows:

Table 2-5: Five principles of Content-based Instruction (Brinton, 2003)

Principle	Comment
Base instructional decisions on content rather than language criteria	Content-based instruction allows the choice of content to dictate or influence the selection and sequencing of language items.
Integrate skills	Content-based instruction practitioners use an integrated skills approach to language teaching, covering all four language skills as well as grammar and vocabulary. This reflects what happens in the real world, where interaction involve multiple skills simultaneously.
Involve students actively in all phases of the learning process	In content-based instruction classrooms, students learn through doing and are actively engaged in the learning process; they do not depend on the teacher to direct all learning or to be the source of all information.
Choose content for its relevance to students' lives, interests and/or academic goals	The choice of content in content-based instruction courses ultimately depends on the student and the instructional settings. In many school contexts, content-based language instruction closely parallels school subjects.
Select authentic texts and tasks	A key component of content-based instruction is authenticity – both of the texts used in the classroom and the tasks that the learners are asked to perform.

2.2.10 Key issues for designing a syllabus

According to Willis (2004: 28-30) certain key issues need to be taken into consideration when designing a syllabus. The first is the starting level of the learner. It is important to determine the current proficiency level of the learner concerning the language to be taught. The prior knowledge that the learners consist of must be determined in order to work accordingly. A needs analysis has to be done before designing a syllabus. In other words the needs of learner concerning the target language, i.e. type of words, phrases, notions, functions or discourse is important. Furthermore, research should be done on the performance objectives of learners. It is necessary to know what learners are able to perform or not. The motivation of learners in terms of their willingness in learning should be considered. The most important factor of a syllabus design is the time that is available for teaching and learning a target language, as well as the type of resources available in order for teaching and learning to take place.

2.3 Second Language acquisition (SLA)

This section examines the major issues regarding Second Language Acquisition. It explores the best ways of specifying language on appropriate occasions in task-based teaching. Thereafter, a discussion regarding crosslinguistic influences follows. This discussion specifically examines the influences of first language transfer on second language learning. Furthermore, a broad discussion is provided concerning the influences of the linguistic environment on second language learning. This section also states the importance of interaction, noticing and attention. In conclusion, language-related difficulties of second language learning will be examined.

According to Ortega (2009: 1) Second Language Acquisition is used to investigate the ability of the human being to learn other languages than their first language during childhood, adolescence or adulthood. Huebner (1998) cited in Ortega (2009: 1) argues that Second Language Acquisition is an „emerging interdisciplinary enterprise that borrowed equally from the feeder fields of language teaching, linguistics, child language acquisition and psychology.’ According to Larsen-Freeman (2000) cited in Ortega (2009: 1) SLA can be seen as an autonomous discipline. Second language Acquisition is still growing, and as Ortega points out, „the growth of SLA continues to be prodigious today.’

2.3.1 When and how to specify language

Willis (2004: 34) argues that beginner second language learners learn in a natural environment. It is necessary that learners notice useful words and start putting together lexical items (i.e. words and phrases) in order to convey a message. It is common that second language learners will first try to lexically make sense of things before they start figuring out how grammar is used in order to make meanings clear and explicit. Therefore, the language syllabus should be specified lexically in a classroom context (Willis, 2004: 34).

According to Ellis (2003) cited in Willis (2004: 34) it is more practical if syllabuses are designed to begin with communicative task-based modules with the emphasis on the gain of vocabulary. Code-based modules can be incorporated at an intermediate level. By the time learners reach the intermediate level, learners will already have developed a „rich’ vocabulary, as well as a lot of basic patterns and structures. When learners have had exposure to the use of grammar, they can be helped in terms of the identification of gaps (in other words, endings that are being omitted or confused, patterns that they usually avoid or which cannot be noticed), to eventually notice and use these features in their input and then to find acceptable ways in order to express these nonstandard forms in their output. Tasks can be made more complex the moment learners have reached an advanced level of proficiency (Willis, 2004: 34).

2.3.2 Crosslinguistic Influences (Similarities and Differences between L1 and L2)

Ortega (2009: 31) argues that the difficulties that were found amongst learner groups who shared a same L1 during the 1950s and 1960s, were caused by the differences between the L1 and L2. In the light of this, research studies were started in order to find the similarities and differences between given language pairs. This was typically known as the school of Contrastive Analysis (Stockwell et al, 1965). According to Ortega (2009: 31) comparisons between a first and second language will allow teachers to notice positive and negative transfer, as well as the errors that second language speakers will produce when learning a second language.

It can happen that the differences that occur between a L1 and L2 will not lead to difficulty in acquiring the L2. When a logical possible transfer can be made from the L1 to the L2, it does not cause trouble for the learners. In contrast, when „the learning of what is essentially the same difference but in the opposite direction poses much more difficulty (Ortega, 2009: 32).’

2.3.2.1 First Language Transfer and Markedness

The term „markedness’ has been used by linguists in different ways. When languages are learned in order to interact with first language influences, markedness is important when it comes to universal influence (Batistella, 1996) cited in Ortega (2009: 37). According to Ortega (2009: 37) in the case of Second Language Acquisition, markedness „has been used to denote a closed set of possibilities within a linguistic system, where the given possibilities rank from simplest and most frequent across languages of the world, or unmarked, to most complex and most rare, or marked.’

According to Ortega (2009: 37) markedness hierarchies in languages can be found in areas of morphology, phonology and syntax. Examples can be seen in relative clauses or in the distinction between voiced („b’ is an example of a voiced consonant) and voiceless („p’ is an example of a voiceless consonant) final stops. Ortega (2009: 37) points out that voiced stops are more marked than voiceless stops. He furthermore states that some of the languages in the world have voiceless and voiced stops, while all of the languages have voiceless stops and there are no languages that only have voiced stops without voiceless stops. When a child learns a first language consisting of both voiceless and voiced stops, the child will acquire voiceless stops before voiced stops (Ortega, 2009: 37). Ortega (2009: 37) points out that there is a natural phonetic process that exists in human languages. This process is called devoicing. In the case of devoicing, it is possible that voiced stops can be pronounced as voiceless stops in certain positions. In this sense, the marked feature, which is the voiced stop, becomes neutralized. When the marked feature becomes neutralized, the unmarked feature, which is the voiceless stop, is used instead (Ortega, 2009: 37).

Ortega (2009: 38) states that it is difficult to learn marked forms during Second Language development. Therefore, more interlanguage solutions are caused. Difficulty will occur when a form is more marked in the second language than in the first language. In contrast, there

will be no particular learning challenge when a form is less marked in the second language than in the first language. When a form is more marked in the first language, it is less likely to be transferred to the second language. In contrast, when a form is less marked in the first language, it is more likely to be transferred.

2.3.2.2 First Language influences on Second Language learning rate

Ortega (2009: 42) points out that the way in which a first language influences a second language can also be positive and not only negative. Positive transfer can be difficult to identify, and therefore it can happen that the facilitative effects of the knowledge in a first language is easy to ignore. In this sense, it leads to successful choices for teachers or interlocutors in production. In contrast with this point of view, the negative effects of the knowledge in a first language are easy noticeable (Ortega, 2009: 42).

Ortega (2009: 42) argues that the knowledge of a first language can have a positive impact on the second language learning. According to Håkan Ringbom (1987, 1992, 2007) the rate of second language learning can be accelerated by the relevant knowledge in the first language. After several research studies done by Ringbom (1987, 1992, 2007), it was found that one language can have a great rate advantage over the other group, even though these two groups of different languages speak the language of each other and even though both groups share a lot of cultural realities because of the fact that they live in the same socio-political and national landscape. This advantage will occur if the two languages have a genetic and typological closeness and therefore share the same typological features (Ortega, 2009: 42-43). There are some languages in which words morphemes or pieces of words are put together in the language. Therefore, in this sense, the language is not genetically related and it is typologically more distant.

Ortega (2009: 43) argues that the learning of grammatical gender of second language is beneficial for cross-linguistics in first language. Bialystok (1997) did a research study on gender in languages. He found that first languages that mark gender, is more beneficial when a second language is learned. According to Ortega (2009: 43) a L2 can have different grammatical categories than the L1 and therefore new grammatical categories can be learnt. Ortega (2009: 44) points out that it is possible that grammatical categories of a first language

can have a disadvantage, as well as an advantage for the learning of a corresponding area in the second language. Collins (2004) did a study in which he researched the corresponding forms in a L1 and L2:

“Collins found that the attainment of accuracy in the use of simple past in English was slow for [some] college students in Quebec who were L1 French speakers because a single language form corresponds to two forms in English, the past simple and the present perfect. This present perfect overlap is misleading and primes L1 French learners of English to overuse the present perfect, supplying it in contexts where English speakers would use the simple past.”

The above mentioned study emphasises that it is difficult to develop an accuracy level of language when one form in the first language corresponds to two forms in the second language.

2.3.2.3 Crosslinguistics can have influences across all layers of language

Ortega (2009: 46) states that crosslinguistics have influences on the learning of a second language. Furthermore, the knowledge of a first language can influence a L2 on the levels of form, meaning and function. This point can be illustrated through **pragmatic competence**. Sometimes it happens that the influence of the first language is obvious on second language pragmatic choices. In the case of transferability, learners of a foreign/ L2 tend to choose formulas with which they are familiar.

According to Ortega (2009: 47) the features that are transferred are sometimes more subtle and holistic. For example, Olshtain (1983) did a study concerning the crosslinguistic influences on apologies. There were found that learners used their L1 knowledge concerning apologies in the L2. Furthermore, there were found that second language speakers with a first language background have the risk of sounding too impolite in a conversation or even sound too polite in a conversation (Ortega, 2009: 47).

Ortega (2009: 47) states that there is another way in which L1 can have influences on a L2. This includes the semantic-functional ways in which thought can be expressed. Dan Slobin

(1996) refers to this as the **thinking-for-speaking**. The thinking-for-speaking „refers to the fact that languages offer specific sets of resources to frame meaning, or to schematize experience, and speakers are known to be constrained by such language-specific ways at the time when they are putting together their thoughts into language.’ An example that has widely been researched, is the expression of motion. In languages that are satellite-framed, the motion is expressed through a verb that is used to encode manner and other external elements for example an adverb. In contrast, there are languages that are verb-framed. In other words, in these languages the „path is typically encoded in the verb, whereas the manner gets expressed in the external element.’ According to Slobin (1996) learners tend to use the knowledge of thinking-for-speaking their first language and transfer it to the L2. In this way, learners will never learn how to restructure their thoughts in a L2.

2.3.3 Crosslinguistic similarities and transfer

Cross-linguistic similarities, i.e. transfer can occur at three different levels, namely item transfer, system/ procedural transfer and overall transfer (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009: 110). These three levels of transfer can be best understood in terms of the distinction between item learning and system learning. Item learning refers to the individual forms of language, i.e. sound, letters, morphemes, phrases, words and syntactic units, while system learning refers to principles needed in order to classify forms paradigmatically (different functions assigned to different forms of a word) and syntagmatically (rules for the formulation of compound words).

When speaking of item transfer, Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 111) refer to the one-on-one relationship between an item in the target language and an item or even a concept in the L1 that is established in the mind of the learner. This type of transfer normally occurs in the early stages of learning a second language when learning still takes place on an item-by-item basis in all areas of the language (morphological, phonological, lexical, syntactic). Learners tend to draw on similarities between their first language and the target language in order to form meanings and obtain comprehension. They will transfer meanings of items in their L1 to the target language during production. This will occur when the linguistic resources of the target language is still insufficient. Therefore, learners will use an oversimplified item-to-item

transfer between the L1 and the target language. In the early stages of language learning, learners will rather focus on form than on meaning (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009: 111).

System transfer refers to the abstract principles needed in order to classify the information that are being transferred (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009: 111). In the case of system transfer, the learner will automatically assume that cross-linguistic equivalences occur between the L1 and the target language, but they do not necessarily assume the occurrence of item similarities between the two languages. During system transfer, the transfer takes place from the first language of which the learner is familiar with. In order for the transference of grammatical rules or semantic features to take place, it must be well understood and internalised before it can be transferred to a target language. It can happen that procedural transfer can lead to error, since the semantic systems of two languages are not always fully congruent. Negative transfer in a target language will occur when irrelevant assumptions of cross-linguistic similarities between the L1 and the target language are made (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009: 111-112).

In the case of procedural transfer, learners tend to assume that the procedures of a L1 will also work for L2 comprehension. When learners apply inappropriate L1 procedures to L2 comprehension, misinterpretations will occur. Syntactic congruence is very important in procedural transfer. When certain categories exist in the L2, but are absent in the L1, it is necessary to learn these functions in order for comprehension to occur (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009: 112). Procedural transfer that takes place in a L2 can occur as three kinds, i.e. intrusive, inhibitive and facilitative. According to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 112) intrusive transfer refers to L1 items that are used inappropriately. Inhibitive transfer prevents learners to use new items and structures appropriately. For example, when there is no similarities of certain items between the L1 and the target language, negative item transfer will take place. Facilitative transfer encourages learners to process and organize items of a target language when similarities occur between the L1 and the target language.

Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 112) refer to the fact that learners rely on similarities of individual items, as well as the functional equivalences that exist between the items. The amount of overall transfer depends on the amount of cross-linguistic similarities, as well as lexical similarities that occur between two languages.

The different types of transfer (discussed above) lead to different types of learning. These types of learning include item learning for comprehension, item learning for production, system learning for comprehension and system learning for production (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009: 113). Item learning for comprehension is usually the first stage. If languages are closely related and positive item transfer can occur, receptive knowledge can quickly be attained. Item learning for production and system learning for comprehension are the following stages. These stages can be developed in parallel. It is possible that the learner can have more focus on either one of the item learning for production or the system learning for comprehension. This will depend on the aim of the language, the characteristics of the learner and the learning situation. The system learning for comprehension refers to the fact that the oversimplified item transfer can be modified (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009: 13).

Ringbom and Jarvis (2009: 15) argue that contextual and learner variables should be considered when transfer between languages takes place. When languages are closely related, it is necessary that learners' must be made aware of the actual differences that do occur between the two languages. Cross-linguistic similarities are important in the production and comprehension of language. Each learner has different attitudes toward language learning. Therefore, it is important to consider the individual learner characteristics when teaching a certain language, because each learner will use a different type of language learning and thus a different type of language transfer.

2.3.4 The influence of linguistic environment on the success of L2 learning

Ortega (2009: 58) argues that a L2 environment plays a role concerning certain attitudes that learners have. These attitudes may have an affective and social-psychological bases and it is important that these attitudes be considered for the understanding of L2 learning.

Schumann (1976) cited in Ortega (2009: 58) did a researched study on the social distance between the L1 and L2. He focused on attitudes and proposed the Acculturation Model. In this study Schumann found that it is possible that a social distance can occur between L1 and L2. Furthermore, negative attitudes of individuals toward the target language and its members (e.g. culture shock, low motivation) may lead to a negative learning situation (Ortega, 2009: 59). Schumann points out that learners will be more successful in their learning outcomes if

learners become more acculturated (in other words learners get closer to the target society, its members; socially as well as psychologically), i.e. the more acculturated, the better their learning outcomes.

2.3.4.1 Input is important in the case of comprehension and learning

According to Ortega (2009: 59) the environment has an influence on the input or the linguistic data that is produced by competent users of a L2.

Krashen (1985) argues that comprehensible input is the most important source of second language learning. Languages that are used by learners to process meaning and that consists of things to be learned, is also an important source of second language learning. Ortega (2009: 59) maintains that learners can gain comprehensible input when they are exposed to oral messages and written texts that are being directed to them, for example road signs, emails, letters, etc. Grammar learning will occur naturally if second language learners use these messages in order to process meaning. Learners will be able to process meaning if the provided content is personally relevant and if learners are able to understand the content provided (Ortega, 2009: 59). This view is based on the assumption that the mechanisms of the second language can be seen as similar to the mechanisms of first language (Krashen, 1985).

2.3.4.2 The necessity of interaction and negotiation for meaning

Learners are exposed to interaction in the linguistic environment, but more particularly in naturalistic settings, and also in communicative classrooms (Ortega, 2009: 60). According to Long (1996) and Krashen (1985) comprehension is needed for learning and the more learners can comprehend the more they can learn. According to Long (1996) the best way of gaining comprehension is through interaction with a wide variety of interlocutors.

Ortega (2009: 61) states that interaction can be initiated in communications where the interlocutors try to make a conversation meaningful and comprehensible to each other, i.e. where they negotiate for meaning. It is a common use that negotiation starts with clarification requests, confirmation checks and comprehension checks. Clarification requests are used

when non-understanding is serious (for example: “What do you mean?”), confirmation requests are used when uncertainty occurs, i.e. when the interlocutor is not sure whether he/she has understood the message in the correct way (for example: “You mean last week?”) and comprehension checks are used when the one interlocutor in the conversation suspects that the other one might not have understood what was being said (for example: “Do you know what I am talking about?”). If the interlocutors show that there is a need for the negotiation of something, they will have the curacy to confirm or deny understanding, rephrase words or explain the message in another way in order to make understanding clear (Ortega, 2009: 61). Pica (1994) cited in Ortega (2009: 61) argues that this two-way process is effective in the sense that it challenge the interlocutors in conversation to „modify’ their utterances. This increases their comprehensibility and second language forms are being made available to the learner for second language learning.

According to Ortega (2009: 61-62) interactional modifications is very effective. Comprehension can be brought about in a more „individualized’ and „learner-contingent’ way. In this sense there will be more repetitions, as well as redundancies and less simplification.

2.3.4.3 Noticing and attention

Ortega (2009: 63) points out that attention is an important aspect that is needed in input. According to Schmidt (1995) cited in Ortega (2009: 63) it is necessary that learners will focus on how to notice relevant, as well as important material that occurs in linguistic data. Ortega (2009: 63) states that noticing refers to the fact the learner can recognize new elements in a language, even if the learners to not yet understand how these elements work and how it is used. It is very difficult to distinguish the inability to remember from the „absence of noticing’. Schmidt (2001) cited in Ortega (2009: 63) proposes that second language learners will learn more the more they notice and that there is no challenge in second language learning if learning occurs without noticing (in other words subliminal learning’).

Noticing occurs when learners struggle in putting sentences together, or when thoughts need to be expressed, or when learners are in the process of discovering something new (Ortega,

2009: 63). Learners can be encouraged through teachers whom can give guidance. Learners give attention to new features in a second language (Schmidt, 1995), they become aware of the gaps that exist between the learners' utterances and the interlocutors (Schmidt and Frota, 1986) and they will be able to discover the holes that occurs in the things that they are able to express with the linguistic resources they have at their disposal in the L2 (Swain and Lapkin, 1995) through internal and external means. Therefore, according to Ortega (2009: 64) „attention and noticing act as filters that moderate the contributions of the environment.’

2.3.5 The aptitude for learning a Second Language

Learners differ in their aptitude for the acquisition of a second language. They differ in what concerns how fast, how well and by what means they learn and acquire a second language (Ortega, 2009: 145). Learners who start learning a second language later in life will discover that the variability in rates, the outcomes and the processes can be large. The cognitive abilities, the motivations and the personal predispositions of learners also play a role in the variation of second/ foreign language acquisition (Ortega, 2009: 145).

2.3.5.1 The distinction among cognition, conation and affect

Psychologists distinguish between three concepts, namely cognition, conation and affect (Ortega, 2009: 146). According to Ortega (2009: 147) cognition refers to the way in which information is processed and learned. Conation refers to the way in which people make certain choices and how these choices result in new behaviour. Affect refers to issues like emotions and the particular feelings of people towards information, objects, actions and thoughts. (Ortega, 2009: 146). Psychologists believe that, in order to understand individual differences, it is necessary to consider cognitive, conative and affective explanations as a whole.

Correlation coefficients (r) and shared variance should be bore in mind when looking at individual differences. Ortega (2009: 146) argues that correlation coefficients indicate the extent to which certain given scores will co-vary together in either a positive or negative way. This correlation is between 0-1. The negative, as well as the positive sign of correlation and

the size of the correlation needs to be taken into consideration. For example, a learner will be more introverted and he/ she will have a higher lexical diversity if there is a positive-sign-correlation between the introversion and the lexical diversity. In contrast, the learner will be more introverted with a lower lexical diversity if there is a negative-sign-correlation between the same two variables (Ortega, 2009: 146). Therefore, according to Ortega (2009: 146) the relationship between the variables will be stronger if it is closer to a „perfect’ 1, whether it is positive or negative. In contrast, the relationship between the variables will be weaker if it is closer to 0, whether the direction is positive or negative.

According to Ortega (2009: 146) shared variance is also used to determine the relationship that occurs between the two sets of scores. Shared variance refers to the „percentage of overlap between two observed sets of scores, or what percentage of variance can be explained by the two variables.’

2.3.5.2 Language-related difficulties

Ortega (2009: 152) argues that the difficulties that occur in the learning of a second language can be related to the difficulties that occur in the literacy of the first language. Literacy is the most challenging aspect that appears in the first language. Richard Sparks and Leonore Ganschow (2006) developed the Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis. The Linguistic Coding Hypothesis proposes that people differ in their phonological abilities that exist in their L1 as well as in their L2 (Ortega, 2009: 152). Ortega (2009: 152) argues that the difficulties that occur in the first language may become apparent during early development. Difficulties occur in specific literacy tasks when learners start learning for example how to read. During this phase there can be identified whether learners have language-based learning disabilities or not. It tend to happen that learners whom experience language-based learning disabilities, will experience these disabilities when they start learning a second language, whether it is during school or at a later stage during college.

These difficulties that exist, occurs in the areas of phonological awareness, phonemic awareness and phonological decoding. Phonological awareness refers to the sounds of speech rather than their meaning (Snow et al, 1998: 51). The phonemic awareness is the critical areas of difficulty that occurs within the phonological awareness (Ortega, 2009: 153). Phonemic

awareness refers to the ability to segment words in their different sounds and to put them back together again. Phonological decoding refers to the ability of spelling in order to identify words and their specific meanings (Ortega, 2009: 153). These abilities are advantageous in the sense that they help learners to read fluently in their first language.

2.4 Implicit and Explicit Learning

This section explores implicit and explicit second language learning in Task-based language teaching by discussing implicit and explicit instruction. Lastly, this section examines the ways in which implicit and explicit learning is related.

N. Ellis (2008: 105) argues that children normally acquire their first language by engaging in communication with their caretakers. In this sense, the children will automatically acquire the complex knowledge of the structure of their language. According to N. Ellis (2008: 105) the acquisition of first language grammar is implicit. This implicit knowledge is extracted from the experience of usage and not from the explicit rules of the language. It is different in the case of adult acquisition of a second language. Adult acquisition of a second language normally requires resources of explicit learning. According to N. Ellis (2008: 105) there are various roles of consciousness in second language acquisition and include the following:

- „The learner noticing negative evidence.’
- „Their attending to language form, their perception focused by social scaffolding or explicit instruction.’
- „Their voluntary use of pedagogical grammatical descriptions and analogical reasoning.’
- „Their reflective induction of metalinguistic insights about language.’
- „Their consciously guided practice which results, eventually, in unconscious, automatized skill.’

N. Ellis (2008: 105) states that implicit and explicit learning are different processes. People do not have the same implicit, as well as explicit memory systems. Furthermore, different

people have different types of knowledge about a language and this knowledge is stored in different areas of the brain.

Ellis (2009: 3) argues that the distinctions relating to implicit and explicit learning and knowledge originated in cognitive psychology. Implicit and explicit learning can be distinguished in two principal ways by cognitive psychologists (Ellis, 2009: 3):

- It is possible that implicit learning can proceed without making demands on central attentional resources. N. Ellis (2008: 125) states that „generalizations arise from conspiracies of memorized utterances collaborating in productive schematic linguistic productions’. Therefore, according to Ellis (2009: 3) the knowledge that results is subsymbolic and it reflects statistical sensitivity to the structure of the learned material. Explicit learning, on the other hand, involves the memorizing of a series of successive facts and therefore it makes heavy demands on the working memory. This takes place consciously and it results in knowledge that is symbolic in nature, in other words, it is represented in explicit form (Ellis, 2009: 3).
- Learners remain unaware in the case of implicit learning that takes place, although it is evident in the behavioural responses that the learners make. Therefore, learners do not have the ability to verbalize what they have learned. In contrast with implicit learning, learners are aware of the fact that they have learnt something in explicit learning and learners are able to verbalize what they have learned.

Ellis (2009: 6) argues that implicit / explicit learning and implicit / explicit knowledge are related, but it is necessary that distinct concepts need to be separated. Implicit / explicit learning refers to the processes that are involved in learning, while implicit / explicit knowledge is concerned with the products of learning. According to Ellis (2009: 6) it can be possible that learners will have the ability to reflect on the knowledge that they have acquired implicitly (in other words, without metalinguistic awareness) and in this sense, develop an explicit representation of it. Furthermore, Ellis (2009: 6) argues that it is possible that when explicit learning is directed at one linguistic feature, it may result in the incidental implicit learning of some other feature.

According to Schmidt (1994: 20) it is necessary to distinguish learning from instruction. Schmidt (1994: 20) states that implicit instruction does not necessarily lead to implicit learning and explicit instruction does not necessarily lead to explicit learning.

Teachers do hope for such a correlation, but it doesn't always happen, because learners tend to follow their own inclinations irrespective of the nature of instruction that they receive (Allwright, 1984).

2.4.1 Implicit and Explicit Second Language Learning

Ellis (2009: 7) states that implicit learning takes place without learners' intentionality or awareness. According to Ellis (2009: 7) there is a dispute concerning the possibility of whether any learning is possible without some degree of awareness. DeKeyser (2009: 121) refers to implicit knowledge as 'outside knowledge', in other words implicit knowledge cannot be verbalized. This knowledge can 'only be inferred indirectly from behaviour' (DeKeyser, 2009: 121). Schmidt (1994, 2001) distinguishes between two types of awareness, namely awareness as noticing (involving perception) and metalinguistic awareness (involving analysis). Awareness as noticing involves conscious attention to 'surface elements'. Noticing involves some degree of awareness. According to DeKeyser (2009: 122-123) there can be distinguished between three layers of metalinguistic knowledge. The first layer refers to what can be seen as right or wrong in a particular sentence, without necessarily knowing the reason. The second layer refers to the metacognition about the language self. The third layer refers to language about language, i.e. to be able to verbalize in a certain language. Explicit knowledge is needed in this case. There is not a complete implicit learning. In light of this view, implicit language learning can be better defined, i.e. that implicit knowledge is learning that occurs without knowledge about metalinguistics. Schmidt (1994, 2001) argues that the integration of material and the restructuring of this material take place without conscious control'. Williams (2005) has argued that 'learning without awareness at the level of noticing is also possible'. According to N. Ellis (2005: 306) much of peoples' cognitive processing is unconscious. Therefore, as Ellis (2009: 7) emphasizes, there is not a consensual definition of implicit learning.

In contrast with implicit learning, explicit learning is necessarily a conscious process and it is generally intentional (Ellis, 2009: 7). According to N. Ellis (1994: 1) explicit learning is conscious learning. Hulstijn (2002: 206) defines explicit learning as a process through which concept formation and concept linking occurs consciously.

2.4.2 Implicit and Explicit Instruction

According to Ellis (2009: 16) instruction refers to the attempt to intervene in interlanguage development. Ellis (2005) characterized language instruction in terms of direct and indirect intervention. He argues that indirect intervention is used in order to try and create situations for learners to be able to learn experientially when they learn how to communicate in a L2 (Ellis, 2005: 713). According to Ellis (2009: 16) this is best realized in a task-based syllabus. Direct intervention, in contrast, specifies what the learners need to learn particularly and this draws on a structural syllabus (Ellis, 2005: 713).

In light of the above, Ellis (2009: 16) argues that implicit instruction and explicit instruction do not correlate with this distinction. The aim of implicit instruction is to enable learners to infer rules without awareness. In other words, implicit instruction seeks to give learners a background knowledge of particular language rules even though they are not attempting to learn the rules at that particular moment, i.e. learners are focused on meaning instead (Ellis, 2009: 16). In this sense the result is that learners will internalize the underlying rule/ pattern without focussing explicitly on it. Indirect intervention is thus implicit (Ellis, 2009: 17). Ellis (2009: 17) states that it can be possible to determine a specific learning target, for example a grammatical structure. This can be masked from the learner so that the learner is not aware of the target. For this type of implicit instruction, a learning environment needs to be created and this environment has to be enriched with the target feature, but without drawing the learner's explicit attention to it.

DeKeyser (1995) argues that explicit instruction involves the fact that rules are being thought about during learning processes. Therefore, as Ellis (2009: 17) points out, „learners need to develop the ability of metalinguistic awareness of these rules. According to Ellis (2009: 17) it can either be achieved deductively or inductively. When it is achieved deductively, the learners are provided with a grammatical description of the rule. When it is achieved

inductively, the learners are assisted to discover the rule for themselves with the data that are provided. Therefore, according to Ellis (2009: 17), explicit instruction necessarily constitutes direct intervention. The relationship between direct / indirect intervention and implicit / explicit instruction can be demonstrated as follow:

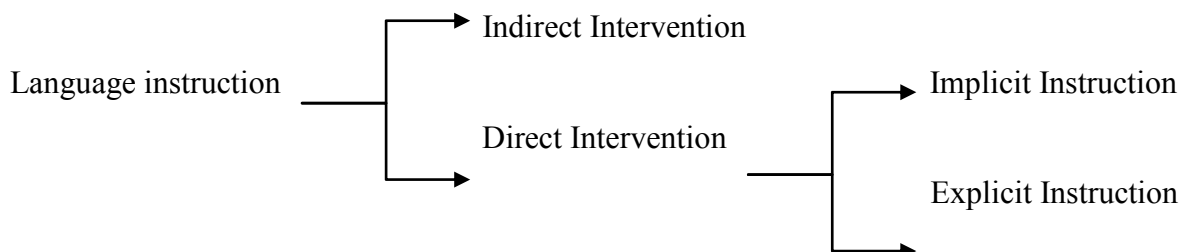


Figure 2-3: Types of language instruction (Ellis, 2009)

Implicit and explicit instruction can distinguish different types of implicit, as well as explicit instruction. Ellis (2009: 17) argues that it is possible that implicit instruction can have the same form as task-based teaching. In this case linguistic forms tend to occur naturally according to the way that certain tasks are performed. Attention to form is reactive in nature in this case. It can also be proactive. The performance of the task can naturally create opportunities for experiencing the target feature. Ellis (2009: 17) further promotes that explicit instruction can also be either reactive or proactive. In the case of reactive explicit instruction, the teachers provide explicit corrective feedback or metalinguistic corrective feedback on the errors that learners tend to make when they use the target feature. When proactive explicit instruction occurs, the teacher provides a metalinguistic explanation of the target rule. In this case, it is direct proactive. It is indirect proactive when learners are expected to discover the rule for themselves from the data that are provided (Ellis, 2009: 18). Ellis (2009: 18) states that it is only possible that implicit and explicit instruction can only be defined in terms of an external perspective, i.e. the teacher. Implicit and explicit learning, on the other hand, refer to the perspective of the learner. According to Batstone (2002) there is no necessary correlation between the two pairs of terms. Ellis (2009: 18) argues that the learner respond to the teacher in terms of input rather than in terms of information. It is possible that explicit instruction can result in implicit learning in this case, and it is as a result of the incidental noticing of instances of language. If direct intervention involves implicit instruction, the learners have the opportunity to work out what the target of the instruction is

and they will make their understanding explicit. Ellis (2009: 18) points out that implicit instruction does not always result in implicit learning or explicit instruction does not always result in explicit learning. The aim of explicit instruction is to develop explicit knowledge, as well as implicit knowledge.

Implicit and explicit instruction has been operationalized in different ways because of the fact that the distinction between implicit and explicit instruction is not straightforward (Ellis, 2009: 19).

According to Robinson (1996) there can be distinguished between four instructional conditional conditions:

- 1) „An implicit condition, which involved asking learners to remember sentences containing the target structures.’
- 2) „An incidental condition consisting of exposure to sentences containing the target structure in a meaning-centered task.’
- 3) „A rule-search condition involving identifying the rules.’
- 4) „An instructed condition where written explanations of rules are provided.’

Ellis (2009: 19) argues that conditions (1) and (2) can be considered implicit in terms of the definitions of implicit instruction. Conditions (3) and (4) are considered explicit. Condition (3) involves direct explicit instruction and condition (4) involves indirect explicit instruction. In the studies of Norris and Ortega (2000) they found that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction. In these studies, the effectiveness of implicit and explicit instruction relied on methods of measuring acquisition that favoured explicit instruction. According to Norris and Ortega (2000) a distinction can be made between four types of measure, i.e. metalinguistic judgement, selected response, constrained constructed response and free constructed response.

According to Ellis (2009: 20) the first three types of measure „allow learners to utilize their explicit knowledge of the target structures and thus can be thought to favour explicit instruction.’ In contrast, the fourth type of measure „is more likely to tap implicit knowledge.’

2.4.3 The interface issue

Ellis (2009: 20) argues that the distinctions that have been made are all relevant to the „interface issue’. The interface issue is concerned with the extent to what and the ways in which implicit and explicit learning is related. There can be distinguished between three positions in the interface issue, i.e. the noninterface position, the strong interface position and the weak interface position (Ellis, 2009: 20).

2.4.3.1 The noninterface and strong interface position

According to Krashen (1981) and Hustijn (2002) research shows that the implicit and explicit second language knowledge involves different acquisitional mechanisms in the case of the noninterface position. Furthermore, implicit and explicit L2 knowledge is stored in different parts of the brain (Paradis, 1994). R. Ellis (1993) promotes that this is accessed for performance by means of different processes, automatic versus controlled. According to Ellis (2009: 21) this position will reject the transformation of explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge and implicit knowledge into explicit knowledge.

Ellis (2009: 21) argues that the strong interface position shows that explicit knowledge can be derived from implicit knowledge and that explicit knowledge can be converted to implicit knowledge. In other words, learners have the ability learn a rule as a declarative fact first. By practicing learners can use this rule and convert it into an implicit representation. According to Ellis (2009: 20) there do occur differences.

2.4.3.2 The weak interface position

According to Ellis (2009: 21) the weak interface position occurs in three versions. Each of these versions have the possibility that explicit knowledge can become implicit (Ellis, 2009: 21). The first version demonstrates that explicit knowledge can be transferred into implicit knowledge only if the learner has the ability to acquire the linguistic form. The second version of the weak interface position sees explicit knowledge „as contributing indirectly to the acquisition of implicit knowledge’. N. Ellis (2008) states that, in this case, implicit and explicit learning processes work together in the acquisition of a second language.

Schmidt & Frota (1986) argues that in the third version, learners are able to use the explicit knowledge which they have in order to produce output and this output serves as an ‚auto-input‘ when implicit learning takes place.

According to Ellis (2009: 22) neurolinguistic studies lend some support to the interface positions. Lee (2004: 67) made the suggestion that neuroanatomy allows for an interface between declarative and procedural memory:

“When (the learner) utters a sentence that violates the rule, his or her declarative memory may send a signal indicating that the utterance is wrong. This signal may prevent the formation of connections among neurons that could have represented the incorrect rule. On the other hand, when the speaker executes a correct sentence, this information aligns with that of declarative memory, and the connection that represents the sentence or the rule involved in the sentence may become stronger.”

The above account of Lee (2004: 67) gives support to a strong interface position (i.e. declarative memory can convert into procedural memory), as well as a weak interface position (i.e. declarative memory can help adjust the neural circuits in which procedural memory is housed). According to Ellis (2009: 22) other researchers rejected the possibility of a strong interface. Instead, they emphasized the weak interface position.

According to Paradis (2004) explicit knowledge does not convert into implicit knowledge. Paradis (2004) argues that ‚acquisition may commence with an explicit rule (controlled processing) but subsequently, the learner acquires implicit computational procedures involving automatic processing.‘ Paradis (2004) also proposes that ‚metalinguistic knowledge can assist the development of implicit competence, but only indirectly through focussing attention on the items that need to be practiced and through monitoring.‘

Crowell (2004) argues that declarative knowledge is not used in order to be converted into procedural knowledge. These two types of knowledge are learnt and stored separately.

2.5 Communicative Language Teaching

In this section, a broad discussion will follow regarding perspectives on Communicative Language Teaching in Task-based Language Teaching.

Nunan (2003: 6) states that everything we do in class is interrelated with the beliefs about the nature of language, the nature of the learning process and the nature of the teaching act. According to Nunan (2003: 6) language can be seen as more than a set of grammatical rules, with attendant sets of vocabulary, to be memorized. In other words, it is a dynamic resource for creating meaning. Learning is not seen simply as a process of habit formation any more. Learners, as well as the cognitive processes in which learners engage are important to the learning process. Recently, learning as a social process is being emphasised.

Another distinction can be made between „knowing that’ and „knowing how’, in other words between knowing and being able to distinguish between different grammatical rules and then being able to use this grammatical knowledge to communicate effectively (Nunan, 2003: 7).

Language can be thought of as a tool for communication rather than as sets of phonological, grammatical and lexical items to be memorized. This leads to the notion that different learning programs can be developed to reflect the different communicative needs of disparate groups of learners (Nunan, 2003: 7). Breen (1984) states that the goal of a curriculum (individuals who are capable of communicating in the target language) and the means (classroom procedures that develop this capability) start to emerge when communication is placed at the centre of the curriculum.

According to Ellis (2003: 27) tasks are an important feature of communicative language teaching (CLT). The aim of communicative language teaching is to use language in real communication. According to Brown and Yule (1983) communication involves two general purposes, namely the interactional function and the transactional function. The interactional function is where language is used to establish and maintain contact and the transactional function is where language is used referentially to exchange information. Therefore, communicative language teaching is directed at enabling learners to function interactionally and transactionally in a second language (L2). Ellis (2003: 28) states that communicative language teaching is directed at use, i.e. the ability to use language meaningfully and appropriately in the construction of discourse.

Howatt (1984) distinguishes between a „weak’ and a „strong’ version of communicative language teaching. Howatt (1984) argues that weak communicative language teaching is based on the assumptions that the components of communicative competence can be identified and systematically taught. Therefore, according to White (1988) a weak communicative language teaching is referred to as a Type A approach to language teaching, i.e. an approach that is interventionist and analytic. Therefore, instead of teaching learners the structural properties of language, a weak communicative language teaching proposes that learners must be taught how to realize specific general notions such as „duration’ and „possibility’, as well as language functions such as „inviting’ and „apologising’ (Ellis, 2003: 28).

Howatt argues that in contrast with a weak version of communicative language teaching, a strong version claims that language is acquired through communication (1984: 279). In other words, in a strong version learners do not first acquire language as a structural system and then learn how to use this system in communication. Learners will rather discover the system itself in the process of learning how to communicate. Therefore, as Ellis (2003: 28) states, the strong version of communicative language teaching involves the provision of opportunities for learners to experience how language is used in communication. According to White (1988) the strong version of communicative language teaching reflects the Type B approach, i.e. an approach that is non-interventionist and holistic.

Ellis (2003: 28) proposes that the distinction between a weak and a strong version of communicative language teaching (CLT) is parallel to the distinction between task-supported language teaching and task-based language teaching. The weak version is a way of viewing tasks as a way of providing communicative practice for language items that have been introduced in a more traditional way. These tasks can be a necessary basis for a language curriculum, but it is not a sufficient basis. The strong version of CLT on the other hand, sees tasks as a way of providing learners the ability to learn a language by experiencing how it is used in communication. In a strong version, the tasks are necessary, as well as sufficient for learning (Ellis, 2003: 28).

Ellis (2003) refers to the view of Littlewood (1981: 6) that the following skills need to be taken into consideration:

- “The learner must attain as high a degree as possible of linguistic competence. That is, the learner must develop skill in manipulating the linguistic system, to the point where he can use it spontaneously and flexibly in order to express his intended message.”
- “The learner must distinguish between the forms he has mastered as part of his linguistic competence, and the communicative functions which they perform. In other words, items mastered as part of a linguistic system must also be understood as part of a communicative system.”
- “The learner must develop skills and strategies for using language to communicate meaning as effectively as possible in concrete situations. The learner must learn to use feedback to judge his success, and, if necessary, remedy failure by using different language.”
- “The learner must become aware of the social meaning of language forms. For many learners, this may not entail the ability to vary their own speech to suit different social circumstances, but rather the ability to use generally acceptable forms and avoid potentially offensive ones.”

2.6 Teaching language for specific purposes

This section explores the major issues in TBLT research on teaching language for specific purposes. Different types of specific purposes syllabi are discussed. Thereafter, a broad discussion follows concerning language systems. This discussion includes questions about the core grammatical structures, vocabulary, as well as appropriate language use concerned in teaching language for specific purposes. This section concludes by examining various objectives which occur in teaching language for specific purposes.

Hyland (2009: 201) proposes that teaching for specific purposes is necessary to reach the demands of specific employer groups in order to be „work-ready’. A specific purpose syllabus need to include specific language features, language skills and communication/ interaction skills which is needed in a specific environment/ situation. According to Hyland (2009: 201) the focus and attention is on the teaching of specific needs in order for learners to use these language skills in the contexts in which they will be working. Therefore, the focus

is on the needs analysis of learners, the analysis of contexts and the language use in these particular contexts.

Hyland (2009: 203) argues that teaching and learning should be borne in mind when working with specific purpose syllabi. The focus should not just be on words, phrases or lexical items in isolation with the real context, but rather on structures, interaction and communication that specific contexts require.

Proficiency levels do not play a prominent role in specific purpose syllabi. Learners will acquire specific language features and structures as needed and required by the context and situation in which it is needed. Therefore, learners do not have to have a high proficiency level in a certain level of communication in order to move on to the next level.

According to Hyland (2009: 203) different people have different perceptions and ideas concerning tasks and situations, as well as different needs and therefore it is difficult to design a specific purpose syllabus. It is the teacher's task to provide learners with the necessary language skills and structures in order to communicate in a context with people consisting of similar needs and objectives. In this way teachers will improve learners' motivation and confidence to engage in new roles and to become part of other communities than their own (Hyland, 2009: 203).

Teaching for specific purposes is advantageous in the sense that it is 'time- and energy efficient'. Learners are able to learn relevant language skills and language needs in order to communicate in specific contexts. Furthermore, learners can adapt to specific genres and specific parts of a community when learning languages for specific purposes (Basturkmen, 2006: 4-9).

2.6.1 Types of specific purposes syllabi

According to Hyland (2009: 209) there are different types of specific purpose syllabi. The first is a process syllabus. In the process syllabus the instruction is focused on the learning of the learner. The second type of specific purpose syllabus is a text-based or a content based syllabus. The text-based syllabus is concerned with the different genres and contexts in which learners need to operate. According to Hyland (2009: 209) teachers guide the learners to use

the correct language and genres in specific contexts. Learners' needs are considered when selecting specific tasks and these selected tasks are sequenced according to their difficulty, as well as the skills needed in order to complete the task. Furthermore, the tasks are sequenced according to their relation with the real world. Hyland (2009: 209) maintains that it is important that specific purpose syllabi consist of a teaching-learning cycle. This teaching-learning cycle gives the opportunity for learners to make comparisons and to compare the differences and similarities of certain language constructions, language skills, language use and language contexts. According to Hyland (2009: 210) feedback is important in order for learners to develop their language skills.

2.6.2 Language for specific purposes

According to Basturkmen (2006: 3) there are various varieties of languages and language systems. Furthermore, it is necessary to consider and analyse the needs of learners when a syllabus is designed. Basturkmen (2006: 12) argues that language can be treated in different ways. It can either be treated synthetically or analytically. Language can also as a set of discourse structures or even as a set of grammatical structures. According to Basturkmen (2006: 12) there are four building blocks of language teaching. These four building blocks are language, learning, teaching and context.

2.6.3 Language systems

Hopper (1987) defines language systems as 'a set of abstract structures present for all speakers and hearers that is prerequisite for the use of language.' Basturkmen (2006: 35) argues that language systems should be introduced first when teaching specific purposes. It is important to identify language systems when teaching for specific purposes takes place as there are different varieties of language. Basturkmen (2006: 15) refers to two varieties of language, i.e. the common core plus and the 'general purpose' language. The common core plus refers to the fact that languages develop from a basic core of general language. The common core of languages represents all the high frequency items which predominate in a language. The second perspective concerning language systems states that there is no basic core language, in other words, every language has the ability to exist as one variety or

another. Grammatical structures, core vocabulary and patterns of text organization form part of language systems.

2.6.3.1 Grammatical structures and core vocabulary

Grammatical structures and core vocabulary is an important part in a syllabus design for teaching languages. Teachers use grammatical structures and core vocabulary as a key focus in their instruction in language teaching. Basturkmen (2006: 35) points out that the focus in second language teaching should be on core grammatical structures such as verb phrases, functions, notions and phrases which are learnt as holistic chunks and also on core vocabulary (words which have a high frequency in specific contexts). The fact that languages can be learnt in different contexts, provide learners with the ability to use these core grammatical structures and vocabulary and give meaning in terms of the context that it is used in.

2.6.3.2 Patterns of text organisation

Basturkmen (2006: 38) argues that patterns of text organization refer to structures occurring in written or spoken texts. It can appear that the language use in these texts can be ambiguous. According to Scollon and Scollon (1995) a distinction can be made between external ambiguity and internal ambiguity. External ambiguity refers to texts in which meaning can be interpreted. Learners can deal with the external ambiguity of texts through notions of scripts and schemata. Scollon and Scollon (1995) argue that a schemata refers to the specific types of knowledge of which learners dispose. A script, on the other hand, refers to the knowledge about the way in which these events will eventually unfold and develop. This knowledge is formed through the experiences which learners gain in life. Familiar words tend to trigger learners' prior knowledge about certain events which, in turn, will help learners to form meaning in a given context or to interact in a specific discourse (Basturkmen, 2006: 38). According to Hoey (2001) schemata and scripts are limitless and therefore it is impossible to describe each of them.

Learners are also able to decode a text by dealing with the internal ambiguity thereof. Internal ambiguity refers to the ways in which different parts of a text can relate to each other. A generic set of patterns of text organization form part of internal ambiguity. In order to make sense of a certain script or schemata, learners can draw on their prior knowledge concerning grammatical structures and core vocabulary. Furthermore, learners can use top-down, as well as bottom-up approaches in order to make meaning of a given text. According to Basturkmen (2006: 43) top-down approaches encourage learners to draw on their background knowledge to make meaning and to try and understand a text. This prior knowledge can either concern the topic of discourse or the situation or the script (Richards, 1990). Top-down approaches include reading instruction and listening comprehension. In contrast with the top-down approach, Basturkmen (2006: 43) argues that the bottom-up approach requires learners to form meaning using different levels of language which include words, sounds and sentences.

2.6.4 Language use in teaching language for specific purposes

Basturkmen (2006: 47) proposes that the focus of language use is on communicative purposes. These communicative purposes refer to those that learners want to acquire and how language is used in order to acquire them. Speech acts, genres and social interaction form part of language use in specific purposes. Only speech acts and genres will be discussed as it is more relevant in this study.

- **Speech acts**

The identification of speech acts in communication is an important factor in specific purpose teaching. According to Basturkmen (2006: 48) speech acts refer to the communicative intentions that individual speakers or writers have when using a language, for example when requesting something or reporting something. Speech acts can be either direct or indirect. When speech acts are indirect, the meaning that is expressed and the meaning that is implied do not match. Speech acts are internally driven in order to achieve communicative purposes (Basturkmen, 2006: 53).

- **Genres**

Basturkmen (2006: 52) points out that a genre refers to communication used in specific communities. Each community in which a particular genre is used, gives a certain label to the genre, in other words each genre is set apart from one another. Genres have the ability to change according to the needs and changes of the community in which a certain genre is used. Therefore, genres are not fixed. Communicative choices concerning lexis, syntax and content are constrained by genres and communicative rules can be changed (Basturkmen, 2006: 55). In contrast with speech acts, genres are collective and socially derived. Furthermore, genres are very specific (Basturkmen, 2006: 54).

2.6.5 Objectives that occur in teaching language for specific purposes

There are five objectives which occur in teaching language for specific purposes. These five objectives are subject-specific language use, target-performance competencies, underlying knowledge, strategic competence and critical awareness. These five objectives of Basturkmen are related to the four language objectives of Stern (1989, 1992). Stern's four objectives are proficiency (concerned with reading, writing, listening and speaking skills), knowledge (acquisition of linguistic and cultural information), affective (positive feelings toward language) and transfer (ability to generalise language).

Basturkmen (2006: 134) advances the view that it is important that learners should be exposed to content concerning subject-specific language use. Subject-specific language use is linked with the linguistic knowledge objective of Stern (1992). This object is used to show how language can be used in a particular environment. The research done by Wharton (1992) shows that there are some difficulties which occur in subject-specific language use. Learners find difficulty in acquiring academic and professional genres, because learners need to develop and acquire conceptual understandings of the interaction used in these genres. It happens that the mastering of genres occur at a later stage. Furthermore, teachers find it difficult to explain a genre and communicate in a certain genre when learners are not familiar with the specific genre.

The development of target performance refers to the ability to achieve the language demands of a particular occupation (Funnel & Owen, 1992). Furthermore, it refers to what people do with a particular language, as well as the skills that are needed in order to reach the goal of a language. The development of target performance is linked with the proficiency objective of Stern (1992). Therefore, courses are designed around the particular skills and competencies needed in order to perform certain actions.

The underlying competency objective refers to the disciplinary concepts of language (Hutchinson, 1985). Basturkmen (2006: 137) points out that linguistic proficiency, as well as the knowledge and understanding about disciplinary concepts is important. Douglas (2000) argues that specific-purpose language ability is the result if both specific-purpose prior knowledge and language ability. The underlying knowledge objective is linked with the cultural knowledge objective of Stern (1992).

According to Douglas (2000: 38) the strategic competence objective of Basturkmen acts as a mediator between the external context and the internal language and prior knowledge in order to respond in a communicative context. Strategic competence forms the link between the language context and language knowledge and therefore language knowledge, as well as content knowledge can be used during communication. The strategic competence objective is linked with Stern's (1992) linguistic objective.

The last objective of Basturkmen, i.e. the critical awareness, is concerned with teaching learners the norms and beliefs concerning particular communities. Teachers should teach learners the correct behaviours, knowledge and language use in order for them to act appropriately in particular communities (Basturkmen, 2006: 141). Learners should also be encouraged to change their attitudes positively in order to have a better relation with the communities to which they are being exposed, rather than being critical about the communities. The critical awareness objective is linked to the cultural knowledge and the affective objectives of Stern (1992).

2.7 Summary

In light of the discussion above, it can be concluded that Task-based Language Teaching is an approach based on the exclusive use of tasks. By creating natural contexts in which learners

can complete communicative tasks, will provide learners the opportunity to use language in situations outside the classroom. Communicative Language Teaching is an important part of Task-based Language teaching, because it aims to develop learners' ability to communicate in the real world. Task-based syllabus is a structured framework and it allows teachers to sequence lessons and assess the outcomes of task performances. It provides learners the ability to focus on meaning when they communicate in a given context. Teachers are able to teach second language through the use of either implicit or explicit instruction. Implicit and explicit instruction provides learners the opportunity to learn experientially when they learn how to communicate in a second language. Furthermore, teaching language for specific purposes is advantageous in that it enables learners to reach the demands which specific domains require. When teaching for specific purposes, only the core grammatical structures and vocabulary can be taught as the time for teaching language is limited. It is important that the correct behaviours and language use are taught to learners in order to use appropriate communication skills in a given context. Therefore, it can be concluded that Task-based language teaching is viewed as an effective approach to make learners competent in their communication skills.

CHAPTER THREE

ISSUES IN TASK TYPOLOGY AND TASK COMPLEXITY RESEARCH AND THEORY

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this Chapter is to present the theoretical perspectives of researchers in order to use these perspectives as guidelines for the analysis in Chapters four and five. The aim is to use the provided proficiency level descriptions in order to determine the proficiency level of the concerning participants and to create communicative tasks and analyse communication skills accordingly. Furthermore, the aim is to use the research perspectives in this chapter to determine the complexity and syntactic level of the communicative tasks in Chapters four and five. The aim is also to develop the ability to identify language functions in the communicative tasks and to classify these language functions in terms of task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness.

The Chapter starts with descriptions of various proficiency levels with reference to the ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable, 2010) and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001). The following section contains a discussion regarding the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993). Thereafter, a discussion, with reference to Robinson (2005), follows concerning task complexity. In the next section the analysis of spoken language is examined, i.e. syntactic complexity. Following this section, attention is focused on the views of Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) regarding task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness. To conclude, a discussion regarding language functions is provided.

3.2 Proficiency level of participants

It can be argued that different learners have different levels of language proficiency. These proficiency levels of the learners differ in reading, writing, listening and speaking. Each level of proficiency consists of a different skill level description. There are different skill level descriptions that can be used to determine the level of language proficiency. The ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable, 2010) skill level descriptions, for example, work on a scale of 0 – 5. In contrast with the ILR, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001) works on a scale of A1 – C2. In this study of police communication there

will only be focused on the proficiency levels of speaking and listening, rather than reading and writing, since these skills constitute the primary needs of the police service personnel. It can be accepted that the police personnel are currently on an entry level of proficiency. The entry level proficiency are on the level of A1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001) and 1+ and 1 for reading and listening respectively according to Interagency Language Roundtable (2010).

The skill level description of A1 is as follows in terms of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001):

Common Reference Levels: On a global scale

Level A1 represents the level of *breakthrough*. This is the lowest level of generative language proficiency and it represents the level of a basic user. “At this level the language user can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. He/ she can introduce him/ herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/ she lives, people he/she knows and things he/ she has. The user can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.”

Common Reference Level A1: On a scale of qualitative aspects of spoken language use

Range, accuracy, fluency, interaction and coherence are included in the qualitative aspects of spoken language use. Level A1 represents the level of the basic language user as follows (Common European Framework, 2001: 27):

- “Range: The user has a very basic repertoire of words and simple phrases related to personal details and particular concrete situations.”
- “Accuracy: The user shows only limited control of a few simple grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.”

- “Fluency: The user 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.”
- “Interaction: The user can ask and answer questions about personal details. The user can interact in a simple way, but communication is totally dependent on repetition, rephrasing and repair.”
- “Coherence: The user can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like ‘and’ or ‘then’.”

The skill level descriptions are as follows for speaking (1+) and listening (1) in terms of the ILR (2010):

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 a series of short, discrete utterances.”

Listening 1 (Elementary Proficiency): “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 paraphrase (that is, by a native used to dealing with foreigners). Once learned, these sentences can be varied for similar level vocabulary and grammar and still be understood. In the majority of utterances, 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 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.”

In the complexity analyses of the different dialogues in this task, I will assume the above entry-level descriptions of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001) outlined above as entry-level proficiency for adult learners for whom task-based syllabus design is investigated, and hence for whom second/ additional language development of isiXhosa is investigated through their learning of the range of communication tasks.

3.3 Description of Task Types

Pica et al (1993: 9) point out that communication tasks are very important. Communication tasks are being used in order to determine the processes of second language acquisition (SLA) and to assist the language that is learned in the classroom.

According to Pica et al (1993: 10) interaction is an important part of language learning, because language is best learned and taught through interaction. Activities in classrooms have to be structured in such a way that learners can use these different activities to interact in order to exchange different opinions and ideas. By doing this, learners will be able to produce language and to eventually reach the goals that are set for them individually.

Pica et al (1993: 11) advance the view that social interaction (e.g. between learners and their interlocutors) assists language learning. This is especially the case when the concerning learners and interlocutors are negotiating mutual meaning of each other’s message. In order for successful negotiation of meaning, there need to be a clear understanding of the linguistic input.

It is important that tasks are developed and orientated toward goals. These tasks must be created in such a way that learners are able to meet the outcomes of the particular tasks. It is also necessary that learners have an active role in the performance of tasks, whether they are working in groups with other learners or individually. Tasks can be created in order to meet the tasks relationships, requirements, goals and outcomes of the learners (Pica et al, 1993: 12).

Table 1 is organized according to communication tasks. There can be distinguished between two main features, namely interactional activity and communication goal. These two main features are further elaborated into the categories of interaction requirement, interactant relationship, outcome options and goal orientation. Table 1 is used to assist learners in the comprehensibility of second language input and to receive feedback on their output (Pica et al, 1993: 13).

The interactional activity category can be further divided into two categories, namely interactant relationship and interaction requirement. The interactant relationship refers to the fact that each participant holds a different portion of information and that information is requested and supplied as needed in order for the participants to complete the task and achieve task goals that are set. This can either represent mutual information requesters (two-way direction), as well as suppliers or it can represent independent requesters to suppliers and suppliers of requesters (one-way direction – i.e. information is less mutual and more differentiated) (Pica et al, 1993: 13).

Pica et al (1993: 13) suggest that the interaction requirement is based on whether the request or supply of information is required or optional. Exchange of information that is required results in positive language development.

Pica et al (1993: 13) point out that communication goal can be divided into goal orientation and outcome options. Goal orientation is the collaboration or convergence versus independence or divergence that is required of the participants. Outcome options refer to the variability of acceptable task-outcomes that are available to the interactants.

There are several linkages between categories in Table 1. There are links among the „a’ categories. For example, when several interactants each hold a certain amount of information to meet the task goal, like in the case of interactant relationship 1a, they are also likely to meet conditions for interactant requirement 2a (Pica et al, 1993: 15).

Pica et al (1993: 15) argue that it is possible that a variation on the „a’ category can occur when the goal orientation is convergent and if there is only one outcome is possible. When one of the interactant holds all of the information that the others need in order for the

completion of the task, it could link goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a with interactant relationship 1b and interaction requirement 2b.

Table 3-1: Task relationships, requirements, goals and outcomes and their impact on opportunities for L2 learners' comprehension of input, feedback on production and modification of interlanguage (Pica et al, 1993)

<i>Task activities and goals</i>	<i>Impact on opportunities for learner</i>		
	<i>Comprehension of input</i>	<i>Feedback on production</i>	<i>Interlanguage modification</i>
<i>A. Interactional activity:</i>			
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 portion of information and supplies and requests this information as needed to complete the task	Expected	Expected	Expected
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 toward 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
<i>B. Communication goal:</i>			
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

Table 2 represents the task typology of Pica et al (1993: 19). Table 1 and Table 2 are interrelated. The typology in Table 2 is generated from the categories (interaction requirement, interactant relationship, goal orientation and outcome option) in Table 1.

Pica et al (1993: 20) maintain that interactant relationship is further divided into four categories, namely information (INF) holder, INF requester, INF supplier and INF requester-supplier relationship. Table 2 presents five task types, i.e. jigsaw, information gap, problem-solving, decision-making and opinion exchange.

In a jigsaw task each participant (X and Y) holds, request and supplies only a part of the total information. The participants are engaged in a relationship of mutual request and suppliance. The flow of information is two way, because none of the participants give all of the information that is needed in order to complete the task. Interaction is required (+) (Pica et al, 1993: 20).

An information gap task refers to one of the participants that have all the information needed to complete the task. The flow of information is one way, i.e. from the sending interactant (X) to the receiving interactant (Y). Interaction is required (+) in order to reach a single outcome (Pica et al, 1993: 21).

Problem-solving tasks require learners to work towards a single outcome. Decision-making tasks require learners to work towards a single outcome, even though various outcomes are available. Opinion exchange tasks give learners the opportunity for exchange of ideas, as well as discussions (Pica et al, 1993: 22).

Pica et al (1993: 22) promote that problem-solving, decision-making and opinion exchange tasks are examples of a two-way exchange of information. Interaction is not necessarily necessary (-). Only one participant can solve the problem, make the decision and form an opinion. It is not necessary that all of the participants are needed in order to solve a problem, make decisions or form an opinion.

Pica et al (1993) maintain that interactants need to work towards a single decision in decision-making tasks, i.e. convergent (+). More than one decision exists; therefore the outcome option is (1+).

According to Pica et al (1993) interaction is not required (-) in opinion exchange tasks. One participant may dominate (X or Y). Interactants are not expected to work towards a single opinion (-convergent) In this case, any number of outcome options is in order (1+/-).

Table 3-2: Communication task types for L2 research and pedagogy analysis based on: Interactant (X/Y) relationships and requirements in communicating information (INF) to achieve task goals (Pica et al, 1993)

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

3.4 Cognition Hypothesis and Task Design in Second Language (L2)

The abilities of learners' development differ from one person to another. Some learners will fall behind because of their slowness in learning, while other learners will excel in learning because of their fast ability of learning. The reason for the developmental differences of learners is because of the fact that they differ in their cognitive abilities that are necessary in the performance of tasks in a domain. There are certain interactional demands which tasks require from learners and furthermore there are strengths and weaknesses in these abilities which help learners with their successful adaptation of learning, as well as the performance demands that tasks bring about. If learners have more motivation on performing instructional tasks and if the cognitive processes that tasks demand is „matched' with the abilities of learners, learners will have more success in the achievement of instructional tasks (Robinson, 1995).

Many Second Language Acquisition researchers, as well as Second Language Pedagogy researchers argue that „tasks' are a way of delivering a linguistically defined syllabus and these tasks are also a valid alternative unit (Robinson, 2005:1). According to Long (1985) and Robinson (1995a, 1996a, 1998, 2001a, 2002c) cited in Robinson (2005: 1) it is the ideal that pedagogic tasks are first developed and then sequenced in order to fulfil the demands that occur in real-world target tasks.

3.4.1 Task-based Language Learning and Performance

Robinson (2005: 2) states that the aim of task-based approaches to pedagogy is to allow for second language acquisition to take place, as well as further second language learning. It is also necessary that task-based approaches give opportunity for second language production. There can be distinguished between performance, and how it can be differentiated through the use of task demands, and development, and how it can be stimulated through task demands. The distinction between performance and development corresponds (Robinson, 2005: 2). According to Robinson (2005: 2) there are two different kinds of dimensions in the case of task demands. These kinds of dimensions are „those which can be manipulated to stimulate access to an existing L2 knowledge base (such as allowing planning time) and those which can be manipulated to push learners to go beyond this to meet the demands of a task by extending an existing L2 repertoire (such as making increasing demands on the conceptual/ linguistic distinctions needed to refer to spatial location, temporality, or causality)'

(Robinson, 2005: 2). Robinson (2005: 2) argues that during task design, performance and development can be manipulated separately. In contrast, there are often drawn simultaneously on performance and development in a second language when task design takes place. Furthermore, it can happen that there are similarities between performance and development (Robinson, 2005: 2).

The quantity and quality of the interaction that accompany the complex performance is important. In order for learners to operate successfully in the case of comprehensible input that tasks are able to provide, it is necessary that task-work provide a meaningful language exposure and it has to be made available to learners in order to enable unconscious „acquisition’ (Robinson, 2005: 3). Task-based learning that is sequenced in terms of cognitive complexity, leads to the focus on “noticing”, elaborative processing, as well as retention of input (Robinson, 1995b; Schmidt, 2001). According to Robinson (2005: 3) cognitive processing and the consequences of task sequencing are both responsible for task-based language development.

3.4.2 Cognition Hypothesis in terms of task sequencing

Robinson (2005: 3) proposes that the cognitive processing and the interactive demands of tasks form the theoretical basis of the Cognition Hypothesis in the case of second language learning and sequencing. The Cognition Hypothesis has three specific predictions along the cognitive demands of tasks that will „push the learners to greater accuracy and complexity of L2 production in order to meet the consequently greater functional/ communicative demands they place on the learner, promote interaction and negotiation work, and heightened attention to, noticing of, and incorporation of forms made salient in the input, and that individual differences in cognitive abilities (working memory) and affective factors (anxiety) will increasingly affect task-based performance and learning as tasks increase in complexity’ (Robinson, 2005: 3).

According to Robinson (2010: 246) it is necessary that simple tasks must be designed for learners to perform in order for them to reach the optimal use of task-based second language. Thereafter, tasks can gradually be made more complex in order to increase the cognitive complexity of learners. This is referred to as task sequencing. By using task sequencing, cumulative learning can take place. Cumulative learning can take place, because each

performing task only has a small difference in relation to the previous one. Furthermore, task sequencing increases the communicative and conceptual challenges created by tasks. These communicative and conceptual challenges require learners to expand the interlanguage resources in order to meet the demands of the tasks (Robinson, 2010: 247).

When task complexity is increased, tasks can require reasoning concerning the intentional states that require the learners to perform actions (+intentional reasoning). Learners' attention can be directed to the „noticing' of linguistics by only describing learners' actions (-intentional reasoning). Cognitive complexity can further be increased by removing the planning time (- planning time), but the attentional resources of tasks are dispersed and there are no particular linguistic correlations in these tasks. Robinson (2010: 247) suggests that task complexity that is increased along the resource-directing dimension focuses attention on the form-function/concept mappings and in this sense interlanguage is developed. Task-complexity which is increased along the resource-dispersing dimension increases the access of learners to the linguistic resources of tasks (Robinson, 2010: 247).

- **Task Sequencing Principle 1: Only the cognitive demands of tasks contributing to their intrinsic conceptual and cognitive processing complexity are sequenced**

According to this principle, tasks are performed first when it do not require intentional reasoning and after these tasks, tasks are performed which do require intentional reasoning. In order for tasks to ensure the semantic processing thereof, it is necessary that the interactive demands of tasks need to be replicated when pedagogic tasks are performed. The replication of these interactive demands is also necessary for the successful transfer of interactive task performance to the real-world use (Robinson, 2010: 247).

- **Task Sequencing Principle 2: Increase resource-dispersing dimensions of complexity first (e.g. from + to – planning time) and then increase resource-directing dimensions (e.g. from – to + intentional reasoning)**

According to this principle tasks are performed that are quite simple on all of the dimensions (e.g. + planning time, - intentional reasoning). In this sense, task performance will draw on

simple, stable (SS) „attractor state’ in relation to the interlanguage. Furthermore, it is necessary that complexity is increased along the resource-dispersing dimension. By doing this, automatization of the interlanguage system is developed. The final step is that it is necessary to increase complexity along the resource-dispersing, as well as the resource-directing dimension. When this is done, the *restructuring (R)* of the interlanguage system occurs. New form-functions/concepts are also developed along the resource-directing dimension. It also emphasises the *maximum complexity (C)* that the interlanguage system destabilize (Robinson, 248).

The above described steps refer to the SSARC model. The SSARC model is used to increase the complexity of second language pedagogic tasks. The SSARC model can be represented as follow: i = current interlanguage state; e = mental effort; s = simple task demands; c = complex task demands; rdisp = resource-dispersing dimensions of tasks; rdir = resource-directing dimensions of tasks; n = potential number of practice opportunities on tasks. Therefore:

$$\text{Step 1: } SS = i \times e (s, rdisp) + (s, rdir)n$$

$$\text{Step 2: } A = i \times e (c, rdisp) + (s, rdir)n$$

$$\text{Step 3: } RC = i \times e (c, rdisp) + (c, rdir)n$$

3.4.3 Scaling of tasks and task complexity

Robinson (2010: 248) argues that, for second language learners, it is necessary that tasks are sequenced in terms of the increases in the cognitive complexity. By doing this, there will be more accurate production of tasks in second language. There will also be a more positive reaction of interaction and noticing. The Triadic Componential Framework distinguishes between task complexity, task difficulty and task conditions.

Robinson (2010: 249) argues that task complexity refers to the „cognitive factors affecting their intrinsic cognitive challenge and is a consequence of the relatively lesser or greater demands tasks make on conceptualization, attention, memory and reasoning processes during task performance.’ There can be distinguished between the resource-directing and the resource-dispersing characteristics. According to Robinson (2010: 249) the resource-directing dimension refers to the „conceptual/ communicative demands which direct learner attention and effort at conceptualization in ways that the linguistic L2 system can help them to meet.’

It is necessary for learners to understand how this can be so and furthermore it is necessary that learners adopt operational measures that is appropriate. Cognitive linguistics is important in order to reconfigure the patterns of conceptualization in the first language to meet the linguistic constructions that is used in the second language for the performance of conceptual language tasks. For example, if tasks, which are performed in the second language, require complex reasoning, it will tend to draw on the cognitive linguistics, as well as the use of complex syntax. In this case, awareness of the use of complex syntax use in the second language is promoted. On the other hand, as Robinson (2010: 249, 251) suggests, the performance of tasks in the second language will draw on the use of constructions concerning motion events when these tasks require spatial reasoning that is complex. In this case, awareness of lexicalization patterns of performance tasks in the second language is promoted.

Robinson (2010: 251) promotes that it may happen that tasks will require reference to things that are happening now, i.e. these tasks require the use of present tense. This is referred to as the Here-and-Now dimension. More complex tasks will require the use of more cognitive demands as these tasks will refer to events that happened in another time and space, i.e. the past. Therefore, these tasks require the use of the There-and-Then dimension, because these tasks rely on the use of memory and conceptualization because of the fact that it is happenings of the past. In the case of the There-and-Then dimension, it is important that learners' conceptual abilities are developed in order for them to be able to use the past tense and also to use expressions that refer things that are absent. According to Robinson (2010: 251) language has the ability to 'grammaticize, lexicalize and syntacticize' the conceptual domains. Robinson (2010: 251) argues that the conceptual demands of tasks must be increased along these dimensions from simple to more complex. It is necessary that learners have the ability to remap the linguistic conceptualization of the L1 to the L2. When learners succeed in the ability to notice difference in mappings of the L1 from the L2, they will be able to develop in their interlanguage ability (Robinson, 2010: 251).

Tasks that are performed along the resource-dispersing dimension refer to the procedural and performative demands of cognition. The attention of the learner is not specifically directed to specific aspects of the language if the complexity of cognitive demands is increased. Robinson (2010: 252) argues that the attention of the learner will only be dispersed over linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of a task if the performance of a task is made more complex by removing, for example, the planning time. Attention can further be dispersed

over non-linguistic aspects of tasks by making these tasks more complex by adding a second or even a third task demand. The increasing of task complexity in such a way is also a way of helping with the development of interlanguage (Robinson, 2010: 252). Robinson (2010: 252) refers to the view of Bialystok (1994) that complexity that is increased along the resource-directing dimension will lead to greater analysis. In contrast, complexity that is increased along the resource-dispersing dimension, leads to greater control over the interlanguage systems of knowledge of the second language. Robinson (2010: 254) states that task complexity refers to the intrinsic differences that occur in the cognitive demands which tasks tend to place on learners.

3.4.4 Task Conditions and task difficulty

Task complexity is being distinguished from task conditions in Figure 1. Robinson (2010: 254) states that task conditions „describe two categories of task characteristics that affect the nature and amount of interaction between participants in performing real-world tasks and pedagogic task versions of these.’ There are characteristics proposed by the SSARC model that are relevant for the performance of pedagogic tasks. These characteristics are being held constant every time when tasks are gradually made cognitively more complex and are performed in a cognitively complex sequence. Robinson (2010: 254) argues that memory and interactive task performance will be developed when the interactive demands of these target tasks are replicated each time tasks are performed from simple to more and more complex tasks. Robinson (2010: 254) refers to the view of Schank (1999) that his increases the ability of „reasoning, dynamic memory, schema learning and elaboration’.

Task conditions distinguish between interactional demands and interactant demands. The interactional demands refer to whether a task requires the flow of information in only one direction from one person to another (i.e. one-way flow of information) or whether the task requires the flow of information in two directions, for example, when two people are having a conversation over the phone (i.e. two-way flow of information). Tasks can further require learners to only give one correct solution (i.e. + closed task) or tasks can require learners to give more than one solution and any solution may be possible (i.e. + open task). In contrast, according to Robinson (2010: 254) interactant demands refer to the differences and similarities that exist between learners concerning their gender, background knowledge, proficiency and their interactional role.

Robinson (2010: 254) proposes that task difficulty refers to affective factors, as well as the abilities that appear during task performance and learning. Participant variation can be seen when two learners, for example differ in their abilities to perform a certain task. It can be either more difficult or simple for the one learner than it is for the other learner. The SSARC model suggests that it is just the characteristics of task complexity that are usually manipulated when tasks are designed to be performed.

Task Complexity (Cognitive Factors)	Task Condition (Interactive Factors)	Task Difficulty (Learner Factors)
(Classification criteria: cognitive demands)	(Classification criteria: interactional demands)	(Classification criteria: ability requirements)
(Classification procedure: information-theoretic analysis)	(Classification procedure: behaviour-descriptive analysis)	(Classification procedure: ability assessment analysis)
a. Resource-directing variables making cognitive/ conceptual demands	a. Participation variables making interactional demands	a. Ability variables and task-relevant resource differentials
+/- here and now	+/- open solution	h/l working memory
+/- few elements	+/- one-way flow	h/l reasoning
+/- spatial reasoning	+/- convergent solution	h/l task-switching
+/- causal reasoning	+/- few participants	h/l aptitude
+/- intentional reasoning	+/- few contributions needed	h/l field independence
+/- perspective-taking	+/- negotiation not needed	h/l mind/ intention-reading
b. Resource-dispersing variables making performative/ procedural demands	b. Participant variables making interactant demands	b. Affective variables and task-relevant state-trait differentials
+/- planning time	+/- same proficiency	h/l openness to experience
+/- single task	+/- same gender	h/l control of emotion
+/- task structure	+/- familiar	h/l task motivation
+/- few steps	+/- shared content knowledge	h/l processing anxiety
+/- independency of steps	+/- equal status and role	h/l willingness to communicate
+/- prior knowledge	+/- shared cultural knowledge	h/l self-efficacy

Figure 3-1 The Triadic Componential Framework for task classification – categories, criteria, analytic procedures, and design characteristics (Robinson, 2007a, referred to by Robinson, 2010)

3.4.5 Task demands and performance

Robinson (2005: 7) argues that learners are not directed to any of the particular aspects of the language code that are of use in order to reach task demands required if task complexity is increased along the resource-dispersing dimension. Attentional and memory resources can be dispersed if prior knowledge or planning time is being taken away or even when a number of tasks are increased that is supposed to be performed simultaneously. Robinson (2005: 7) suggests that access, as well as knowledge will occur during the performance of a complex skill if changes occur in the complexity along the resource-dispersing dimension. Increasing in complexity along the resource-dispersing dimension is important, because it supports the conditions under which language is normally used in real life.

Robinson (2005: 7) proposes that learners tend to try and apply the conceptual/ functional requirements of tasks in speech if the complexity is increased along the resource-directing dimension. The complexity, fluency and accuracy will be affected negatively if complexity is increased along the resource-dispersing dimension, because it causes problems for the learners in their access to second language knowledge. According to Robinson (2005: 7) the effects that task complexity tend to have on speech that increases along the resource-directing dimension (+reasoning demands), will be stronger on the speech if the task is more simple along the resource-dispersing dimension (+planning time or +prior knowledge).

3.4.6 Effects of task complexity on language production and language learning

According to Robinson (2005: 7) tasks particularly have effects on the quality of the learner production. Givon (1985: 1021) cited in Robinson (2005: 8) proposes that the effects that task complexity have on the accuracy, as well as the syntactic complexity of second language production along the resource-directing dimension is based on the fact that “greater structural complexity tends to accompany greater functional complexity in syntax” and that “acquisition is pushed by the communicative tasks of the discourse activities which the learner takes part in” (Perdue, 1993a: 53) cited in Robinson (2005: 8). Robinson (2005: 8) advances the view that language acquisition can be seen as the linguistic, as well as the cognitive complexity. In the light of this statement, more complex linguistic and cognitive constructions are learned at a later stage, because it requires much more attention. Therefore,

in this sense, second language production can be affected by the functional/ cognitive demands of the particular communicative tasks in second language. In other words, the pragmatic mode of communicative tasks can be shifted to the syntactic mode. Robinson (2005: 8-9) followed the statement of Rohdenburg (2002: 80) that in environments that are more cognitive, learners will be more explicit in the case of grammatical options that are more or less complex, for example the outcomes that a complex oral will have when it is performed along the resource-directing dimension as described in Figures 1 and 2.

Robinson (2005: 9) suggests that learners' attention will be drawn to the way in which first and second language 'grammaticize' the conceptual notions of tasks if the complexity of the functional and conceptual demands of these tasks are increased. In this sense, learners will react positively on the accuracy of the production of second language.

There can be distinguished between the open-class lexical and closed-class grammatical subsystems in language with grammaticizable notions. Meanings that are expressed through the open-class can be very wide. In contrast, meanings that are produced through the closed-class can be constrained (Robinson: 2005: 9). According to Robinson forms can be grammaticized in particular conceptual domains, but the extent to which these forms can be grammaticized differ from one language to another. It will often happen that different conceptual distinctions have to be grammaticized when learning a second language. Grammaticization will be more accurate if the cognitive and conceptual demands of the tasks in second language are increased and if the attention of learners are drawn to the areas that overlap in the L1 and L2. If the cognitive and conceptual demands of learners are increased, they will start using more complex devices, rather than elementary devices (Robinson, 2005: 9).

Robinson (2005: 10) suggests that language can be used in order to reach the resource-directing demands of tasks that are rather complex. Robinson (2005: 10) further argues that Focus on Form (FonF) is important in order to make the semantic and conceptual demands of communicative content meaningful. Focus on Form will also help to notice the input that is necessary in complex tasks, because, according to Schmidt (1983) cited in Robinson (2005: 11), complex tasks require more communicative and mental effort. According to Robinson (2005: 11) cognitively complex tasks that are orally more interactive, have interaction

outcomes that are more quantitative. An interactive context is therefore needed for the performance of more complex tasks (Robinson, 2005: 11).

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - few elements - no reasoning - Here-and-Now + planning + prior knowledge + single task <p>3</p> <p>LOW PERFORMATIVE AND HIGH DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - few elements - no reasoning - Here-and-Now - planning - prior knowledge - single task <p>4</p> <p>HIGH PERFORMATIVE AND HIGH DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + few elements + no reasoning + Here-and-Now + planning + prior knowledge + single task <p>1</p> <p>LOW PERFORMATIVE AND LOW DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + few elements + no reasoning + Here-and-Now - planning - prior knowledge - single task <p>2</p> <p>HIGH PERFORMATIVE AND LOW DEVELOPMENTAL COMPLEXITY</p>

Figure 3-2: Resource-directing (developmental) and resource-dispersing (performative) dimensions of complexity and their implications for task sequencing

3.4.7 Summary of the Cognition Hypothesis

Robinson (2005: 20) points out that there is more incorporation of input if the complexity of tasks is increased. Therefore, learning from the input will be based on long-term learning. Task performance that is complex is affected by individual differences (Ids) and therefore task complexity affects the production of tasks. According to Robinson (2005: 20) there will also be more interaction in the case of task complexity and therefore negotiation of meaning will be more productive. Tasks that are more complex, causes language production to be less fluent.

Robinson (2005: 11) advances the view that three predictions can be made concerning the Cognition hypothesis:

- Task complexity that exists along the developmental dimension causes the fact that there are an increase in the complexity and accuracy of language production, but there is less fluency in language production.
- Task complexity has the ability to have more negotiation for meaning and interaction.
- There are individual differences in the case of cognitive abilities and therefore performance is differentiated as the complexity in tasks increase.

3.5 The analysis of spoken language

Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 354) argue that it is important and necessary to measure the frequency of discourse features (for example self-corrections or confirmation checks), the frequency of grammatical features or even the frequency of dimensions such as grammatical accuracy, fluency of language and syntactic complexity. In order to determine the different frequencies, it is necessary to divide the language data into different units. This is important for the analysis of language development (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 355).

According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 355), in the case of the division of spoken language into its different units, „more has often meant better.’ Foster, Tonkyn and

Wigglesworth (2000: 355) points out that „more’ can be seen in two different ways, namely productivity and complexity.

When the first language performance and second language performance of older children need to be measured, it is difficult only to work with productivity. The cognitive maturity of these learners is an important factor. High cognitive maturity leads to high productivity even if there are limited resources. Performances with high productivity which are supported by high complexity are much more valued than productivity without complexity (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 355).

There are some researches which have focused on „chunks’ of spoken language. These researches are linked with psycholinguistic processes. It is more specifically linked with planning processes. According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 355) there can be distinguished between macro- and micro- planning processes. Both of these processes are involved in what is referred to as composing speech. Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 355) advances the view that macro planning processes tend to „cover long stretches of speech’, in other words multi-sentences. Micro planning processes cover shorter units, for example clauses. A proficient speaker has the ability to keep up with complex micro-units and therefore the speaker is able to transfer a complex message in a short time period. This ability will improve the learner’s working memory and the information flow will be better. Furthermore, the learner will be able to adjust sequences of information. Learners will also be able to recognize syntactic requirements, as well as the constraints which are involved in the performance of communication tasks. Learners that are more proficient in their use of language are those who are able to know where they are in a language syntactically. According to Foster (2000: 356) adult native speakers of a certain language tend to focus more on the memorized sequences of the language when they are under communicative pressure. In contrast, non-native speakers of a certain language tend to rely more on the word-by-word processing. By doing this, they will increase more in their fluency, complexity and accuracy when they are not under communicative pressure (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 356).

It is important to know the abilities of a language performer. It is important to know what exactly each language performer can achieve when performing a single chunk of a micro-planning activity. Furthermore, it is important to know how the particular types (micro and

macro) of plan can affect the fluency, complexity and accuracy of the language being produced by the language performers (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 356).

3.5.1 Semantic Units

According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 358) there are three units that are mainly part of semantic units. These three units are as follow, each provided with a definition:

- Proposition: „A semantic unit consisting of at least one major argument and one or more predications about this argument’ (Sato, 1988: 375).
- C-Unit (semantic focus): „Utterances, for example, words, phrases and sentences, grammatical and ungrammatical, which provide referential or pragmatic meaning’ (Pica *et al*, 1989: 72).
- Idea Unit (semantic focus): „A chunk of information which is viewed by the speaker/writer cohesively as it is given a surface from. . .related. . . to psychological reality for the encoder’ (Kroll, 1977: 85).

Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 358) state that when semantic units are based on information or even meaning, it can happen that chunks appear to be appealing. Sometimes it is difficult and even impossible to establish the extent of an argument or of an idea. Therefore, it is difficult for an analyst to work reliably if definitions rely on semantic criteria. In the case of literature these semantic criteria normally does not stand alone. These semantic criteria is rather supported by intonational and grammatical criteria (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 358).

3.5.2 Intonational Units

Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 358) argue that there are units that are mainly part of the intonational units. These units, provided with definitions, are as follows:

- Tone unit/phonemic clause: „A distinctive configuration of pitches, with a clear centre, or nucleus. The nucleus is the syllable (or in some cases, series of syllables) which carries the greatest prominence within the tone-unit’ (Crystal and Davy, 1975: 16).
- Idea unit (intonation focus): „The „tone-unit’ of Crystal is essentially the same. Most idea units end with an intonation contour that might appropriately be called clause-final: usually either a rise in pitch or a fall. A second factor is pausing. Idea units are typically separated by at least a brief pause’ (Chafe, 1980: 13-14).
- Utterance: “A stream of speech with at least one of the following characteristics: 1. Under one intonational contour; 2. Bounded by pauses; 3. Constituting a single semantic unit’ (Crookes and Rulon, 1985, cited in Crookes, 1990: 187).

According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 359) the above three definitions all have a central focus and this central focus is intonational. The definition of Chafe and Crookes emphasize that pausing is a secondary feature. Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 359) argue that units which tend to focus on the intonational and pausing features is problematic in the case of second language because of the fact that there are a lot of vagaries in the features that occur in second language speech. The pauses that occur in second language performance is difficult to distinguish between, because these pauses either result from a lexical search or a message formulation. Sometimes it happens that native speakers that are fluent produce sub-clausal tone units. These tone-units tend to reveal a lot about proficiency, as well as the planning abilities. According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 359) the „utterance’ unit tend to be unstable. Clauses are used to subdivide units into smaller segments.

3.5.3 Syntactic units

Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 360) advance the view that there are units that are mainly part of the syntactic units. These units, provided with definitions are as follows:

- Idea Unit (structurally defined): „A clause with its pre- and post-V clause elements. Also counted as IU’s are non-finite subordinate clauses, and finite relative clauses where the relative pronoun is present’ (Kroll, 1977: 90).

- T-Unit: „One main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it’ (Hunt, 1965: 20).
„One main clause plus whatever subordinate clauses happen to be attached to or embedded within it’ (Hunt, 1966: 735).
„The shortest units into which a piece of discourse can be cut without leaving any sentence fragments as residue’ (Hunt, 1970: 189).
„A main clause plus all subordinate clauses and non-clausal structures attached to or embedded in it’ (Hunt, 1970: 4).

According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 359) the above four definitions of the T-unit argue that the non-clausal structures, as well as the sentence fragments can either be included or excluded from an analysis. This depends on which of the four definitions of the T-unit are being adopted. The following definitions can also define a T-unit:

„A T-unit is 1. Any independent clause plus all its required modifiers; 2. Any non-independent clause punctuated as a sentence; 3. Any imperative’ (Schneider and Connor, 1990: 427). This definition is used for written data.

„An independent clause and associated dependent clauses’ (Young and Milanovic, 1992: 409).

„One clause plus any subordinate clauses (Young, 1995: 19).

It is difficult to analyse speech if it is dysfluent with incomplete sentences and even if hesitation and repetition occurs (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 360).

- C-unit: „Grammatical independent predication(s) or answers to questions which lack only the repetition of the question elements to satisfy the criterion of independent predication. „Yes’ can be admitted as a whole unit of communication when it is an answer to a question such as „Have you ever been sick?’ (Loban, 1966: 5-6).
„An independent grammatical predication, the same as a T-unit except that in oral language elliptical answers to questions also constitute predication’ (Chaudron, 1988: 45).

In the case of Loban's definition the elliptical constructions occur within a speaker's turn. The elliptical constructions do not link to the question of the interlocutor (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 361).

The choices in which unit to choose, is between the units that are clause-based (the S-node, the clause itself and the Idea unit) and the units that are supra-clausal (C-unit and T-unit). The clause-based units ensure an easier analysis. In contrast with these units, the supra-clausal units give opportunity for a greater validity (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 361-362).

- **Typical features of oral performance: 'Because' as adverbial clauses**

Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 363) promote that adverbial clauses which are being introduced by „because' appear to be problematic in oral language. The reason for this problem is the uncertainty that exist between the „because' clause and the main clause. Furthermore, „because' function anaphorically, as well as cataphorically. „Because' can also be used to perform as a „discourse marker function'. The pause and intonation phenomena occur in the discourse function (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 363).

- **Co-ordination**

According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 363) the T-unit suggests that it is ideal to treat main clauses as separate units. It is also suggested that coordinated verb phrases must be treated as phrases part of one unit if it consist over the same subject.

- **'Topical' noun phrases**

Bygate (1988) cited in According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 364) argues that independent noun phrases commonly appear in speech. These noun phrases are very common in second language, especially for those learners whose first language appear to be a topic-comment language.

- **Scaffolding and interruption**

The building up of a conversation that is co-operative is a common appearance in interactive conversations (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 364). According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 365) oral data of first language, as well as second language is difficult to classify into different separate units in order to be analysed. For a successful analysis it is necessary to imply a standard unit that is accessible. This unit of analysis must be explicit, as well as exemplified and it is important that it must be psycholinguistically valid. Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 365) advance the view that this unit of analysis must have the ability to be applied to a wide range of oral data. Therefore, it has to be reliable.

3.5.4 Analysis of Speech Unit (As-Unit)

Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 365) argue that the analysis of speech unit is mainly a syntactic unit. The speech unit is a valuable unit for the analysis of spoken language. In the case of the speech of a native speaker, the syntactic units are viewed as units of planning. This is due to the fact that many pauses occur in the syntactic units. Beattie (1980) cited in Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 365) suggests that the fact that speech units are mainly syntactic gives speakers the opportunity for the planning of multi-clause units. In order to establish the proficiency level of the speaker, it is necessary to be able to plan on the level of multi-clause. This can also be used to determine and evaluate the degree of complexity of certain performances of the speaker. According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 366) syntactic units tend to be easier to identify than in the case of semantic and intonational units.

3.5.4.1 Definition provided for the As-Unit

According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 365) an As-unit is „a single speaker’s utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clausal unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either.’ An independent clause refers to a clause that consists of a finite verb. An independent sub-clausal unit can be defined as consisting of „either one or more phrases which can be elaborated to a full clause by means of recovery of

ellipted elements from the context of the discourse or situation' or „a minor utterance, which will be defined as one of the class of „irregular sentences' or „nonsentences' (Quirk *et al*, 1985: 838-53). In some cases it can happen that the subordinate clause within an AS-unit may have the ability to realize an adverbial function (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 367). However, the ideal is that the adverbial clause appears in the same unit as at least one of the other elements of the AS-unit.

- **Repetitions, self-corrections and false starts**

It is important to determine how features such as repetitions, false starts and self-corrections are going to be handled in particular units. This appearance is very frequent in oral language data, and also specifically in second language data. According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 368) a false start can be defined as „an utterance which is begun and then either abandoned altogether or reformulated in some way.' When an AS-unit is produced even before a message is being abandoned, that specific part of the sentence will appear as the AS-unit, while the rest of the sentence is seen as the false start.

Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 368) state that a repetition can be defined as „where the speaker repeats previously produced speech.' It is important to make the distinction between repetitions that are used for rhetorical effect and repetitions that are used in order to indicate dysfluency (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 368).

Self-correction is defined as something that occurs „when the speaker identifies an error either during or immediately following production and stops and reformulates the speech; self-corrections will therefore include an element of structural change (Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000: 368).

- **Topicalization, Interruption and Scaffolding**

According to Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000: 369) „topicalized noun phrases generally belong to the unit of which they are the topic.'

Interruption and scaffolding are common appearances in discourses that are highly interactive.

3.6 Task naturalness, Task utility and Task essentialness

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 124) argue that grammar and grammatical knowledge is an essential part of the tasks in Task-based Language Teaching. Communicative tasks are very advantageous in the sense that it allows learners to use language as a communicative tool rather than to focus on the grammatical features of a language. Nunan (1989: 10) defines a communicative task as „a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form’.

The most essential distinction can be made between „open’ and „closed’ tasks. Open tasks normally contain information that is restricted or indeterminate, while closed tasks contain information that is determinate or discrete. Closed tasks tend to include more negotiation of meaning and therefore comprehension is possible. In the case of grammar, the use of closed tasks is better suited (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 125). For the successful development of grammar, relevant aspects of grammar need to be considered, as well as applicable control over language that is used during the completion of tasks („essentialness’) (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 126).

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 126) two concepts need to be considered when designing structurally based communication tasks, i.e. automatization and restructuring. McLaughlin (1987: 134) states that automatization involves a „learned response that has been built up through the consistent mapping of the same input to the same pattern of activation over many trials’. Automatization requires a lot of practice which can be linked to the statement that „practice makes perfect’ (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 127). Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 127) points out that there are a lot of ups and downs concerned with language acquisition and automatization is not always responsible for the imperfect („natural’) manner of language acquisition. Restructuring, on the other hand, refers to the „sudden moments of insight’ (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 127). Restructuring normally occurs when learners notice gaps in their use of grammar. Noticing is a very important factor in the completion of communicative tasks, as well as for second language acquisition (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 127).

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 128) maintain that strategic use of grammar is very important in language. Second language learners usually tend to use internal strategies and

interpersonal strategies. Internal strategies refer to the strategies used in the mind of the comprehender, while interpersonal strategies refer to the interaction which takes place with an interlocutor. Internal strategies refer to the use of syntax, semantics, pragmatics, morphology and the lexicon (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 128).

Færch & Kasper (1983) points out that either reduction or achievement strategies can be used in the case of a lack of grammar. Reduction strategies will refer to the use of a restricted area of grammar. Reduction strategies require the appropriate use of speech acts (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 129). Achievement strategies, on the other hand, refer to the compensatory devices that can be used when gaps occur in linguistic knowledge, i.e. essentially linguistic devices such as paraphrase, word coinage, generalization, etc.

Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 129) propose that problems have occurred in creating information-gap exercises. The first problem that occur is the fact that the relationship between form and meaning tend to be absent. Secondly, it can happen that negative feedback can either be absent or non-salient. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 129) argues that one should respond to these problems by meting two criteria, i.e. it is compulsory that comprehension and production must be essential in structure-based communicative tasks and that feedback should be incorporated into these communicative tasks.

According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 132) communicative tasks can be constructed involving grammatical knowledge in different ways. There can be distinguished between three types of grammatical structures in tasks, i.e. task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness. Task-naturalness refers to grammatical structures which will occur naturally during task performance. The tasks do not necessarily require the accurate use of structures. It is possible that tasks can effectively be performed without these grammatical constructions. Structures that are natural for native speakers, is not necessarily natural for second language learners. During task-utility it is possible that tasks can be completed without the use of these grammatical structures, but tasks performance will be a lot easier with the use of grammatical structures. In the case of task-essentialness a task cannot be performed without the use of particular grammatical structures; these structures are of absolute essentialness. For example, it will not be possible to complete a task if the necessary vocabulary has not been mastered (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 139). Loschky and

Bley-Vroman (1993: 139) state that production tasks are usually restricted to task-naturalness and task-utility, while task-essentialness more likely occurs in comprehension tasks.

3.7 Language functions

According to Pozzi (2004) language functions refer to the purpose for which speech and writing is being used. In speech, for example, these would include tasks such as giving instructions, introducing ourselves, making requests, giving opinions, offering assistance, expressing desire etc. Pozzi (2004) argues that we use a range of specific functions in writing in order to communicate ideas clearly, for example describing processes, comparing or contrasting things or ideas and classifying objects or ideas.

Sometimes language functions appear naturally, while others are important in order for tasks to be completed successfully (see section 3.5 of task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness). A variety of language functions are identified in the communicative tasks in Chapters 4 and 5.

3.8 Conclusion

The descriptions of the various proficiency levels in terms of listening and speaking, provides the ability to create communicative tasks accordingly in order for the successful completion of tasks.

The discussion regarding the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993) provides the reader with knowledge concerning the different type tasks which might appear in various communicative tasks, in this case, the communicative tasks in Chapters four and five. It also provides the reader descriptions and explanations of each of these different task types. Furthermore, it contains discussion of the task requirements of each of these task types.

The discussion regarding Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, provides the reader knowledge concerning the cognitive complexity of tasks. The discussion concluded that tasks need to meet certain task demands in order for the successful completion thereof. Tasks can be scaled in terms of their complexity, i.e. it can either be decreased or increased. For optimal use of Task-based second language, it is

necessary to create simple tasks. Thereafter, the complexity of tasks can be increased in order to develop the cognitive complexity of second language learners.

The discussion concerning the analysis of spoken language, i.e. syntactic complexity, correlates with the cognitive complexity of communicative tasks. There are various speech units which determine the syntactic complexity of communicative tasks. Second language learners at an intermediate level will struggle at first. There will be the occurrence of self-corrections, repetitions and false starts. Once the demands of a particular task are reached, the syntactic complexity thereof can be increased. The accuracy and fluency of language production is important in task performance.

Furthermore, the discussion regarding task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness provide the concerning participants the ability to classify various language functions accordingly. It provides language learners the ability to distinguish the degree of importance of various language functions.

It can be concluded that it is important to know the abilities, i.e. cognitive and syntactic abilities, of a language performer. It is important to know what exactly each language performer can achieve. The successful development of grammar is important, as well as control of language use during task performance.

The theoretical perspectives of the different researchers presented in this chapter will be used in order to analyse the communicative tasks in Chapters four and five accordingly.

CHAPTER FOUR

AN ANALYSIS OF POLICE-PUBLIC COMMUNICATION TASKS

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to examine communicative tasks regarding police-public communication in isiXhosa in a specific domain. The aim is to determine the discourse structure of police-public communication and to explore these discourse structures in terms of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis (2005), i.e. cognitive complexity and in terms of syntactic complexity. Furthermore, the aim is to explore the communicative tasks in terms of the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993).

This chapter contains ten communicative tasks of police-public communication. These communicative tasks present interaction based on communication outside the classroom, i.e. communication in the 'real world'. A needs analysis was done in order to determine the needs and objectives of the police officials who communicate with the community. The discourse in these communicative tasks is written accordingly.

4.2 Discourse structure of police-public communication

Each of the dialogues on police-public communication can be divided into three distinct phases, i.e. the introductory phase, the questioning, and narrating phase and the closing phase. These three phases of the police-public communication tasks can be analysed in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

(i) Introductory phase

The introductory phase in police-public communication is characterised by greeting, asking about well being and offering assistance. This segment of dialogue typically occurs when the complainant arrives at the police station to report an incident. Normally the police official and the complainant will greet each other, the police official may ask how the complainant is doing and afterwards the police official will ask how the complainant can be helped. The communication during this phase comprises of sentences in the present tense.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

The questioning and narrating phase is characterised by asking (the police official) and giving (the complainant) personal details, asking (the police official) and explaining (complainant) and narrating and follow-up questioning (police official) about the incident. This phase typically occurs after the introductory phase and after the complainant has told the police official what he/ she wants to report. The narrative is always told using sentences in the past tense, because it refers to events that happened in the past. After the complainant explained exactly what happened at the crime scene, the police official asks further questions concerning the incident in order to obtain detailed information and clarity about the case.

(iii) Closing phase

The closing phase is characterised by greeting and expressing gratitude (giving thanks). The closing phase occurs after the police official has requested and obtained all aspects of the required information concerning the particular incident. Normally the complainant will thank the police official for his/ her time and for his/ her willingness in helping. The police official then tells the complainant what the next steps in the police response will be, be it a discussion with the rest of the station or going out to the scene immediately or requesting the complainant to write a declaration. The communication in this phase comprises of sentences in the present tense.

4.3 Analysis of police-public dialogues

Each of the ten communicative tasks is written in isiXhosa. English translations are provided. The analysis in terms of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis (2005) and the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993) is applied to the isiXhosa version of the communicative tasks. A dialogue is provided and after each dialogue, the analysis of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis (2005) and the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993) follows, respectively. Language functions are identified in each dialogue.

4.3.1 Dialogue 1

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, interaction takes place between two participants (police officer and complainant). The complainant comes into the office of the police official to report his/ her stolen laptop. The police official questions the complainant and asks him to tell exactly what happened regarding the crime incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Usebenza kwi-ofisi yamapolisa ujongene nezikhalazo zabahlali. Usemsebenzini ngeli xesha kungena umntu e-ofisini eze kumangala. Niyabulisana nincokole, ubuze ukuba ungamnceda ngantoni, umbuze iinkcukacha zakhe kwaye umbuze ukuba ingaba ukhona undonakele ukuze uncede. Umbuza imibuzo emva kokuba ekuxelele ngokwenzekileyo ukuze ucacelwe ngesiganeko.

You are working in the police office and you are responsible for the complaints of the community. You are on duty when a person comes into the police office to lay charge. The two of you are having a conversation. You greet each other. You ask the person how you may help, you ask him his personal details and you ask him to explain what happened. You ask him questions after he told you what happened so that you have clarity about the situation.

Jacques: Molo. (*Hello*) (1)

[greeting]

Colonel: Molo. Hlala phantsi. Ndiphe nje umzuzu ndiza kuba nawe. (Uxakekile emnxebeni) [*Hello. Have a seat. I'll be with you in a minute. (Busy on the phone)*]

[greeting] ; [invitation to sit down]

Jacques: Kulungile. (*Okay*) (5)

[accepting invitation]

Ugqibile ngencoko emnxebeni. (*Finished with the conversation over the phone.*)

- Colonel: Ndiyaxolisa ngoko. Unjani? (*Sorry about that. How are you?*)
[apologising] ; [asking well being]
- Jacques: Ndiphilile enkosi, ngaphandle nje kwengxaki endinayo. Unjani wena? (*I'm fine thank you, except for my problem. How are you doing?*)
[responding about well being] ; [asking well being]
- Colonel: Ndiphilile, enkosi (*I'm fine thank you*) (9)
[responding about well being]
- Jacques: Kwakuhle ukuva oko. (*That is good to hear.*)
[showing compassion]
- Colonel: Ndingakunceda ngantoni kanene? (*How can I help you?*) (11)
[offering assistance]
- Jacques: Ndifuna ukwenza uxwebhu malunga neleptophu yam ebiweyo. (*I want to make a statement about my laptop that was stolen.*) (13)
[expressing desire]
- Colonel: Kulungile. Ungubani igama nefani yakho? (*Okay. What is your name and surname?*) (15)
[accepting desire] ; [asking name and surname]
- Jacques: Igama lam ndinguJacques. Ifani yam nguDu Plessis. (*My name is Jacques. My surname is Du Plessis.*) (17)
[giving name and surname]
- Colonel: Ithini idilesi yakho? (*What is your address?*)
[asking address]
- Jacques: Idilesi yam ithi 27 Cook street. (*My address is 27 Cook street.*) (19)
[giving address]
- Colonel: Ingaba usengumfundi? (*Are you still a student?*)
[asking about studies]
- Jacques: Kunjalo. Ndingumfundi kwiYunivesithi yaseStellenbosch. (*Yes, I'm a student at the University of Stellenbosch.*)
[confirming studies]
- Colonel: Ithini inombolo yakho yomnxeba? (*What is your telephone number?*) (23)
[asking telephone number]
- Jacques: Inombolo yam yomnxeba ithi 084 355865. (*My telephone number is 084 3556 865.*) (25)
[giving telephone number]

- Colonel: Mingaphi iminyaka yakho? (*How old are you?*)
[asking age]
- Jacques: Ndinamashumi amabini anantathu. (*I am 23.*) (27)
[giving age]
- Colonel: Ungandixelela ukuba kwenzeka ntoni kanye-kanye? (*Can you please tell me exactly what happened?*) (29)
[asking about incident]
- Jacques: Ndibuye eStellenbosch ngentsimbi yesihlanu (17:00). Bekukho mna nodadewethu kuphela endlwini. Simke endlwini ngecala emva kweyesithandathu. Ngecala emva kweyethoba nditsalelwe umnxeba ngumhlobo wam endixelela ukuba baqhekezile egumbini lam bathatha iletophu yam. (*I came back to Stellenbosch at about 17:00. It was only my sister and I at the house. We left the house at 18:30. At 21:30 I received a call from my friend telling me that they broke into my room and they have taken my laptop.*)
[narrating incident]
- Colonel: Ingaba uhlala nodade wenu kuphela endlwini? (*Do only you and your sister stay in the house?*)
[asking about residence]
- Jacques: Hayi, sihlala kwindlu yabafundi. (*No, we live in a student house.*) (39)
[correcting information about residence]
- Colonel: Ingaba bangaphi abafundi abakule ndlu? (*How many students are in the house?*) (41)
[Asking amount of people]
- Jacques: Ngabafundi abasibhozo. (*There are eight students.*)
[giving amount of people]
- Colonel: Bekutheni ukuze nimke endlwini ngecala emva kwentsimbi yesibhozo? (*Why were you leaving the house at 18:30?*)
[asking reason]
- Jacques: Besisiya ecaweni. (*We were leaving for church.*) (45)
[giving reason]
- Colonel: Kucacile ukuba ukho lo mntu obe yijongile le ndlu. Anikhange nibone kwanto okanye nirhanele mntu phaya ngaphandle? (*It is obvious that someone was watching the house. Did you see anything or anyone suspicious outside your*

- house?) (49)
[making suggestion] ; [asking observation]
- Jacques: Hayi, asibonanga kwanto. (*No, we saw nothing.*)
[confirming observation]
- Colonel: Umhlobo wakho ufike ngabani ixesha endlwini? (*At what time did your friend arrive at the house?*)
[asking time]
- Jacques: Ufike ngecala emva kwentsimbi yesibhozo; kodwa akakhange aqaphele nyawo lwamfene esafika endlwini. Ngexesha aqaphele ngalo ukuba ikhona into engalunganga; ibilicala emva kweyethoba. (*He arrived at 20:30, but he didn't note anything suspicious immediately when he came home. By the time he realised that something wasn't right, it was 21:30.*) (57)
[narrating information about time]
- Colonel: Ubuphi ngeli xesha anitsalela umnxeba? (*Where were you when he called you?*) (59)
[asking place]
- Jacques: Bendikwindabano yeembaleki. Liqela elinceda uluntu ngeenkonzo ezithile. (*I was at an athletics meeting. It is an outreach group.*) (61)
[giving place]
- Colonel: Ingaba ebengowokuqala ukufika emva kokuba umkile? (*Was he the first to arrive after you left?*) (63)
[asking about arrival]
- Jacques: Hayi, intombazana efike kuqala ifike ngentsimbi yesixhenxe. (*No, the first girl arrived at 19:00.*) (65)
[correcting information about arrival]
- Colonel: Naye akaqaphelanga kwanto? (*And she hasn't noticed anything?*)
[asking about observation]
- Jacques: Hayi. Igumbi lakhe likwelinye icala lendlu. (*No. Her room is on the other side of the house.*)
[confirming observation]
- Colonel: Bangene njani? (*How did they come in?*) (69)
[asking about manner]
- Jacques: Baqhekeze ifestile yegumbi lokuhlambela baze baqhekeza ucango lwegumbi lam lokulala. (*They broke through the bathroom window and then they broke*

through my bedroom door.)

[describing manner]

Colonel: Ndirhanela ukuba kuqhekezwe phakathi kwela xesha nimkileyo neli lokufika kwentombi. (*My guess is that the burglary took place between the time that you left and the time the girl came in.*) (75)

[making suggestion]

Jacques: Ewe (*Yes*)

[agreeing on about suggestion]

Colonel: Ingaba bathathe ileptophu kuphela? (*Did they only take your laptop?*)

[asking information]

Jacques: Ewe, ibiyinxowa yam eneleptophu kunye neencwadi. Ayikho enye into ethathiweyo egumbini lam. (*Yes, it was my bag with my laptop and textbooks in. Nothing else in my room is taken.*)

[confirming information]

Colonel: Ucinga ukuba ingangumntu omaziyo? (*Do you think it could be someone you know?*)

[asking opinion]

Jacques: Andiyazi. Andiyazi eyona nto mendiyinge. (*I don't know. I don't know what to think.*)

[expressing uncertainty]

Colonel: Isenokuba ngumntu omaziyo okanye ngabanye boontamnani beeleptophu. (*It can either be someone you know or it is one of the laptop syndicates.*)

[making suggestion]

Jacques: Ewe (*Yes*)

[agreeing about suggestion]

Colonel: Ingaba ileptophu yakho ikhuselwe nge-inshorensi? (*Is your laptop insured?*)

[asking about insurance]

Jacques: Hayi, Sisithuba nje senyanga ndinayo. (*No, I only had it for a month now.*)

[confirming that it is not assured]

Colonel: Kuphelele okwangoku. Ndiyabulela. (*This is all for now. Thank you.*)

[expressing satisfaction]

Jacques: Ndiyabulela ngexesha lakho. (*Thank you for your time.*) (92)

[expressing gratefulness]

- Colonel: Kulungile. Ndiza kukwazisa ukuba ikhona into esiyifumeneyo. (*It is a pleasure. I will let you know if I find something.*)
[offering assistance]
- Jacques: Ndiyabulela kakhulu. Usale kakuhle. (*Thank you very much. Stay well.*)
[greeting]
- Colonel: Hamba kakuhle. (*Go well.*) (96)
[greeting]

4.3.1.1 Task Complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-11 form part of the introductory phase. These sentences can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant in lines 1-11 takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because it contains the task of greeting, asking about well being and the offering of assistance. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the complainant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of

Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

In this segment, lines 1 and 5 are examples of simple, one word sentences, i.e. mono-clausal sentences. The rest of the lines contain simple clauses. In line 11 **-nga-** is the potential particle of the word **Ndingakunceda**.

Ndiphe nje umzuzu ndiza kuba nawe is an example of a sentence with two clauses, with the first clause in the indicative future tense and the second clause in the indicative present tense. These two clauses are independent clauses and therefore form a compound sentence. **Ndiphilile enkosi, ngaphandle nje kwengxaki endinayo** is an example of a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause, i.e. **Ndiphilile enkosi** and a dependent clause, i.e. **ngaphandle nje kwengxaki endinayo**. These sentences have a higher level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 12-90 form part of this phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police official asks questions about happenings in the past and the complainant explains and narrates the incident which happened in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] dimension. The complainant is also required to give his personal details. This communication takes place in the present tense, thereby representing the [+ here-and-now] dimension. The police official and the complainant do not reason about the incident, thus representing the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the feature of [-

few elements], because a considerable amount of information is given when narrating and answering questions about the incident. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

Furthermore, this segment illustrates a low level of performative complexity. The complainant has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when he explains the incident. The police official requires the personal details of the complainant, he asks to narrate the incident and further questions are asked concerning the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] dimension. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. **Andiyazi** and **kululonwabo** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 14-20, 23-29, 38-42, 45, 50, 60-61, 64-69, 76-84 and 88-90 contain simple sentences. In the sentence **Ndibuye eStellenbosch ngentsimbi yesihlanu, eStellenbosch** is an adverb of place.

Lines 21-22, 53-57, 70-72 are examples of compound sentences, because the sentences in these lines contain at least two independent clauses. **Ndingumfundi** and **kwiYunivesithi yaseStellenbosch** are the two independent clauses of the sentence in line 21-22. **Baqhekeze ifestile yegumbi lokuhlambela balandela** and **ngokuqhekeza ucango lwegumbi lam lokulala** are the two independent clauses of the sentence in lines 70-72. Lines 70-72 is an example of a subjunctive clause, because it is the succession of actions (and then). Lines 12-13 is an example of a complex sentence, because it contains one dependent clause and one independent clause. The sentence **Ngecala emva kweyethoba nditsalelwe umnxeba ngumhlobo wam endixelesa ukuba baqhekezile egumbini lam bathatha ileptophu yam** illustrates a complex sentence, because it contains three dependent clauses. Lines 32-33 contain an example of a compound-complex sentence, because it has two independent clauses and one dependent clause. **Ngecala emva kweyethoba nditsalelwe umnxeba ngumhlobo**

wam and **baqhekezile egumbini lam** and **bathatha ileptophu yam** are the independent clauses, while **endixelesa ukuba** is the dependent clause in this sentence. **Ingaba ebengowokuqala ukufika emva kokuba umkile** is a complex sentence, because it consists of an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. The independent clause is **Ingaba ebengowokuqala ukufika** and the dependent clause is **emva kokuba umkile**. These sentences consist of a high level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 91-96 represent the Closing Phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant in this segment takes place in the present tense. Therefore it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature along the resource-directing dimension. This segment entails no causal reasoning [+ no reasoning] and there are no spatial referential expressions [+ few elements]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment gratitude is being expressed (lines 92, 95) and greeting takes place. There is thus more than one task that is being carried out [- single task]. Neither the police official nor the complainant needs to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. Furthermore, no planning is needed during this phase [- planning]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Usale kakuhle** and **Hamba kakuhle** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks.

In line 93, **Ndiza kukwazisa ukuba ikhona into esiyifumeneyo** is an example of a compound sentence, because it contains two independent clauses. These clauses are **Ndiza kukwazisa** and **ukuba ikhona into esiyifumeneyo** respectively. **Ndiza kukwazisa** is in the indicative future tense. This sentence illustrates a high level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.1.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (complainant) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official), but which is needed in order to complete the task, i.e. to get all of the information concerning the incident in order to determine who the suspects might be.

The task entails a two-way flow of information. One participant Y (police official) requests the information, while the other participant X (complainant) supplies the information. This corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police official and complainant) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. to supply and get as much information as possible about the laptop that was stolen and a single outcome, i.e. to determine who the suspects might be and to eventually catch the suspects. This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and single outcome (1) of the task.

Lines 81-88 are an example of an opinion-giving task. The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, thus corresponding to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task. The police official gives an opinion about who the suspects might be and the complainant agrees with the opinion, i.e. that it can either be someone familiar to the complainant or a laptop syndicate. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue the police official is dominating by forming his opinion. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-). In this dialogue the participants (police official and complainant) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to determine who the suspects are and to eventually catch the suspects. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

Lines 73-76 are also an example of an opinion-giving task. The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, thus corresponding to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

The police official gives an opinion about the possible time that the burglary took place and the complainant is agreeing with the opinion. In this opinion-exchange task interaction is required (+). There is one outcome option (1), because in line 76 there are an agreement on the opinion that is given.

4.3.2 Dialogue 2

In this dialogue, language is used that is based on language use outside the classroom. Therefore, this language can be used to meet the demands of real-world target tasks. The communication takes place between two participants (the police official and the interviewer). They are having an interview about the robbery and hi-jacking that took place. The interviewer requests the police official to narrate the incident. Furthermore, the interviewer

asks the police official questions concerning the case in order to obtain clarity and to eventually publish the story in the paper.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Usebenza kwii-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicala lezonxibelelwano. Bekukho uphango ngzixhobo, ukuxhwilwa kwemoto nengozi yemoto. Uxoxa noonondaba. Kufuneka ubaxelele ukuba konke oku kwenzeke phi, kwenzeke nini kwaye kwenzeke ntoni kanye-kanye. Ukwabuzwa ukuba bangaphi na ababebandakanyeka kwesi senzo nokuba amapolisa noluntu benze ntoni na ukuzama ukubamba abarhanelwa.

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the communication department. There was an armed robbery, hi-jacking and eventually a car accident. You are having an interview with the media. You have to tell the media where everything happened, when and exactly what happened. You are also asked how many were part of the whole thing and everything that the police and the members of the community did to catch the suspects.

Malani: Ndibulisile. NdinguMalani Venter kwaye Ndisuka kwaMediya 24. Ndingathanda ukubuza imibuzo embalwa malunga nophango olwenzeke apha ngoLwesine. *(Good afternoon. I am Malani Venter from Media 24. I would like to ask you a few questions on behalf of the case with the armed robbery that took place on Thursday.)* (5)

[greeting] ; [introducing] ; [expressing desire]

Captain: Ewe, molo. Kulungile. *(Good afternoon. That is fine.)*

[greeting] ; [accepting desire]

Malani: Kuphi kanye-kanye apho yehle khona le nto? *(Where exactly did this happen?)* (8)

[asking place]

Captain: Yenzeke eKlapmuts kwifama iKlein Joostenberg ecaleni kwendlela iR304. *(It happened at Klapmuts on Klein Joostenberg farm next to the R304.)*

[giving place]

Malani: Yenzeke ngabani ixesha? *(What time did it happen?)* (11)

[asking time of incident]

- Captain: Yenzeke ngo-12:45. (*It happened at about 12:45.*)
[giving time]
- Malani: Bebebangaphi ebebelapho? (*How many of them were there?*) (13)
[asking amount of people]
- Captain: Bekukho amadoda amathathu. (*There were three men.*)
[giving amount of people]
- Malani: Yintoni kanye eyenzekileyo? (*What exactly happened?*) (15)
[asking narration]
- Captain: Amadoda amathathu ambonzeleka kwi-ofisi enamakhosikazi ali-11. Amabini kula madoda ebexhobile. Akhombe unobhala ngezo zixhobo. Kwathathwa iimfonomfono ezimbini zala makhosikazi. Bathe besekule ofisi, babona inqwelo yamapolisa asePere engena kwesi sakhiwo. (*Three men stormed in an office where there were 11 women. Two of the men were armed. They aimed a weapon at the secretary. Two women's cell phones were taken. While they were in the office, they saw a police van of Paarl entering the plot.*) (22)
[narrating incident]
- Malani: Kwaze kwenzeka ntoni ke ngoku? (*What happened then?*)
[asking narration]
- Captain: Baxhalaba kwaye babaleka ukusuka e-ofisini. Babalekela kwindawo yokupakisha iimoto. (*They got restless and they flee from the office. They ran to the parking area.*)
[describing happenings]
- Malani: Benza ntoni ngelixa ekufikeni kwabo kule ndawo kumiswe kuyo iimoto? (*What did they do once they reached the parking area?*) (27)
[asking performance]
- Captain: Bazama ukohlutha iMercedes-Benz ebikule ndawo kumiswa kuyo iimoto. Waze umqhubi wemoto waziphosela ngaphandle kwefestile izitshixo zakhe. (*The tried to hi-jack a Mercedes-Benz that was in the parking area. The person in the car threw the car keys out the window.*) (31)
[describing happenings]
- Malani: Yenza ntoni indoda ekubeni ilahle izitshixo zemoto ngaphandle. (*What did the men do when he threw the car keys out?*) (33)
[asking reaction]

- Captain: Bayishiya indoda yodwa kwaye bathatha iToyota. (*They left the man alone and took a Toyota.*) (35)
[explaining reaction]
- Malani: Wazi njani ngolu phango? (*How did you know about the hi-jacking?*)
[asking way of knowing]
- Captain: Abahlali bengingqi bazise abaphathi bamapolisa ababekwiimoto zamapolisa baze bawalandela kwangoko amadoda amathathu. (*Members of the community informed the police officers in the police cars and they immediately followed the three men.*) (40)
[explaining happenings]
- Malani: Kukho amarhe okuba amapolisa afumene ingozi encinci. (*There is a rumour that the police had a small accident.*) (42)
[request confirmation]
- Captain: Ewe. Kufutshane nendlela yohlalutye iSandringham imoto yamapolisa yangqubeka kwiFord emhlophe eyayibekwe ecaleni kwendlela. (*Yes. Near the Sandringham gravel road the police car bumped into a white Ford which was parked next to the road.*) (46)
[giving confirmation] ; [explaining incident]
- Malani: Kwenzeka ntoni ke ngoku? (*What happened then?*)
[asking about incident]
- Captain: Emveni kwale ngozi, kwasukelwana kangangezinye iikhilometha ezi-5 bade abarhanelwa bayiqengqa le moto babe hamba ngayo. Amadoda amabini kulawo atsibela ngaphandle kwemoto aze acela kwabasicatyana. (*After this accident, the chasing went on for another 5 kilometres until the suspects threw their car over. Two of the men jumped out of the car and ran away.*) (52)
[explaining incident]
- Malani: Lo wesithathu yena? (*And the third man?*)
[asking information about a person]
- Captain: Indoda yesithathu ibisasele emotweni kwaye yabanjelwa kuloo ndawo yentlekele. (*The third man was still in the car and was arrested on the scene.*)
[giving information about a person]
- Malani: Ukwazile ukubamba aba babini? (*Did you manage to catch the other two?*)
[asking ability]

- Captain: Omnye wabo ufunyenwe mva kufutshane nentsimi. (*One of them was found later at a nearby field.*) (58)
[confirming ability]
- Malani: Uzifumene zonke izinto ebezibiwe? (*Did you get the stolen things back?*)
[asking about stolen things]
- Captain: Ewe. Izixhobo ezibini neeselula-fowuni zifumaneke kule ndawo yentlekele. (*Yes. Two weapons and three cell phones were found on the scene.*) (61)
[giving confirmation/ information]
- Malani: Andiyazi nokuba kunjalo kusini na, kodwa ndive nokuba iFord emhlophe iyabandakanyeka kuyo yonke le nto. (*I don't know whether I am correct, but I heard something about the fact that the white Ford had something to do with this whole thing.*) (65)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Captain: Ewe, imoto emhlophe angqubeke kuyo la mapolisa, ibisetyenziselwe ukothula abarhanelwa. Umqhubi wayo wabanjwa naye. (*Yes, the white car the police drove into was used to drop the suspects. The driver was also arrested.*) (68)
[giving certainty] ; [information about driver]
- Malani: Kuphelele ke apha, okanye kukho okunye onokuza nako. (*Is this everything, or is there more information?*) (70)
[asking for certainty]
- Captain: Ewe, kukho nokunye. Owesine umrhanelwa ubanjwe izolo kusasa kummandla waseBloekombos eKraaifontein. (*Yes, there is more. A fourth suspect was caught yesterday morning in the area of Bloekombos at kraaifontein.*) (74)
[giving information about suspect]
- Malani: Ingaba aba barhanelwa bane baza kuvela enkundleni? (*Will these four suspects appear in court?*) (76)
[asking about suspects]
- Captain: Ewe, ityala labo lingoMvulo kwinkundla kaMantyi ePere. (*Yes, their case is on Monday in Paarl magistrate's court.*) (78)
[giving time and place]
- Malani: Enkosi ngexesha lakho. (*Thank you for your time.*)
[giving praise]
- Captain: Wamkelekile (*You're welcome*) (80)
[showing acceptance]

Malani: Usale kakuhle (*Stay well*)
 [greeting]
 Captain: Uhambe kakuhle (*Go well*) (82)
 [greeting]

4.3.2.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-6 form part of the introductory phase of this task. The two participants (police official and interviewer) greet each other and the interviewer introduces herself. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The greeting and introduction between the two participants take place in the present tense. This represents the [+ here-and-now] feature along the resource-directing dimension. There is no reasoning between these two participants (police official and interviewer), because they are only greeting each other and introducing themselves; thus representing the [+ no reasoning] feature. Furthermore, it represents the [- few elements] feature in that *ngoLwesine* is an example of a temporal expression. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment, greeting takes place, the interviewer is introducing herself and she is expressing her desire, i.e. to ask a few questions concerning the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. There is no need for either of the participants (police official or interviewer) to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge], because they are only greeting each other. No planning [- planning] is necessary either, since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 in

Cahper three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment contains sentences consisting of simple clauses, as well as two compound sentences. The first compound sentence is **NdinguMalani Venter kwaye ndisuka kwaMediya 24**. **NdinguMalani Venter** and **Ndisuka kwaMediya 24** are the two independent clauses of this compound sentence. The second compound sentence is **Ndingathanda ukubuza imibuzo embalwa malunga ngeli tyala lophango lehle ngoLwesine**. In this sentence, **Ndingathanda ukubuza imibuzo embalwa** and **ngeli tyala lehle ngoLwesine** are the two independent clauses. Each of these independent sentences is in the indicative present tense, except **ngeli tyala lehle ngoLwesine** which is in the past tense. In this sentence, **ngoLwesine** illustrate an adverb of time. These two compound sentences have a high level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 7-78 represent the questioning and narrating phase. The interviewer asks questions about the incident and the police official is requested by the interviewer to narrate the incident. This segment can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interviewer asks questions about events in the past and the police official explains and narrates the incident that happened in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. The police official and the interviewer are not reasoning about the incident; they are only asking (interviewer) and answering (police official) questions. It thus represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when narrating and answering (police official) questions about the incident and **yaseBloekombos eKraaifontein, kusasa** and

eKlapmuts kwifama iKlein Joostenberg illustrate spatial referential expressions. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when he narrates the incident. The interviewer is only asking questions concerning the incident. Therefore, it represents the [+ single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The interviewer does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences which are syntactically complex. **Yenzeke eKlapmuts kwifama iKlein Joostenberg cebu kuhle ku-R304** is an example of a compound sentence with **Yenzeke eKlapmuts** and **kwifama iKlein Joostenberg** and **cebu kuhle ku-R304** as the independent clauses of this particular sentence. These two independent clauses are in the past tense. **eKlapmuts kwifama iKlein Joostenberg** illustrate an adverb of place. **Amadoda amathathu ambonzeleka kwi-ofisi apho bekukho amakhosikazi ali-11** also illustrates a compound sentence with **Amadoda amathathu ambonzeleka kwi ofisi** and **apho bekukho amakhosikazi ali-11** as the two independent clauses of this sentence. Another example of a compound sentence is **Baxhalaba kwaye babaleka ukusuka e-ofisini**. The two independent clauses in this sentence is **Baxhalaba kwaye** and **babaleka ukusuka e-ofisini**. **Bazama ukuphanga iMercedes-Benz ibikwindawo ekupakishwa kuyo iimoto** is a compound sentence with **Bazama ukohlutha iMercedes-Benz** which is in the past tense and **ilapho kwindawo ekumiswa kuyo iimoto** which is in the indicative present tense. **Bayishiya indoda yodwa kwaye bathatha iToyota Corolla** can also be seen as a compound sentence. **Bayishiya indoda yodwa kwaye** and **bathatha iToyota Corolla** are the two independent clauses. **Kuphelele apha, okanye kukho okunye ofuna ukuza nako?** is a further example

of a compound sentence, because it consists of two independent clauses. **Kuphelele apha** and **kukho okunye oza kuza nako** are the two independent clauses of this compound sentence.

Abahlali bengingqi bazise abaphathi bamapolisa ababekwiimoto zamapolisa baze bawalandela kwangoko amadoda amathathu is an example of a compound-complex sentence. **Abahlali bengingqi bazise abaphathi bamapolisa** and **baze bawalandela kwangoko amadoda amathathu** are the two independent clauses, while **kwimoto zamapolisa** is the dependent clause of this sentence. Another example of a compound-complex sentence is **Andiyazi nokuba kunjalo kusini na, kodwa ndive nokuba iFord emhlophe iyabandakanyeka kuyo yonke le nto**. **Andiyazi nokuba kunjalo kusini na** and **iFord emhlophe inento yokwenza kuyo yonke le nto** are the two independent clauses, while **kodwa ndive into ngenyani ukuba** is the dependent clause. **Andiyazi nokuba ndinyanisile** is in the indicative present tense and **iFord emhlophe iyabandakanyeka kuyo yonke le nto** is in the past tense. In this sentence **kodwa** is the conjunction.

Kufutshane nendlela yohlalutye iSandringham imoto yamapolisa yangqubeka kwiFord emhlophe eyayibekwe ecaleni kwendlela is an example of a complex sentence with **Kufutshane nendlela yohlalutye iSandringham imoto yamapolisa yangqubeka kwiFord emhlophe** as the independent clause and **eyayibekwe ecaleni kwendlela** as the dependent clause. Another example of a complex sentence is **Emveni kwale ngozi, kwasukelwana kangangezinye iikhilometha ezi-5 bade abarhanelwa bayiqengqa le moto babe hamba ngayo**. **Amadoda amabini kulawo atsibela ngaphandle kwemoto aze acela kwabasicatyana**. **Emveni kwale ngozi, kwasukelwana kangangezinye iikhilometha ezi-5**. **Emveni kwale ngozi** is the dependent clause and **kwasukelwana kangangezinye iikhilometha ezi-** is the independent clause in this sentence. The independent clause is in the past tense.

Lines 7-8, 11-15, 23, 36, 47, 54, 59 contain simple sentences and therefore illustrate a low level of syntactic complexity. In the sentence **Owesine umrhanelwa ubanjwe izolo kusasa kummandla waseBloekombos eKraaifontein, kusasa** illustrate an adverb of time, while **waseBloekombos eKraaifontein** illustrate an adverb of place.

Hence the fact that this segment consists of predominantly compound, complex and compound-complex sentences, it illustrate a high level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 79-82 form part of the closing phase. The interviewer thanks the police official for his time and the police official and interviewer greets each other. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant in this segment takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature along the resource-directing dimension. This segment entails no causal reasoning [+ no reasoning] and there is not a considerable amount of information that is given [+ few elements]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment gratefulness is being expressed (lines 79) and greeting takes place. There is thus more than one task that is being carried out [- single task]. Neither the police official nor the interviewer needs to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. Furthermore, no planning is needed during this phase [- planning]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic Componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Wamkelekile** and **Usale kakuhle** and **Uhambe kakuhle** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks.

Because of the property that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.2.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (police official) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (interviewer), but which is needed in order to complete the task, i.e. to write an article about the incident for the paper to be published.

The task entails a two-way flow of information. One participant Y (interviewer) requests the information, while the other participant X (police official) supplies the information. This corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police official and interviewer) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. to supply and get as much information as possible and a single outcome, i.e. to publish the incident in the paper. This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

4.3.3 Dialogue 3

Dialogue 3 is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. Communication takes place between two participants (police official and culprit). The police official asks the culprit questions in order to obtain clarity concerning the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Amapolisakazi amathathu enze ubuqhophololo nge-imeyili enobuso bukaJacob Zuma nobukaMnu uJulius Malema, baza bayigqithisela kubanye abantu. Buza ke omnye wabafazi abangamapolisa ukuba ngubani na oyenzileyo le nto, nokuba ingaba i-imeyili yokuqala ibinjani na. Mcele kananjalo ukuba acacise indlela abayiguqule ngayo, nokuba bayibiza ngokuba yintoni na ngoku. Mbuze ukuba ngoobani na abanye abafazi ababini. Mxelele ukuba unqunyanyisiwe emsebenzini.

Three police women manipulated an email with the faces of Jacob Zuma and Mr Julius Malema and forwarded it. You question one of the women. You ask her who did it and how the original email looked. You also ask her to explain how they've changed it and what they named it now. You ask her who the other two women are. You tell her that she is suspended.

U Colonel uncina omnye wala mabhinqa. (Colonel is questioning one of the three women.)

Colonel: Ndicela uhlale phantsi. *(Please sit down.)* (1)

[invitation to sit down]

Uhlala phantsi uMary. UColonel ubeka iphepha le-imeyile phezu kwetafile, phambi koMary. (Mary sits down. Colonel puts a hard copy of the email down on the table in front of her.)

Colonel: Uqhelekile lo mfanekiso? *(Looks familiar?)*

[asking familiarity]

uMary ukhangeleka enetyala. (Mary looks very guilty.)

Mary: Kuqhelekile oku Mnumzama. *(Yes Sir.)* (3)

[confirming familiarity]

Colonel: Lilonke uyavuma ukuba wawukhe wakubona ngaphambili? *(So, you admit that you've seen it before?)* (5)

[asking admission]

Mary: Ewe *(Yes)*

[confirming familiarity]

Colonel: Yenziwe nguwe le nto. *(Did you do this?)* (7)

[asking who did it]

Mary: Hayi, yenziwe ngabahlobo bam. Mna ndikuthumele nje. *(No, my friends did it. I just forwarded it.)* (9)

[confirming who done it]

Colonel: Bekutheni? *(Why?)*

[asking reason]

Mary: Kuba bendicinga ukuba iyahlekisa. *(Because I thought it was funny?)* (11)

[giving reason]

- Colonel: Ubucinga ukuba iyahlekisa?! (*You thought it was funny?!*)
[expressing surprise]
- Mary: Ewe (*Yes*) (13)
[confirming joke]
- Colonel: Xa unokunqunyanyiswa ungacinga ukuba yinto ehlekisayo leyo? (*Will you think it is funny if you get suspended?*) (15)
[asking opinion]
- Mary: Hayi Mnumzana. (*No Sir.*)
[admitting no joke]
- Colonel: Ibinjani inkangeleko ye-imeyile engundoqo? (*How did the original email look?*) (17)
[asking for description]
- Mary: Undoqo wephosta ebenobuso buka-Will Smith ebambe umpu ngesandla noMartin Lawrence efulathele umlilo omkhulu kwelinye icala. (*The original poster had the face of Will Smith with a gun in his hand and Martin Lawrence against the background of a huge fire. The shower head in Zuma's hand was a gun in Smith's hand.*)
[giving description]
- Colonel: Abaya bakwi-Bad Boys II akunjalo. ? (*It is the guys from Bad Boys II. Am I right?*)
[asking for confirmation]
- Mary: Ewe (*Yes*)
[giving confirmation]
- Colonel: Ngoobani kanye kanye abakulo mfanekiso ngoku? (*Who is who on the poster now?*)
[asking details about faces]
- Mary: USmith ufakwe ubuso bukaZuma ukuze yena uMartin afakwe obukaMalema. (*Zuma's face is in the place of Smith's face and Malema's face is in the place of Lawrence's face.*) (29)
[giving information about faces]
- Colonel: Ndiyabona ukuba niye natshintsha negama lefilimu. (*I see that you've changed the name of the film.*)
[stating the changes]

Mary: Ewe. Sathi ngu-Bad Boys III. (*Yes. We've changed it to Bad Boys III.*)
[confirming the changes]

Colonel: Uthe ngoobani kanene aba ubusebenza nabo? (*Who are the other two that are part of this?*) (33)
[asking about other persons]

Mary: Abanye ababini ngomabhalana kwisikhululo samapolisa eWoodstock. (*The other two are clerks at Woodstock police station.*) (35)
[giving other two persons]

Colonel: Benicinga ntoni? Ayinasidima le nto niyenzileyo! Iga, a lethu nilityabeka kakubi mpela! (*What were you thinking? It is unprofessional! You are placing our name in a bad position!*)
[expressing anger and disgust]

Mary: Ndiyaxolisa Mnumzana. (*Sorry Sir.*) (39)
[showing sorry]

Colonel: Uyaxolisa?! Uxolo alusangeni ndawo ngoku. Bekumele ukuba uyicinge kwangaphambili loo nto. (*Sorry?! It's too late to be sorry now. You should have thought about that earlier.*)
[expressing anger]

Mary: Ewe Mnumzana (*Yes Sir.*) (43)
[agreeing with statement]

Colonel: Unqunyanyisiwe emsebenzini ude waziswe. (*You are suspended till further notice.*) (45)
[suspending personnel]

Mary: Intoni? Kodwa Mnumzana.... (*What? But Sir. . .*)
[desire to argue]

Colonel: Lo mba ndiseza kuwuxoxa nesikhululo siphela. (*I will discuss this situation with the rest of the station.*)
[expressing desire]

Mary: Kodwa Mnumzana.... (*But Sir. . .*) (49)
[desire to argue]

Colonel: Akukho nto imbi endifuna ukuyiva. Sigqibile. (*I don't want to hear anything further. We are done here.*) (51)
[expressing anger]

Uyaphuma uColonel. (Colonel leaves the room.)

4.3.3.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

In this particular dialogue there is not really an introduction. The police official and the culprit do not greet each other. Therefore, Line one can be seen as the introductory phase where the police official requests the culprit to sit down when he/ she enters his/ her office.

Cognitive complexity:

The request of the police official in this line is in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature along the resource-directing dimension. There is no reasoning [+ no reasoning], because only the police official is giving a demand. No information is given and there are no referential expressions. Therefore, it represents the [+ few elements] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase illustrates an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official only gives a demand to the culprit. Therefore, it represents the [+ single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning [- planning] and the police official does not have to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

The sentence in this segment is a simple sentence. **Uhlale phantsi** is an example of a sentence that is learnt as a holistic chunk.

The sentence in this segment is an example of a simple sentence. Therefore, this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 2-35 form part of this phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police official asks questions concerning events in the past, while the culprit explains the incident which happened in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ there-and-then] feature along the resource-directing dimension. Lines 2-6, 23-29 and 32-35 consist of communication between the police official and the culprit which are in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. In lines 11-16 and 36-39 the police official and culprit reason about the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- no reasoning] feature. A considerable amount of information is given by the culprit concerning the incident and therefore it represents the [- few elements] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level segment of developmental complexity.

The culprit has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when he/ she explains the incident. The police official reasons about the incident and questions are asked concerning the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment [- planning]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category four according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and high developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. Lines 6, 10, 13 and 24 are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 4-5, 7, 8-9, 11-12, 14-15, 17, 23, 25-26 and 30-31 contain simple sentences. **Uyithumelela ni** is an example of a mono-clausal question.

Kuba bendicinga ukuba iyahlekisa is an example of a complex sentence. **Iyahlekisa** is the independent clause and **Kuba bendicinga ukuba** is the dependent clause of this sentence. **USmith ufakwe ubuso bukaZuma ukuze yena uMartin afakwe obukaMalema** is an example of a compound sentence with **USmith ufakwe ubuso bukaZuma ukuze yena** and **uMartin afakwe obukaMalema** as the two independent clauses. These two independent clauses are in the indicative present tense. This complex sentence and compound sentence consist of a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 36-51 form part of the closing phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the culprit in this segment takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] dimension along the resource-directing dimension. This segment entails causal reasoning between the police official and the culprit [+ no reasoning]. There are not a considerable amount of information that is given [+ few elements]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official does not have to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. The police official takes further steps by suspending the culprit and the police official states that he/ she will discuss the situation with the rest of the station. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. There is no planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential

framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

Unqunyanyisiwe emsebenzini ude waziswe is an example of a complex sentence. **Unqunyanyisiwe emsebenzini** is the independent clause and **ude waziswe** is the dependent clause. Both the independent clause and the dependent clause are in the indicative present tense. This complex sentence has a high level of syntactic complexity. **Uyaxolisa** is an example of a mono-clausal sentence.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.3.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. Only one of the participants (culprit) holds all of the information. According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach a convergent goal and a single outcome (1) of the task. The goal is to get all of the information concerning the manipulation of the poster. The outcome is to punish all of the concerning culprits. The police official requires information from the culprit in order to determine what exactly happened. The task entails a two-way flow of information. Although only one interactant (culprit) holds all the information, the other interactant (police official) mostly requests information in order to receive all the information.

According to Table 3-1 this dialogue illustrates (A) interactional activity. In this category, it is an example of 1.a. The interactant relationship of request and suppliance activities is based on which interactants hold, request or supply information directed toward task interaction and outcomes. One interactant (culprit) holds all information and supplies it as other (police official) request it.

The task also meets descriptions of 3b and 4b in Table 3-1. The interactants (police official and culprit) have divergent goals. The police official wants to get all of the information in

order to give a punishment. The culprit, although she gives all the information, does not really want to give everything, because she does not want to be punished. More than one outcome is possible. The culprits can be suspended or not. If they are suspended it can be for a short time or a long time. In this case the culprit is suspended until further notice.

4.3.4 Dialogue 4

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, interaction takes place between two participants (police official and applicant). The applicant enters the office of the police official and asks to apply for a course. The applicant asks the police official questions concerning the course, while the police official asks the applicant questions concerning his/ her previous records of study, as well as medical conditions.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Usebenza kwi-ofisi yoLawulo lweMicimbi yoLuntu. Kukho umntu ongena e-ofisini yakho efuna ukungenela uqeqesho lobupolisa. Umcacisele ukuba uqeqesho lude kangakanani na kwaye kuza kwenzeka ntoni ngekota nganye. Umcacisele ngako konke abaza kukufumana kuquka nombala wemali. Emva koko umbuze imibuzo embalwa. Umbuza ngempilo, ukuba wakhe wafunyanwa enetyala kusini na, iilwimi akwaziyo ukuzithetha kwanezinga lemfundo eliphezulu aliphumeleleyo. Umnika ifomu yokwenza isicelo ukuze ayigcwalise.

You are working in the Human Resource Management office. A person comes into your office and wants to apply for police training. You explain how long the training is and what they will do in each semester. You explain everything they will receive, as well as the money situation. Further, you ask her a few questions. You ask her about her health, criminal record, the languages that she can speak and her highest qualification. You give her an application form to complete.

Use-ofisini yakho. Kunkqonkqoza umntu emnyango. (You are in your office. Someone knocks on your door.)

Captain: Ngaphakathi! (*Come in!*) (1)
[invitation to enter]

Intombazana iyangena. (The girl enters.)

Susan: Molo (*Hello*)
[greeting]

Captain: Molo. Wamkelekile. Ungahlala phantsi. (*Hello. You are welcome. Please have a seat.*)
[greeting] ; [invitation to sit down]

Susan: Enkosi. (*Thank you.*) (5)
[accepting invitation]

Captain: Ndingakwenzela ntoni? (*What can I do for you?*)
[offering assistance]

Susan: Ndifuna ukwenza isicelo soQeqesho lobuPolisa olusiSiseko. (*I want to apply for Basic Police Training.*)
[expressing desire]

Captain: Kulungile. Unolwazi ngendlela ehamba ngayo le nkqubo? (*Okay. Do you know how it works exactly?*)
[accepting desire] ; [offering assistance]

Susan: Hayi, ndinofifi, kodwa andiqinisekanga. (*No, I have an idea, but I'm not sure.*)
[expressing uncertainty]

Captain: Yiza ndikucacisele. (*Let me explain to you.*) (13)
[offering assistance]

Susan: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)
[accepting assistance]

Captain: Yinkqubo yeminyaka emibini. Isiqingatha sokuqala sonyaka sisusela kuJulayi ukuya kuDisemba. Isiqingatha sesibini sonyaka sisusela kuJanuwari ukuya kuJuni. Unyaka wesibini wona lixesha elingangeenyanga ezilishumi elinambini. (*It is a two year program. The first semester of the first year is from July till December. The second semester is from January till June. The second year is a twelve month period.*)
[explaining program]

Susan: Senza ntoni kwisiqingatha ngasinye? (*What do we do in each semester?*) (21)
[asking about happenings]

Captain: Isiqingatha sokuqala sonyaka wokuqala siquka ubuChwepheshe kubuPolisa kwiziko kaSAPS elilungiselelwe oko. Isiqingatha sesibini sonyaka siquka iinyanga ezintandathu zokuQeqeshwa ngokuphathelele kulo msebenzi. Kunyaka wesibini uya kuthi ufumane uqeqesho kwindawo ekusetyenzelwa kuyo. (*The first semester of the first year includes Tactical Policing at a designated SAPS training institution. The second semester includes six months of Field Training. During the second year you will receive on-the-job training.*) (29)

[explaining happenings]

Susan: Ithini imeko yemali yoqeqesho? (*How does the money for the training work?*)
[asking about money]

Captain: Indawo yokuhlala, ukutya, impahla yokuqeqeshwa, izixhobo kunye nempahla uzifumana simahla kwaye uza kuhlawulwa imali engangama-R1 600 rhoqo ngenyanga. Kwisiqingatha sesibini uza kuhlawulwa imali engangama-R2 500 ngenyanga. Uza kuthi uzuze nenkxaso yeenkonzo zonyango. (*Accommodation, meals, training attire, equipment and material are free and you will receive a monthly fee of R1 600. During the second semester you will receive a monthly fee of R2 500. You will also get medical aid benefits.*)

[giving explanation]

Susan: Kulungile. Ivakala kakuhle. Ngokuqinisekileyo umzimba ophilileyo yenye yezinto ezibekwa phambili. (*Okay. It sounds good. I guess fitness is also recommended.*) (39)

[showing approval] ; [requiring certainty]

Captain: Ewe. Uvavanyo lokuba sempilweni komzimba luza kwenziwa. (*Yes. You will also have a fitness evaluation.*) (41)

[confirming fitness]

Susan: Kulungile. (*That's fine.*)

[showing acceptance]

Captain: Ndingakubuza imibuzo nje embalwa? (*Can I ask you a few questions?*)
[asking approval]

Susan: Ewe (*Yes*)

[giving approval]

- Captain: Ingaba uphilile kakuhle ngokwasengqondweni nangokwasemzimbeni? (*Are you physically and mentally healthy?*)
[asking about health]
- Susan: Ewe, kunjalo. (*Yes, I am.*) (47)
[confirming health]
- Captain: Ingaba awuzange wafunyanwa unetyala ngokwasemthethweni? Siza kukhe sikhangele. (*Do you have any criminal record? We will check.*) (49)
[asking about criminal record]
- Susan: Hayi, andizange. (*No, I haven't.*)
[confirming innocence]
- Captain: Ingaba uyakwazi ukuthetha nokuba ziilwimi ezimbini. (*Are you proficient in at least two languages?*)
[asking ability]
- Susan: Ewe. Ndiyasithetha iSingesi, iAfrikansi kunye nesiXhosa. (*Yes. I can speak English, Afrikaans and Xhosa.*)
[confirming ability]
- Captain: Unawo amaphepha-mvume okuqhuba imoto encinci. (*Do you have a licence for a light vehicle?*)
[asking about license]
- Susan: Ewe, ndinawo. (*Yes, I do.*) (57)
[confirming license]
- Captain: Leliphi izinga lemfundo ofikelele kulo? (*What is your highest qualification?*)
[asking qualification]
- Susan: Ndinesidanga seBA kwiYunivesithi yaseStellenbosch. (*A BA degree at the University of Stellenbosch.*) (60)
[giving qualification]
- Captain: Kulungile. Kukho umlinganiselo odingekayo wobude nobunzima. Kufuneka ubude obuziimitha ezingama-1.55 kwaye ubunzima mabube ngaphantsi kwama-30. Kodwa ukhangeleka ngathi sel ukulungele ukuba kolu luhlu. (*Okay. There is a prescribed mass and height. You have to be 1.55 m. Your body mass must be less than 30. But it looks like you qualify this category.*)
[showing acceptance] ; [requesting built of person]
- Susan: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)
[showing acceptance]

UKapteni unika uSusan ifomu yokwenza isicelo. (Captain gives an application form to Susan.)

Captain: Nantsi ifomu yokwenza isicelo. Nceda uyigcwalise uze uyibuyise ngomso.
(Here is an application form. Please complete it and bring it back tomorrow.)
[expressing desire]

Susan: Kulungile. Ndiza kwenza njalo. Ndiyabulela ngexesha lakho. *(Okay. I will. Thank you for your time.)* (71)
[showing acceptance] ; [giving praise]

Captain: Wamkelekile. Uhambe kakuhle. *(You are welcome. Go well.)*
[showing acceptance] ; [greeting]

Susan: Usale kakuhle. *(Stay well.)* (73)
[greeting]

4.3.4.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-8 represent the introductory phase. The police official and applicant greet each other and the police official offers assistance. This segment can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the applicant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. It also represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, because there is not a considerable amount of information that is given. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because it contains the task of greeting and the offering of assistance. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she

does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the applicant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

Lines 1-8 predominantly contain sentences consisting of simple clauses. **Ngaphakathi, Molo, Wamkelekile, Ungahlala phantsi** and **Ndifuna ukwenza** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks.

This segment consists of predominantly simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 9-66 form part of the questioning and narrating phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the applicant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only information is given concerning the course (police official) and medical conditions (applicant) and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. It also represents the [- few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, because there a considerable amount of information that is given and **kuJuni, kaJulayi** and **kuDesemba** illustrate locational references. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic

componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

Both the police official and the applicant requests and supply information concerning the course and medical conditions, respectively. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official (course information) and the applicant (medical condition information), he/ she does not have to do any planning. The police official and the applicant have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [+ prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. Lines 14, 44 and 66 are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 9-10, 13, 21, 29-30, 38-41, 43, 45-54, 57-58 contain sentences which illustrate a low level of syntactic complexity. In the sentence **Ndinesidanga se-BA kwiYunivesithi yaseStellenbosch, kwiDyunivesithi yaseStellenbosch** is an adverb of place.

Hayi, ndinofifi, kodwa andiqinisekanga is an example of a compound sentence. **ndinofifi**, and **kodwa andiqinisekanga** are the two independent clauses and both are in the indicative present tense. In this sentence **kodwa** appears to be the conjunction. Another example of a compound sentence is **Kwisiqingatha sesibini uza kuhlawulwa imali engangama-R2 500 ngenyanga. Uza kuthi uzuze nenkxaso yeenkonzo zonyango Indawo yokuhlala, ukutya, impahla yokuqeqeshwa, izixhobo kunye nempahla uzifumana simahla kwaye uza kuhlawulwa imali engangama-R1 600 rhoqo ngenyanga** are the two independent clauses. **Indawo yokuhlala, ukutya, impahla yokuqeqeshwa, izixhobo kunye nempahla uzifumana simahla** is in the indicative present tense and **kwaye uza kuhlawulwa imali engangama-R1 600 rhoqo ngenyanga** is in the future tense. **Phakathi konyaka wesibini uye uqeqeshelwe umsebenzi** is an example of a complex sentence. **Phakathi konyaka**

wesibini is the dependent clause and **uye uqeqeshelwe umsebenzi** is the independent clause of this sentence. Both clauses are in the indicative present tense. **Unawo amaphepha-mvume okuqhuba imoto encinci** is a further example of a complex sentence. **Unawo amaphepha-mvume okuqhuba** is the independent clause and **imoto encinci** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the indicative present tense. These sentences illustrate a high level of syntactic complexity.

This segment consists of predominantly simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 67-73 represent the closing phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the applicant and the police official in this segment takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and there is not a considerable amount of information that is given. Therefore, it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature and [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

Furthermore, the applicant expresses gratitude, the police official gives a demand (to fill in the application form) and the police official and applicant greet each other. Therefore, more than one task is being carried out [- single task]. There is no need for planning in this segment [- planning] and neither the police official nor the applicant have to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. **Wamkelekile, Uhambe kakuhle, Usale kakuhle** and **Ndiyabulela** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks.

This segment consists of predominantly simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.4.2 Task typology

Dialogue 4 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant holds information which is unknown to the other participant, but which is needed in order to complete the task. In lines 10-42 and 61-65 one participant X (police official) holds the information which is unknown to the other participant Y (applicant). In line 43-60 the one participant Y (applicant) holds information which is unknown to the other participant X (police official).

This task is an example of a two-way flow of information and it corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both participants (police official and applicant) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. the fact that both the police official and the applicant wants to obtain the information that they don't know on behalf of the medical conditions and the course respectively and a single outcome, i.e. to understand the information provided so that the applicant can apply for the course and be accepted. Therefore, they are also meeting descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

4.3.5 Dialogue 5

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks.

Communication takes place between two participants (police official and culprit). The culprit comes into the office of the police official where the police official ask him/ her certain questions in order to obtain clarity.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo kwaSAP. Ukwicandelo leshumi elinesithathu. Kungena umntu kwaye kufuneka uthathe iminwe yakhe. Umbuza ngeenkukacha zakhe ukuze uqinisekise ukuba ufumana okukokwakhe ngenene. Umyalela ukuba agcwalise ifomu uze uthabathe incwadi yakhe yeSazisi ukuze uyikope.

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the SAP 13 section. A person comes in and you have to take his finger prints. You ask him his personal details to make sure that the right person gets the right belongings. You tell him to complete the forms and you get his ID book in order to make a copy of it.

Officer: Molo. (*Hello*) (1)
[greeting]

John: Molo. Unjani? (*Hello. How are you?*)
[greeting] ; [asking well being]

Officer: Ndiphilile enkosi. Asinakukhalaza. Unjani wena? (*I'm fine thank you. Can't complain. How are you?*)
[responding about well being] ; [introducing] ; [asking well being]

John: Ndiphilile enkosi. (*I'm fine thank you.*) (5)
[responding about well being]

Officer: Ulapha malunga nokuthatha iminwe? (*Are you here for your finger prints?*)
[asking reason for presence]

John: Ewe. (*Yes*) (7)
[confirming presence]

Officer: Kulungile. Khawundinike ixeshana. Ndisafuna ukufumana iinkukacha kwikhompyutha. (*Okay. Just give me a moment. I just want to get to the records on the computer.*)
[expressing request]

John: Kulungile. (*That is fine.*) (11)
[accepting request]

Ipolisa lisaxakekile kwikhompyutha. (Police officer busy on the computer.)

Officer: Kulungile. Ungubani igama lakho? (*Okay. What is your name?*)
[asking name]

John: Igama lam ndinguJohn. (*My name is John.*) (13)
[giving name]

Officer: Ngubani ifani yakho? (*What is your surname?*)
[asking surname]

John: Ifani yam nguCook. (*My surname is Cook.*) (15)
[giving surname]

*Ipolisa lichwetheza ifani kunye negama kwikhompyuthangoku likhangela inkcukacha zakhe.
(Police officer typing his name and surname in and searching for his details.)*

Officer: Kulungile ndizifumene. (*Okay, I found it.*)
[giving report]

*Igosa liyaqwalasela ukuba iinkcukacha ziyahambelana kusini na nendoda ese-ofisini yalo.
(Officer is checking whether the details match with the man in his office.)*

Officer: Ithini idilesi yakho? (*What is your address?*) (17)
[asking address]

John: Idilesi yam ithi: 47 plain sitalato? (*My address is 47 Plain Street.*)
[giving address]

Officer: Ithini inombolo yesazisi sakho? (*What is your ID number?*) (19)
[asking ID number]

John: 8807212688356
[giving ID number]

Officer: Ububanjelwe ntoni? (*What have you been arrested for?*) (21)
[asking reason for arrest]

John: Bendibanjelwe urhwaphilizo. (*I have been arrested for fraud.*)
[giving reason for arrest]

Officer: Ububanjwe nini? (*When were you arrested?*) (23)
[asking date of arrest]

John: Ngomhla weshumi elinambini kwinyanga kaMeyi ku2010. (*On the 12th of
May 2010.*) (25)
[giving date of arrest]

- Officer: Wakhululwa nini? (*When were you set free?*)
[asking date of release]
- John: Izolo. (*Yesterday.*) (27)
[giving date of release]
- Officer: Kulungile. Yonke inkcazelo ilungile. (*Okay, all the information is correct.*)
[confirming correctness of information]
- John: Kulungile. (*Okay.*) (29)
[showing acceptance]
- Officer: Zeziphi izinto zakho esinazo? (*Which of your belongings do we have?*)
[asking about belongings]
- John: Umnxeba wam, isipaji kunye newotshi. (*My cell phone, wallet and watch.*)
[confirming belongings]
- Officer: Kumele ndithathe iminwe yakho. (*I have to take your finger prints.*)
[giving instruction]
- John: Kulungile. (*That is fine.*) (33)
[showing acceptance]
- Police officer gets a form out and takes his finger prints.*
- Officer: Nceda uligcwalise lonke olu xwebhu lovavanyo zimvo. (*Please complete the rest of the enquiry form.*)
[giving instructions]
- John: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)
[showing acceptance]
- Ipolisa lithatha ifom futhi lenze unyatheliso leminwe. (John completes the form.)*
- Officer: Ndicela ukuba ugcwalise yonke le fomu. (*You also have to complete this indemnity form.*)
[giving instructions]
- John: Kulungile. (*Okay.*) (39)
[showing acceptance]
- UJohn ugcwalisa ifomu. (John completes the form.)*
- Officer: Enkosi. Ndingasifumana isazisi sakho? Ndifuna ukwenza ikopi. Kufuneka ugcwalise nale fomu yokhuselo ngokwasemthethweni. (*Thank you. Can I please get your ID book? I just want to make a copy.*)
[giving praise] ; [expressing request]

- John: Ewe. Nantsi. (*Yes. Here it is.*) (43)
[accepting request]
- Officer: Enkosi (*Thank you*)
[giving praise]
- Igosa lenza ikopi liyibuyisele kuJohn. (Officer makes a copy and gives it back to John.)*
- John: Enkosi. Ndingazifumana nini izinto zam? (*Thank you. When may I get my belongings?*)
[expressing desire]
- Officer: Ungazifumana ngoku. (*You may have it now.*) (47)
[approving desire]
- John: Kulungile enkosi. (*Okay. Thank you.*)
[giving praise]
- Officer: Kuphelele apho. Ungahamba. (*That is all. You can go now.*) (49)
[expressing request]
- John: Usale kakuhle. (*Stay well.*)
[greeting]
- Officer: Uhambe kakuhle. (*Go well.*) (51)
[greeting]

4.3.5.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-5 represent the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the culprit takes place in the present tense. Therefore it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. It also represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, because there is not a considerable amount of information that is given. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic

componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because it only contains the task of greeting. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the culprit has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

There is predominantly the use of simple sentences in this particular segment. **Molo, Unjani** and **Ndiphilile enkosi** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 6-48 form part of this phase. The questioning and narrating phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the police official and the culprit takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. Lines 21-27 contains sentences referring to events in the past, therefore representing the [+ there-and-then] feature. No causal reasoning occurs between the police official and the culprit and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. A considerable amount of information is given to the police official by the culprit. It thus represents the [-

few elements] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because it contains the task of asking questions (police official) concerning personal details and furthermore the police official demands the culprit to complete an indemnity form. The police official does not have to do any planning and neither the police official nor the culprit has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This phase predominantly contains simple sentences. Lines 7, 11, 27, 29 and 33 are examples of mono-clausal sentences. **Ungubani igama lakho, Ngubani ifani yakho, Ithini idilesi yakho** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. **Izolo, nantsi, enkosi and kulungile** are examples of mono-clausal sentences.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 49-51 represent the closing phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the culprit takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because it only contains the task of greeting. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the culprit has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Usale kakuhle** and **Uhambe kakuhle** is examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.5.2 Task typology

Dialogue 5 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. The one participant (culprit) holds all the personal details that are needed to know. The other participant (police official) does not know this information, but he needs it in order for him to complete the task.

The inquiry and indemnity form also requires information needed (of the culprit) in order for task completion.

The interactants (police official and culprit) work toward a convergent goal and a single outcome. The goal is that the culprit gives as all the personal details as the police official require this information. The outcome is that, with all the information, the police official will trace the personal details of the culprit on the computer and that the culprit will get his belongings back. The police official (Y) requests the information and the culprit (X) supplies the required information.

According to Table 3-1 the task corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b, because the culprit holds all the information and the police official is required to request this information. Because of the fact that the participants (culprit and police official) work toward a convergent goal and a single outcome, the task also meet the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

4.3.6 Dialogue 6

The communication in this dialogue can be used by learners to meet the demands of the real-world outside the classroom and to communicate outside the classroom in the real-world. In this particular dialogue, interaction takes place between two participants (police official and an eyewitness). The eyewitness phones the police official and gives information about the victim being raped.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Intombi iyadlwengulwa ngalo mzuzu. Oziboneleyo utsalela amapolisa umnxeba kwangoko. Ufumana ucingo. Ubuza lo mntu ukuba yenzeka phi le nto, bangaphi abo bahlasela le ntombi, yeyeliphi ibala le ntombi, bona abahlaseli ngabeliphi ibala. Ucela lo mntu akuchazele

ngesinxibo sabahlaseli kunye nesentombi. Ucela lo mntu akuchazele inkangeleko yentombi. Uyalifumana igama lalo mntu kunye neenombolo zomnxeba wakhe.

A girl is busy being raped. An eyewitness sees it and immediately phones the police. You receive the call. You ask the person where it is happening, how many of them attacked the girl, what the race of the girl and the attackers are. You ask the person to describe what the attackers are wearing, as well as the girl. You ask the person to describe the looks of the girl. You get the person's name and telephone number.

Ucingo luyakhala uphendule. (The phone rings and you answer.)

Sergeant: Molo. Ngusajini Botha othethayo. Ungubani? *(Hello. Sergeant Botha speaking. How are you?)* (2)
[greeting] ; [asking well being]

Mary: Ndiphilile enkosi. Kodwa mamela! *(I'm okay thank you. But Listen!)*
[responding about well being] ; [exclaiming request]

Sergeant: Yintoni ingxaki? *(What is wrong?)* (4)
[offering assistance]

Mary: Kukho intombazana edlwengulwayo! *(A girl is being raped!)* (5)
[narrating incident]

Sergeant: Ufowuna uphi? *(Where are you calling from?)*
[asking place]

Mary: Ndikufowunela ndikummandla waseStellenbosch. Ndikufowunela ngonomyayi wam. *(I'm calling from Stellenbosch area. I'm calling from my cell phone.)* (9)
[giving information]

Sergeant: Kulungile, thoba umxhelo undixelele kanye le nto yenzekileyo. *(Okay, calm down and tell me exactly what you have seen.)* (11)
[giving instructions]

Mary: Bendibaleka ndiqabela ummango wentaba eCoetzenburg xa ndisiva isikhalo. Xa ndijonga kwicala lasekunene, ndibone indoda itsalela intombazana emseleni. Ndimbonile ezama ukuziphuncula kwindlela le ndoda ibimxhakamfule ngayo. Walandela ngokumkhulula impahla ezikrazula.

Ndoyika kakhulu kangangoba andikwazanga kukwenza nto, ndabaleka kwangoko ndaza kukufowunela. (*I was jogging the mountain route at Coetzenburg when I heard a sudden scream. When I looked to my right, I saw a man dragging a girl down in the ditch. I saw how she struggled to free herself from his grip. And the next moment he was tearing her clothes off. I was too afraid to do anything, so I ran as fast as I could to call you.*) (21)
[narrating incident]

Sergeant: Uphi ngoku? (*Where are you now?*)

[asking place]

Mary: Ndibuyele endlwini yam, eThe Laan. (*I'm back at my place, in The Laan.*)

[giving place]

Sergeant: Sekulithuba elingakanani usibonile esi sehlo? (*How long since you've seen the incident?*) (25)

[asking time period]

Mary: Malunga nemizuzu elishumi egqithileyo. (*About 10 minutes ago.*)

[giving time period]

Sergeant: Yenzeke phi le nto? (*Where exactly did it happen?*) (27)

[asking place]

Mary: Yenzeke kwingingqi esentabeni emva kweholo elinezixhobo zokwenza imithambo. (*It happened in the area on the mountain behind the gymnasium.*)

[giving place]

Sergeant: Bangaphi abaye bahlasela le ntombi? (*How many of them attacked the girl?*)

[asking amount of people]

Mary: Ibingamadoda amabini, kodwa mnye kuwo ohlasele intombazana. (*There were two men, but only one of them attacked the girl.*) (31)

[giving amount of people]

Sergeant: Ngaboluphi uhlanga? (*What race are they?*)

[asking race]

Mary: Ngabantu abamhlophe. (*They are white.*) (33)

[giving race]

Sergeant: Banxibe ntoni? (*What are they wearing?*)

[asking for description about what they were wearing]

Mary: Omfutshane unxibe ibhulukhwe emnyama kunye nesikipa esiminekhono emifutshane esibomvu. Omde unxibe ibhulukhwe eluhlaza kunye nesikipa

esimhlophe esinemikhono emide. (*The short guy is wearing a black pants and a red short sleeved top. He has black shoes on. The tall guy is wearing a blue pants with a white long sleeved shirt.*) (39)

[giving description about what they were wearing]

Sergeant: Yeyaluphi uhlanga intombazana? (*What race is the girl?*)

[asking race]

Mary: Yintombazana yebala. (*It is a white girl.*) (41)

[giving race]

Sergeant: Ibinxibe ntoni intombazana? (*What was the girl wearing?*)

[asking for description about clothes]

Mary: Ibinxibe iimpahla yayo yokuzilolonga; ibhulukhwe emnyama nesikipa esimhlophe. (*She had her jogging clothes on; black pants and a white T-shirt.*)

[giving description about clothes]

Sergeant: Ungandichazela ngentombazana? (*Can you describe the girl?*) (45)

[asking for description of girl]

Mary: Mfutshane ngesithomo, umzimba odweni kunye neenwele ezimdaka. (*She is short, she has a small built and she has blond hair. Her hair is in a pony tail.*)

[giving description]

Sergeant: Ingaba bebekho abanye abantu entabeni? (*Were there any other people on the mountain?*)

[asking information about people]

Mary: Hayi, ibindim, nentombazana kunye naba bafana babini. (*No, it was only me, the girl and the two guys.*)

[giving information]

Sergeant: Bakubonile? (*Did they see you?*) (53)

[asking about observation]

Mary: Andiqondi. Kodwa andiqinisekanga. (*I don't think so. But I'm not sure.*)

[expressing uncertainty]

Sergeant: Ucinga ukuba ingakanani (intombi) ngokweminyaka? (*How old do you think she is?*)

[asking opinion]

Mary: Ndinga ukuba imalunga namashumi amabini eminyaka ubudala. (*I think she is about 20 years old.*) (57)

[giving opinion]

- Sergeant: Ungakwazi ukubaqaphela xa unokudibana nabo? (*Will you recognize them if you see them again?*) (59)
[asking recognition]
- Mary: Ewe, ndingakwazi. (*Yes, I will.*)
[giving confirmation]
- Sergeant: Ungubani igama lakho? (*What is your name?*) (61)
[asking name]
- Mary: Igama lam ndinguMary. (*My name is Mary.*)
[giving name]
- Sergeant: Ithini inombolo yakho yefowuni? (*What is your telephone number?*) (63)
[asking telephone number]
- Mary: Inombolo yam yefowuni ithi 082 6754 879. (*My telephone number is 082 6754 879.*) (65)
[giving telephone number]
- Sergeant: Ndiyabulela ngokuba usixelele! Siyahamba ngoku! (*Thank you for telling us! We are leaving immediately!*) (67)
[giving praise]
- Mary: Luvuyo! (*Pleasure!*)
[expressing acceptance]

4.3.6.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-3 represent the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the eyewitness takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] dimension. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic

componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment only contains the task of greeting. The police official does not have to do any planning and neither the police official nor the complainant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly consists of simple sentences. **Molo** and **Ndiphilile enkosi** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. **Molo** and **ungubani** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. This segment consists of predominantly simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

In this phase, lines 4-65 form part of the segment. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the police official and the eyewitness takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now], because the events which the eyewitness experience is happening in the present tense. Lines 12-21, 27-31, 42-44, 49-53 contains sentences referring to events in the past, therefore representing the [+ there-and-then] feature. No causal reasoning occurs between the police official and the eyewitness and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. A considerable amount of information is given to the police official by the

eyewitness and **yaseStellenbosch** and **eCoetzenburg** illustrate locational references. It thus represents the [- few elements] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment, questions are asked (police official) concerning the incident, as well as the personal details of the eyewitness occurs [- single task]. The police official does not do any planning [- planning] and the eyewitness has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] concerning the incident. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

Thoba umxhelo undixelele kanye le nto yenzekileyo is an example of a compound sentence. **Thoba umxhelo** and **Thoba umxhelo** are the two independent clauses. **Thoba umxhela** is in the indicative present tense. **Bendibaleka ndiqabela ummango wentaba eCoetzenburg xa ndisiva isikhalo** is a further example of a compound sentence. **Bendibaleka ndiqabela ummango wentaba eCoetzenburg** and **ndisiva isikhalo** are the two independent clauses. Both of the clauses are in the past tense. **Ibingamadoda amabini, kodwa mnye kubo ohlasele intombazana** is also an example of a compound sentence. **Ibingamadoda amabini** and **mnye kubo ohlasele intombazana** are the two independent clauses of this sentence. **Mfutshane ngesithomo, umzimba odweni kunye neenwele ezimdaka** is a compound sentence. **Mfutshane ngesithomo, umzimba odweni kunye** and **neenwele ezimdaka** are the three independent clauses and these three clauses are each in the indicative present tense. **Ungakwazi ukubaqaphela xa unokudibana nabo** is a complex sentence, because it contains one dependent clause and one independent clause. **Ungakwazi ukubaqaphela** is the independent clause, while **xa unokudibana nabo** is the dependent clause. **Ingaba bebekho abanye abantu antabeni** is also a complex sentence, because **Ingaba bebekho abanye abantu** is the independent clause and **antabeni** is the dependent clause. These sentences consist of a high level of syntactic complexity.

Ungubani igama lakho and **Igama lam ndinguMary** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. Lines 4-9, 22-27, 29, 32-34, 40-45, 53-57 and 60-65 contain simple sentences. **Bakubonile** and **andiqondi** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. **YaseStellenbosch** is an adverb of place in the sentence **Ndikufowunela ndikummandla waseStellenbosch**. This segment consists of predominantly simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 66-68 form part of the closing phase. The closing phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the eyewitness takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. There is not a considerable amount of information that is given, therefore representing the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because gratitude is expressed, a decision is made (to go out to the scene immediately) and greeting occurs. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the eyewitness has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's

Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. **Luvuyo** is an example of a mono-clausal sentence.

4.3.6.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (eyewitness) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official), but which he needs in order to complete the task. He needs the information about the suspects and the incident in order to catch the suspects and solve the case.

This task entails a two-way flow of information. The one participant (police official) requires the information, while the other participant (eyewitness) supplies the required information. The requiring and suppliance of information corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant relationship 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the participants work toward a convergent goal and single outcome. The goal is to request and supply as many information concerning the case as possible, while the goal is to catch the suspects and solve the case. Therefore, it also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a (police official and eyewitness has a convergent goal) and outcome option 4a (only one acceptable outcome is possible) in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

It is also an example of an opinion-giving task (lines 53-57). The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, thus corresponding to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue the participants are participating in a one-way exchange of information. The police official is requesting an opinion, while the eyewitness is supplying an opinion, i.e. whether or not she has been seen and what the age of the suspect could possibly be. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). The eyewitness is dominating, because she is the one providing an opinion. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-). In this dialogue the participants (police official and eyewitness) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to eventually catch the suspects. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

4.3.7 Dialogue 7

The communication in this dialogue can be used by learners to meet the demands of the real-world outside the classroom and to communicate outside the classroom in the real-world. In this dialogue, interaction takes place between two participants (police official and complainant). The complainant comes into the office and lays charge about housebreaking that took place. The police official questions the complainant in order to obtain clarity concerning the case.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Usembenzini esikhululweni samapolisa, kungena umntu eze kufaka isimangalo ngokuqhekezwa kwendlu okwenzekileyo. Wena ke ngoku unengxoxo nalo mntu uze umbuze ngeenkukacha zakhe, ixesha ekuqhekezwe ngalo endlwini, indawo nomhla, njalo njalo. Ubuza lo mntu malunga nokhuseleko lwendlu, nokuba kukho mntu amrhanelayo kusini na. Ixhoba kufuneka ke libhale isibhengezo.

You are on duty in the police office when a person comes in and lay a charge against housebreaking that took place. You are having a discourse in which you are asking the

person's details, the time of housebreaking, the place, the date, etc. You ask the person about the safety of the house and if he suspects anyone. The victim needs to write a declaration.

Captain: Molo (*Good morning*) (1)

[greeting]

Lisa: Molo mphathi (*Good morning Captain*)

[greeting]

Captain: Ndingakunceda njani? (*How can I help you?*) (3)

[offering assistance]

Lisa: Ndifuna ukufaka ityala loqhekezo olwenzekileyo. (*I want to lay charge against housebreaking that took place.*) (5)

[expressing desire]

Captain: Kulungile. Kuqhekezwe indlu yakho? (*Okay. Was the housebreaking at your house?*) (7)

[asking place]

Lisa: Ewe mphathi (*Yes Captain*)

[confirming place]

Captain: Uhlala phi? (*Where do you stay?*) (9)

[asking place]

Lisa: Ndihlala eStellenbosch (*I live in Stellenbosch*)

[giving town]

Captain: Ithini idilesi yakho? (*What is your address?*) (11)

[asking address]

Lisa: Idilesi yam ithi: Laan 28. (*My address is Laan 28*)

[giving address]

Captain: Ubusendlini ngeli xesha kuqhekezwayo? (*Were you at home when the housebreaking took place?*) (14)

[asking information]

Lisa: Hayi, bendisaye ezivenkileni. (*No, I was out shopping.*)

[confirming information]

Captain: Uye kuthenga malunga naliphi ixesha ezivenkileni? (*More or less what time were you out shopping?*) (17)

[asking time]

- Lisa: Ndiphume phakathi kwentsimbi yeshumi nentsimbi yeshumi elinambini. (*I was out between ten o'clock and 12 o'clock.*) (19)
[giving time]
- Captain: Ikho into engaqondakaliyo oyibonileyo ngexesha uphuma endlwini? (*Did you notice anything suspicious when you left home?*) (21)
[asking suspicion]
- Lisa: Bekukho amadoda amabini ebehamba endleleni. Kodwa ayikho into engaqondakaliyo ngawo. (*Well, there were two men wondering around in the street. But they didn't look too suspicious to me.*) (24)
[denying suspicion]
- Captain: Kulungile. Kusenokwenzeka ukuba ngabarhanelwa, kodwa asinakuqiniseka ngalo nto. (*Okay. They could be suspects, but we can't be too certain about that.*) (26)
[giving opinion]
- Lisa: Ewe, ndiyavuma. (*Yes, I agree.*)
[agreeing with opinion]
- Captain: Yenzeke nini? Phezolo? (*When did it happen? Yesterday?*) (28)
[asking time]
- Lisa: Hayi, yenzeke namhlanje. (*No, it happened today.*)
[giving time]
- Captain: Ibivaliwe yonke iminyango. (*Were all the doors closed when you left the house?*) (31)
[asking information]
- Lisa: Ewe mphathi. Benditshixe yonke into. (*Yes Captain. I locked everything.*)
[giving information]
- Captain: Neefestile? (*And the windows?*) (33)
[asking information]
- Lisa: Hayi, iifestile zivuliwe, kodwa kwezi festile kukho izithintelo zentsimbi. (*No, the windows are open, but there are burglar bars in front of the windows.*)
[giving information]
- Captain: Unlo ivuso? (*Do you have an alarm system?*)
[asking about alarm system]
- Lisa: Hayi, asinalo. (*No, we don't.*) (37)
[confirming information]

- Captain: Bangene njani endlwini? (*How did they get in the house?*)
[asking manner]
- Lisa: Baqhekeze ifestile emva kwendlu. (*They broke through the kitchen window at the back of the house.*) (40)
[giving explanation]
- Captain: Inazo izithintelo zentsimbi loo festile? (*Does that window also have burglar bars?*)
[asking about burglar bars]
- Lisa: Ewe inazo. (*Yes, it does.*) (42)
[confirming information]
- Captain: Ikho into ebiweyo? (*Is there anything stolen?*)
[asking about stolen items]
- Lisa: Ewe. Yonke imihombiso yam. (*Yes. All my jewellery is stolen.*) (44)
[confirming stolen items]
- Captain: Ikho enye into? (*Anything else?*)
[asking information]
- Lisa: Hayi. Ayikho. (*No. Nothing else.*) (46)
[confirming information]
- Captain: Kulungile. Ndiza kuthumela abacuphi baze kuthatha iminwe nobungqina. (*Okay. I'm going to send out a team to investigate the case and to take fingerprints.*) (48)
[offering help]
- Lisa: Kulungile. (*Okay. That's fine.*)
[accepting help]
- Captain: Uza kubakho endlwini ngale njikalanga. (*Will you be home this afternoon?*)
[asking presence]
- Lisa: Ewe ndiza kubakho. (*Yes, I will.*)
[confirming presence]
- Captain: Ndicela undinike inombolo yakho yefowuni? (*Can you please give me your telephone number?*) (53)
[asking telephone number]
- Lisa: 084 6738 964
[giving telephone number]

Captain: Enkosi. Ndiza kukwazisa xa besendleleni. (*Thank you. I will let you know when they are on their way.*) (56)

[showing thankfulness] ; [confirming help]

Lisa: Enkosi (*Thank you*)

[showing thankfulness]

Captain: Okwangoku bhala yonke into ephepheni? (*In the meanwhile, can you please write a declaration so that I have everything on paper?*) (59)

[asking for declaration]

Lisa: Kulungile. Ndiza kweza njalo. (*Yes, I will.*)

[agreeing]

Captain: Enkosi (*Thank you*) (61)

[showing thankfulness]

4.3.7.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-3 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. No causal reasoning occurs between the police official and the complainant and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. There is not a considerable amount of information that is given to the police official by the complainant. It thus represents the [+ few elements] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because it contains the task of greeting and assistance is offered. The police official does not do any planning and the participants do not have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [- planning] and [+ prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of

Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Molo** and **Ndikakunceda njani** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. The **-nga-** in **ndingakunceda** is the potential particle. This segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 4-54 form part of the questioning and narrating phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police official asks questions about happenings in the past and the complainant explains and narrates the incident which happened in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. The complainant is also required to give his personal details, but it takes place in the present tense, thereby representing the [+ here-and-now] feature. The police official and the complainant do not reason about the incident, thus representing the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when narrating and answering questions about the incident and **eStellenbosch** illustrates a locational reference. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The complainant has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when he explains the incident. The police official requires the personal details of the complainant, he asks to

narrate the incident and further questions are asked concerning the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. Lines 6-12, 16-17, 27, 28-33, 36-38, 41-46 and 50-54 consist of simple sentences. **Kulungile, phezolo, neefestile** and **Alikho** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. **eStellenbosch** in the sentence **Ndihlala eStellenbosch** is the adverb of place.

Ubusendlwini ngeli xesha bekuqhekezwa? is a complex sentence because it contains one dependent clause and one independent clause. **Ubusendlwini** is the independent clause, while **ngeli xesha bekuqhekezwa** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the past tense. **Ndifuna ukufaka ityala loqhekezo olwenzekileyo** is also a complex sentence, because **Ndifuna ukufaka ityala** is the independent clause and **lokuqhekezo olwenzekileyo** is the dependent clause. **Ikho into engaqondakaliyo oyibonileyo ngeli xesha uphuma endlwini?** is another example of a complex sentence. **Ikho into engaqondakaliyo oyibonileyo** is the independent clause and **ngeli xesha uphuma endlwini** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the past tense. **Baqhekeze ifestile emva kwendlu** is also an example of a complex sentence. **Baqhekeze ifestile** is the independent clause, while **emva kwendlu** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the past tense.

Iifestile bezivuliwe, kodwa kukho izithintelo zentsimbi is a compound sentence, because it consists of two independent clauses. **Iifestile zivuliwe** and **kukho izithintelo zentsimbi** are the two independent clauses. Both of these independent clauses are in the indicative present tense. In this sentence **kodwa** is the conjunction.

The examples of the complex and compound sentences consist of a higher level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 55-61 form part of the closing phase. The closing phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. There is not a considerable amount of information that is given, therefore representing the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment desire (to write a declaration) and gratitude is expressed. Therefore, it represents the [- single task feature] feature. No planning occurs in this phase [- planning]. The complainant has to draw on prior knowledge when writing a declaration [+ prior knowledge]. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

The closing phase predominantly contains simple sentences. Lines 57 and 61 are examples of mono-clausal sentences.

Okwangoku bhala yonke into ephepheni? illustrates a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. **Okwangoku bhala** is the independent clause which is in the indicative present tense. **Yonke into ephepheni** is the dependent clause. This sentence illustrates a high level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that the closing phase predominantly consists of simple sentences, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.7.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (complainant) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official), but which he needs it in order to complete the task, i.e. to try and find out who the suspects are in order to solve the case.

Interactant Y (police official) requires the information and interactant X (complainant) supplies the information. Therefore, the task entails a two-way flow of information. This configuration of features corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police official and complainant) work toward a convergent goal and single outcome. The one participant (complainant) supplies as much information as possible and the other participant (police official) requires as much information as possible (goal) in order to try and determine who the suspects are in order to solve the case (outcome). This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

Lines 20-27 are an example of an opinion-giving task. The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, thus corresponding to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task. The police official requires an opinion from the complainant, and the police official agrees with the complainant. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue each interactant is equally interacting. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-). In this dialogue the participants (police official and complainant) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to determine who the suspects are and eventually to catch the suspects. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

4.3.8 Dialogue 8

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, interaction takes place between three participants (police officer and complainant; police official and culprit). The complainant phones the police official and reports the case. The police official questions the complainant in order to obtain clarity concerning the case and goes out to question the culprit.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Usembenzini xa kufowuna inkosikazi ikuchazela ngempatho-mbi yasekhaya. Ubuza kule nkosikazi ukuba ngubani na obandakanyekayo kweli tyala nokuba uye waphathwa gadalala njani na. Umbuza ngedilesi yakhe uze uphume kwangoko usiya kuphanda eli tyala kule ndlu. Ubuza umyeni wale nkosikazi ngesi simangalo uphele umbamba.

You are on duty when a woman phones and reports domestic violence. You ask the woman who is involved in the case and how she is being abused. You ask her address and you go out to the house to investigate the case. You question the woman's husband and eventually arrest the man.

Ucingo luyakhala ndilubambe. (The phone rings and you pick up the phone.)

Captain: Molo mhlekazi (*Hello. Captain Ellis speaking.*) (1)

[Greeting] ; [introducing]

Gloria: Molo. NguGloria othethayo (*Hello. This is Gloria speaking.*)

[greeting] ; [introducing]

Captain: Ndingakunceda njani? (*How may I help you?*) (3)

[offering assistance]

Gloria: Ndifuna ukuchaza ngempatho mbi ekhaya. (*I want to report domestic violence.*) (5)

[expressing desire]

Captain: Kulungile. Ngubani ochaphazelekayo kweli tyala? (*Okay. Who is involved in this case?*) (7)

[accepting desire] ; [asking information]

Gloria: Ngumyeni wam. Uyandiphatha gadalala. (*My husband. He is abusing me.*)

[giving confirmation]

Captain: Ngokwasemzimbeni? (*Physically?*) (9)

[asking manner]

Gloria: Ewe Kapteni (*Yes Captain.*)

[confirming manner]

Captain: Nangokwesondo? (*And sexually?*) (11)

[asking manner]

Gloria: Ewe (*Yes*)

[confirming manner]

Captain: Inethuba elingakanani le nto iqhubeka? (*How long has this been going on?*)

[asking time period]

Gloria: Oko satshatayo. (*Practically our whole marriage.*) (14)

[giving time period]

Captain: Kungona uyichaza ngoku? (*And you only report it now?*)

[expressing surprise]

Gloria: Ewe bendisoloko ndinethemba lokuba uza kutshintsha. Azitshintshanga. Endaweni yoko imeko iya isiba mbi. (*Yes. I was always hoping that it would change. That things will get better. It never did. It only got worse instead.*)

[giving reason] ; [expressing hope]

Captain: Ndiyeva ke. Ingaba umyeni wakho unengxaki yokusela utywala ngokugqithisileyo? (*I understand. Does he have an alcohol problem?*) (20)
[expressing compassion] ; [asking about problem]

Gloria: Ewe. Usoloko enxilile qho endiphatha gadalala. (*Yes. He is always drunk when he starts abusing me.*) (22)
[confirming alcohol problem]

Captain: Ingaba ukhona ekhaya umyeni wakho ngoku? (*Is he at home now?*)
[asking about presence]

Gloria: Ewe ukhona. (*Yes. He is.*) (24)
[confirming presence]

Captain: Kulungile. Ndiyeza. Ithini idilesi yakho? (*Okay. I am coming out to question your husband. What is your address?*) (26)
[showing help] ; [asking address]

Gloria: 67 Rattray sitalato (*67 Rattray street*)
[giving address]

Captain: Ndiza kufika kwimizuzu elishumi. (*I will be there in ten minutes.*) (28)
[giving time]

Kwimizuzu elishumi uKapteni uyafika (Ten minutes later Captain arrives at the house where he questions the husband.)

Captain: Ndifuna ukukubuza imibuzo. (*I want to ask you a few questions.*)
[expressing desire]

Mat: Ngantoni? (*About what?*) (30)
[expressing uncertainty]

Captain: Ngokuphatha gadalala umfazi wakho. (*The fact that you are abusing your wife.*)
[giving clarity]

Mat: Hayi andimphathi gadalala. (*No. I'm not.*) (32)
[expressing denial]

Captain: Andicingi ukuba kukho umntu onokuxoka ngale nto. (*I don't think someone will lie about it.*) (34)
[expressing thoughts]

Mat: Ngokuba kutheni? (*Why not?*)
[asking reason]

Ukapteni angawuhoyi umbuzo. (Captain ignores the question)

- Captain: Ingaba uyiphatha gadalala inkosikazi yakho? (*Are you abusing your wife?*)
[asking about abuse]
- Mat: Hayi (*No*) (37)
[expressing denial]
- Captain: Uyasela? (*Do you use alcohol?*)
[asking information]
- Mat: Ewe. Ngumbuzo mni lowo. (*Yes. What kind of question is that?*) (39)
[expressing admittance] ; [expressing sarcasm]
- Captain: Uyanxila xa usele? (*Do you get drunk when you use alcohol?*)
[asking information]
- Mat: Hayi (*No*) (41)
[expressing denial]
- Captain: Nakanye? (*Never?*)
[asking reassurance]
- Mat is getting uncomfortable*
- Mat: Hayi (*No*) (43)
[giving reassurance]
- Captain: Andiqinisekanga ngalo nto. (*I'm not so sure about that.*)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Mat: Jonga, andizi kuvumela umntu endingamaziyo aze kundityhola endlwini yam.
(*Look. I won't stand some stranger accusing me of things in my own house.*)
[expressing desire]
- Captain: Uziva unetyala? (*Feeling guilty about something?*) (47)
[asking about guilt]
- Mat: Ngokuqinisekileyo. (*Certainly not.*)
[expressing denial]
- Captain: Ndinga ukuba kufanele uhambe nam siye esikhululweni samapolisa.
Mhlawumbi ungaxoka kwabanye abantu kodwa hayi kum. (*I think you should come with me to the police station. Maybe you can lie to other people, but it doesn't work with me.*) (52)
[expressing desire]
- Mat: Andihambi (*I'm not going.*)
[expressing refusal]

Captain: Kanti uyahamba (*Yes, you are.*) (54)
[expressing force]

*UKapteni uyasokola ukumkhonkxa uMat ude aphumelele aye naye esikhululweni samapolisa.
(Captain struggles to get Mat cuffed, but he succeeds and takes him to the
police station.)*

4.3.8.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-3 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because it contains the task of greeting and assistance is offered. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the complainant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [-prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Molo** and **Ndingakunceda njani** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. Therefore, this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 4-54 form part of the questioning and narrating phase. The communication in this phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. The communication between the police official and the culprit is also in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. There occurs reasoning between the police official and the culprit in lines 53-54. Therefore, it represents the [- no reasoning] feature. A considerable amount of information is given to the police official by the complainant. It thus represents the [+ few elements] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official questions the complainant, the complainant gives information concerning the case and the police official questions the culprit. It thus represents the [- single task] feature. The police official does not do any planning. Therefore, this segment represents the [-planning] feature. The complainant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, it represents the [+ prior knowledge] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. Lines 4-20, 23-39, 47 and 54 contain simple sentences. **Ngokwasemzimbeni, Nangokwesondo, Ewe, Ngantoni, Hayi, Uyasela, Nakanye, Ngokuqinisekileyo, Azitshintshanga, Ndiyeza** and **Andihambi** are examples of mono-clausal sentences.

Usoloko enxilile qho endiphatha gadalala is a complex sentence. **Usoloko enxilile** is the independent clause and **qho endiphatha gadalala** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the indicative present tense. **Andizi kuvumela umntu endingamaziyo aze kundityhola endlwini yam** is also an example of a complex sentence. **Andizi kuvumela umntu endingamaziyo aze kundityhola** is the independent clause and **kundityhola endlwini** is the dependent clause. **Ithini idilesi yakho** is an example of a sentence that is learnt as a holistic chunk. These sentences have a high level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

This dialogue does not contain a closing phase since greeting does not take place.

4.3.8.2 Task typology

Dialogue 8 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (complainant) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official), but which he needs to know in order to complete the task, i.e. to get all the information concerning the abuse of the complainant.

The distribution of information results in a two-way flow of information. The one participant Y (police official) requests the information and participant X (complainant) supplies the information. This configuration of features corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police official and complainant) work toward a convergent goal, namely to give and get as many information as possible concerning the abuse and a single outcome, i.e. to punish the complainant's abusive husband. This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

Lines 29-54 correspond with interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1. The suspect does not cooperate with the police official. The suspect is obstinate when the police official investigates the case. He does not supply the required information. Furthermore, these lines correspond with goal orientation 3b and outcome option 4b in Table 3-1. The police official wants to solve the case about the abuse, but the suspect does not want the case to be solved and therefore the suspect stays obstinate. In the light of these actions, more than one outcome is possible. The suspect can either get away with the abuse, or he can be caught.

4.3.9 Dialogue 9

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, interaction takes place between three participants, i.e. between the police official and the complainant and between the two police officials. The complainant phones the police to report the car break. The two police officials go out to the scene in order to investigate the case and to obtain clarity concerning the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Usemsebenzini ngokuhlwa xa ufumana umnxeba. Umntu othile uqhekeza imoto. Ufumana iinkcukacha, apho kwenzeka khona oku, nini, njalo njalo. Ubuza umntu ngeenkcukacha zakhe phambi kokubiza elinye ipolisa ukuze nibebabini niphande ngeli tyala. Nenza izicwangciso malunga nendawo eniza kudibana kuyo nize emva koko niye kule ndawo yentlekele. Nobabini nibuza imibuzo malunga nale moto kwaye nenza amalungiselelo okuba kuthunyelwe umntu aye kuthatha iminwe.

You are on duty in the evening when you receive a call. Someone broke into a car. You get the details, i.e. where it happened, when, etc. You ask the person's personal details before you call another police man so that you are two to investigate the case. You arrange where to

meet each other and both of you go out to the scene. Both of you ask questions concerning the car and you arrange that someone will be sent to take fingerprints.

Unomyayi akhaleuye uye uphendule unomyayi. (The phone rings and you answer the phone.)

Inspector: Molo. NguMhloli uBrown othethayo. (*Hallo. Inspector Brown speaking.*) (1)
[greeting] ; [introducing]

Sam: Ewe. Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto yam. Ndingathanda ukuyixela. (*Hallo. Somebody broke into my car. I would like to report it.*) (3)
[greeting] ; [reporting case] ; [expressing desire]

Inspector: Yenzeke phi? (*Where did it happen?*)
[asking place]

Sam: Endlwini yam. (*At my house.*) (5)
[giving place]

Inspector: Uhlala phi? (*Where do you stay?*)
[asking place of home]

Sam: eStellenbosch (*In Stellenbosch*) (7)
[giving place of home]

Inspector: Ithini idilesi yakho? (*What is your address?*)
[asking address]

Sam: 178 Dorp isitilato (*178 Dorp street*) (9)
[giving address]

Inspector: Kulungile. Ndiza kuhamba ndiyokubiza umntu endisebenza naye kwaye siza kubuya kwangoku. (*Okay. I am going to call my colleague and then we will come out immediately.*) (12)
[explaining happenings]

Sam: Kulungile. Enkosi kakhulu. (*Okay. Thank you very much.*)
[expressing thankfulness]

Inspector: Ndingazifumana iinombolo zefowuni yakho? (*Can I please have your telephone number?*) (15)
[asking telephone number]

Sam: Ewe, ngokuqinisekileyo. 0824567873 (*Yes, certainly. 082 4567 873*)
[accepting request]

Inspector: Enkosi. Siza kubalapho kwimizuzu elishumi. (*Thank you. We will be there in about ten minutes.*) (18)

[expressing thankfulness] ; [giving time period]

Sam: Kulungile. Enkosi (*Okay. Thank you*)

[expressing thankfulness]

Inspector phones his colleague

The phone is ringing in Inspector Elson's office.

Inspector E: Molo (*Hello*) (20)

[greeting]

Inspector B: Ewe. Ndimamele, Ndifowunelwe ngomnye umntu. Umntu oqhekeze emotweni. Kufuneka sihambe kwangoku siphande msinya ngeli tyala. (*Hello. Listen, I've just received a phone call from someone. Somebody broke into his car. We need to go out immediately to investigate the case.*) (24)

[greeting] ; [giving information about incident] ; [expressing need]

Inspector E: Kulungile. Siza kubonana ezantsi. (*Okay. Meet you down stairs.*)

[showing co-operation]

Inspector B: Kulungile (*Okay*) (26)

[showing co-operation]

Abahloli ababini basendleleni eya kwindawo yesehlo. Emva kwemizuzu emihlanu bayafika kule ndawo yesehlo. Bankqonkqoza kucango lukaSam naye wavula ucango. (The two inspectors are on their way to the scene. Five minutes later they arrive on the scene. They knock on Sam's door and he opens the door.)

Sam: Molo (*Hello*)

[greeting]

Inspector E: Molo. Mhloli Elson. (*Hello. Inspector Elson.*) (28)

[greeting] ; [introducing]

Inspector B: Mhloli Brown (*Inspector Brown*)

[introducing]

Sam: Nceda ungene. (*Please come in*) (30)

[giving invitation]

Inspector E: Enkosi (*Thank you*)

[showing thankfulness]

Inspector B: Enkosi (*Thank you*) (32)
[showing thankfulness]

Bahlala phantsi (They sit down)

Inspector E: Uthi kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto yakho? (*You say somebody broke into your car?*) (34)
[asking clarity]

Sam: Ewe (*Yes*)
[giving clarity]

Inspector B: Ingaba imoto yakho ibiphandle okanye eibisegaraji? (*Was your car outside or in the garage?*) (37)
[asking information]

Sam: Ibingaphandle endleleni. (*It was outside on the driveway.*)
[giving information]

Inspector E: Yenzeke nini le nto? (*When did it happen?*) (39)
[asking time]

Sam: Yenzeke phakathi kwentsimbi yesihlanu ukufika kwam ekhaya ndisuka emsebenzini nentsimbi yesibhozo xa ukuphuma kwam phandle ndisiya kufaka imoto egaraji. (*It must have happened between 5 o'clock when I came home from work and 8 o'clock when I went out to pull the car in the garage.*) (43)
[giving time]

Inspector B: Ingaba kukho abakubileyo? (*Did they steal anything?*)
[asking about stolen items]

Sam: Ewe. Babe unomathotholo wemoto. (*Yes. They stole the car radio.*) (45)
[giving information]

Inspector E: Kuphelele apho? (*Is that all?*)
[expressing uncertainty]

Sam: Ewe. Kukhangeleka ngolo hlobo. (*Yes. It looks like it.*) (47)
[giving clarity]

Inspector B: Singakhe siye kukhangela emotweni? (*Can we go and have a look at the car?*)
[asking permission]

Sam: Ewe, ngokuqinisekileyo (*Yes, certainly.*) (49)
[giving permission]

Bayaphuma baya emotweni. (They go out to the car.)

- Inspector E: Kubonakala ngathi bebeyazi into ebebeyenza. (*It looks like they knew what they were doing.*) (51)
[giving opinion]
- Inspector B: Ewe. Basebenzise ucingo ukuvula ucango. (*Yes. They used wire to open the door.*) (53)
[agreeing]
- Sam: Ewe. Balushiye phantsi. (*Yes. They left it on the ground.*)
[giving information]
- Inspector E: Oh ewe. Ndiyabona ngoku. (*Oh yes. I see now.*) (55)
[showing agreement]
- Inspector B: Ingaba imoto yakho inalo ivuso? (*Does your car have an alarm?*)
[asking information]
- Sam: Hayi, ayinalo. (*No, it doesn't.*) (57)
[confirming information]
- Inspector E: Kufuneka sithumele umntu aye kuthatha ushicilelo lweminwe. (*We will have to send somebody out to take fingerprints.*) (59)
[explaining happenings]
- Sam: Kulungile. Intle loo nto. (*Okay. That is fine.*)
[expressing thankfulness]
- Inspector B: Siza kuthumela umntu kusasa ngomso zisuka nje. (*We will send somebody out tomorrow morning first thing.*) (62)
[giving time of happenings]
- Sam: Kulungile. Ndiza kubalapho. Ndingayishiya imoto phandle okanye ndiyifake egaraji? (*Okay. I will be here. Should I leave the car outside or pull it in the garage?*) (65)
[expressing thankfulness] ; [asking advice]
- Inspector E: Siza kunceda ngoku uyifake egaraji. Kufuneka sisebenzise isingxobo sokufudumeza isandla. Kungekunjalo ushicilelo lweminwe yakho luza kugcwalisa indawo yonke emotweni. (*We will help you now to get it in the garage. We have to use gloves. Otherwise your fingerprints will also be on the car.*) (69)
[offering help] ; [giving explanation]

Sam: Ndiyazi. Enkosi kakhulu ngokuza kundinceda, nangexesha lakho. (*I understand. Thank you very much for coming and for your time.*) (71)
[expressing thankfulness]

4.3.9.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-3 and 27-32 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because it contains the task of greeting, request (by the complainant) and politeness (by the complainant). Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the complainant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 4-9 and 33-69 form part of this phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant in lines 4-9 and 56-60 is in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. Lines 10-55 are in the past tense [+ there-and-then]. Reasoning occurs in line 50-55 and therefore it represents the [- no reasoning] feature. a considerable amount of information is provided and **kusasa ngomso** is an example of a spatial referential expression and therefore it represents the [- few elements] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level segment of developmental complexity.

The police man first questions the complainant and then two police men goes out to the scene to further question the complainant and to investigate the case. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature. Planning takes place in this segment, because the police official plans to send out somebody in order to take fingerprints [+ planning]. The complainant has to draw on prior knowledge when he/ she explain what happened. Therefore, it represents the [+ prior knowledge] feature. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component three according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a low performative and high developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences, thereby illustrating a low level of syntactic complexity. **Uhlala phi** and **Ithini idilesi yakho** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. **Ewe, kulungile, Ndiza kubalapho** and **ilungile** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 4-9, 33-34, 38-39, 44-51, 54-57 contains simple sentences. In the sentence **Siza kuthumela umntu kusasa ngomso zisuka nje, kusasa ngomso** is an adverb of time.

Kufuneka sithumele umntu aye kuthatha ushicilelo lweminwe is a complex sentence, because it consists of one independent clause and one dependent clause. **Kufuneka sithumele umntu** is the independent clause and **aye kuthatha ushicilelo lweminwe** is the dependent clause. Both of the clauses are in the indicative present tense. **Ingaba imoto yakho ibiphandle okanye ibisegaraji** is also a complex sentence, because **Ingaba imoto yakho ibiphandle** is the independent clause and **okanye ibisegaraji** is the dependent clause. **Ndingayishiya imoto phandle okanye ndiyifake egaraji** is an example of a compound sentence. **Ndingayishiya imoto phandle** and **ndiyifake egaraji** are the two independent clauses which are in the indicative present tense. These sentences have a higher level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 17-19 and 70-71 form part of this phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment only contains one task, i.e. expressing gratitude. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the complainant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. **Ndiyazi** is an example of a mono-clausal sentence.

Enkosi kakhulu ngokuza kundinceda, nangexesha lakho is an example of a complex sentence, because it consists of an independent clause, as well a dependent clause. **Enkosi kakhulu ngokuza kundinceda** is the independent clause and **nangexesha lakho** is the dependent clause. This complex sentence consists of a high level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment predominantly contains simple sentences, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.9.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (complainant) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participants (police officials), but which they need to know in order to complete the task, i.e. to get all the information about the car break.

The distribution of information results in a two-way flow of information. Two participants Y (police officials) request the information and participant X (complainant) supplies the

information. This configuration of features corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. The interactants (police officials and complainant) work toward a convergent goal, namely to get as many information as possible in order to trace the suspect(s) and a single outcome, i.e. to catch the suspect. This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

This dialogue is also an example of opinion-exchange (lines 50-54). The participants (two police officials) are engaged in discussion and exchange of ideas. The task entails a two-way flow of information. Each participant (two police officials) is interacting (+). This interaction is carried out under the Table 3-1 categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c. Both of the police men are agreeing on the opinion that the suspects know what they are doing.

In this opinion-exchange task interaction is required (+). There is one outcome option (1), because in lines 52-55 there are an agreement on the opinion that is given.

It is also an example of a problem-solving task (lines 58-62). The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, thus corresponding to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible ($X=Y$), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to solve the problem, i.e. to trace the victim and catch the suspect. In this dialogue both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task, i.e. to send somebody out to take fingerprints so that the suspect can eventually be caught. Both of the participants work toward a convergent goal, i.e. to send someone out for the fingerprints and single outcome, i.e. to trace the victim and catch the suspect. Therefore, it also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

4.3.10 Dialogue 10

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this dialogue communication takes place between three participants. First it is between a police official and the complainant and after the police official refers the complainant to another police official, communication takes place between that specific police official and the complainant. The complainant comes into the office of the police official to report his/ her stolen car. The police official questions the complainant in order to obtain clarity concerning the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Kubiwe imoto. Usemsebenzini xa kungena umntu esikhululweni samapolisa eze kuchaza ngemoto yakhe ebiweyo. Wena uyambuza ukuba ibiwe nini imoto yakhe, ibiwe phi na imoto, nangeenkukacha ezifana nezi: umbala wemoto nohlobo lwemoto, njalo njalo. Kananjalo kufuneka uthathe iinkukacha zakhe ukuze ukwazi ukunxibelelana naye, ukuze umana umazisa ngokuqhubekayo. Kufuneka abhale isibhengezo.

A car was stolen. You are on duty when a person arrives at the police station to report his stolen car. You ask her when her car was stolen, where her car was stolen and all the information concerning the car, i.e. the colour of the car, the type of car etc. You also get her personal details so that you can contact her and keep her up to date with the happenings. She needs to write a declaration.

- Rebecca: Molo. Ungakwazi ukundinceda. (*Hello. I wonder if you can help me.*) (1)
 [greeting] ; [expressing uncertainty]
- Captain: Molo. Ewe? (*Hello. Yes?*)
 [greeting]
- Rebecca: Ndifuna ukuchaza ngemoto yam ebiweyo. (*I want to report my stolen car.*)
 [expressing desire]
- Captain: Kulungile. Andikwazi ukukunceda ngale nto. Kodwa umntu endisebenza naye angakwazi. Ndiza kuthumela kuye. Nguye osebenza ngamatyala alolu hlobo. (*Okay. I can't help you with that. But my colleague can. I am going to send*

you to him. He is in charge in these kinds of cases. (7)

[expressing truth] ; [giving help]

Rebecca: Kulungile. Ndingamfumana phi? (*Okay. Where can I find him?*)

[asking place]

Captain: Kwigumbi lakhe lokusebenza kumgangatho wokuqala. Ukufika kwakho kula mgangatho wokuqala, ujike ekunxele. Igumbi lakhe ngumyango wesibini ekunene. (*His office is upstairs on the first floor. Once you are on the first floor, you turn left. His office is the second door on your right.*) (12)

[giving place] ; [giving directions]

Rebecca: Enkosi kakhulu! (*Thank you very much!*)

[expressing thankfulness]

Captain: Wamkelekile. (*You are welcome.*) (14)

[expressing gratification]

Rebecca walks up stairs to the captain's office and knocks on the door.

Captain: Ngena! (*Come in!*)

[giving invitation]

Rebecca: Molo mnumzana. Umnumzana okumgangatho ongezantsi undithumele kuwe. (*Hello Captain. The captain down stairs referred me to you.*) (17)

[greeting] ; [giving reason]

Captain: Ewe, ndingakunceda ngantoni? (*Yes, how can I help you?*)

[offering assistance]

Rebecca: Imoto yam ibiwe kwaye ndize kukuchaza ngale meko. (*My car was stolen and I want report it.*) (20)

[expressing desire]

Captain: Kulungile. Ibiwe nini? (*Okay. When was your car stolen?*)

[expressing acceptance] ; [asking time]

Rebecca: Inokuba yenzeke phakathi kwaphezolo nale ntsasa phambi kokuba ndivuke. Phezolo ndifike ekhaya ngo-10 kwaye ndithe xa bendifuna ukuhamba ngale ntsasa ngentsimbi yethoba, ndaqaphela xa ndiphuma phandle ukuba imoto ayisekho. (*Well it must have happened sometime between last night and this morning when I woke up. Last night I came home at about 10 o'clock and this morning I wanted to leave at 9 o'clock, but when I came outside my car was*

- gone.*) (28)
[giving time] ; [giving reason]
- Captain: Ihlala phandle? (*Does your car stand outside?*)
[asking information]
- Rebecca: Ewe. Ndirenta iflethi engenazigarage. Ngoko ke imoto yam ihlala ngaphandle esitalatweni. (*Yes. I am renting a flat and there aren't garages. So the car is parked outside in the street.*) (32)
[giving confirmation] ; [giving reason]
- Captain: Ndiyabona. Injani imoto yakho? (*I see. What kind of car do you have?*)
[asking type of car]
- Rebecca: Ndiqhuba iToyota. (*I drive a Toyota*) (34)
[giving type]
- Captain: Umbala unjani wona? (*And the colour of the car?*)
[asking colour]
- Rebecca: Umaruni (Ubomvu okwebhitruthi) (36)
[giving colour]
- Captain: Ithini inombolo yokubhaliswa kwayo? (*What is the registration number of your car?*)
[asking registration number]
- Rebecca: CAM 356714 (38)
[giving registration number]
- Captain: Usuka eCaledon? (*Do you come from Caledon?*)
[asking town]
- Rebecca: Hayi, ndihlala eGeorge, kodwa ndisebenzisa ekamakhulu wam, ngoba eyam inengxaki. (*No, I'm from George, but I am using my grandmother's car, because my car has problems.*) (42)
[giving town] ; [giving reason]
- Captain: Kulungile. Ndiyakuva. Imoto yakho inayo iInshorensi. (*Okay, I understand. Is the car insured?*) (44)
[expressing understanding] ; [asking about insurance]
- Rebecca: Ewe. Inayo. (*Yes. It is.*)
[giving confirmation]
- Captain: Kulungile. Ndifuna iinkcukacha zakho ukuze sikwazi ukukwazisa ngokwenzekayo. (*Okay. I need to take your personal details so that we can*

- keep you up to date of what is happening.)* (48)
[expressing need]
- Rebecca: Kulungile (*Okay*)
[accepting need]
- Captain: Ungubani igama lakho? (*What is your name?*) (50)
[asking name]
- Rebecca: Rebecca
[giving name]
- Captain: Ifani? (*Surname?*) (52)
[asking surname]
- Rebecca: Roberts
[giving surname]
- Captain: Ithini idilesi yakho? (*What is your address?*) (54)
[asking address]
- Rebecca: 37 Banghoek
[giving address]
- Captain: Ivakala iqhelekile. Akekho omnye umntu ohlala kule dilesi obekhe wabelwa imoto? (*It sounds so familiar. Haven't somebody else's car been stolen there sometime?*) (58)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Rebecca: Ewe. Yimoto yomhlobo yam.
(*Yes, my friends car*)
[giving certainty]
- Captain: Ewe kunjalo. Ngoku ndiyakhumbula. Kodwa bayifumana. (*Yes, that's right. Now I remember. But they got his car back.*) (62)
[expressing remembrance]
- Rebecca: Ewe, bayifumana. (*Yes, they did.*)
[giving confirmation]
- Captain: Ithini inombolo yakho yefowuni? (*What is your telephone number?*) (64)
[asking telephone number]
- Rebecca: 084 5683 456
[giving telephone number]
- Captain: Kulungile. Siza kukwazisa xa kukho okuvelayo kwaye siza kuhlala sikuchazela ngayo yonke into. (*Okay. We will let you know if we find*

- something and we will keep you up to date of everything.)* (68)
[offering help]
- Rebecca: Kulungile. Enkosi. (*Okay. Thank you.*)
[expressing gratefulness]
- Captain: Ungakwazi ukundibhala isibhengezo? (*Can you please write a declaration for me?*) (71)
[asking for declaration]
- Rebecca: Kulungile. Ndiza kwenza njalo. (*Okay. I will.*)
[showing agreement]
- Captain: Enkosi. Ungayigwalisa le fomu kula mgangatho ungezantsi. (*Thank you. You can fill the form in down stairs.*) (74)
[giving information]
- Rebecca: Kulungile. Ndiphinde ndiyibuyisele apha kuwe? (*Okay. And do I bring it back to you?*) (76)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Captain: Hayi, yishiye phaya kula mnumzana ukula mgangatho. (*No, you can leave it with the captain down stairs.*) (78)
[giving certainty]
- Rebecca: Kulungile. Ndiyabulela ngexesha lakho. (*Okay. Thank you for your time.*)
[expressing gratefulness]
- Captain: Wamkelekile. (*You are welcome.*) (80)
[expressing gratification]
- Rebecca: Ube nosuku olumyoli. (*Have a nice day.*)
[showing politeness]
- Captain: Ndiyabulela. Nakuwe ngokunjalo. (*Thank you. You too.*) (82)
[expressing gratefulness]
- Rebecca: Enkosi. (*Thank you*)
[expressing gratefulness]

4.3.10.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-2 and 15-18 form part of this phase. The introductory phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment contains the task of greeting and assistance is offered. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the complainant has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Molo** and **ngena** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Because of the fact that this segment predominantly contains simple sentences, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Questioning and narrating phase

Lines 8-12 and 21-78 form part of this phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication in lines 8-12 and 48-78 takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. The interaction between the police official and the complainant in lines 21-63 takes place in the past tense [+ there-and-then]. No reasoning occurs in this segment and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. The complainant has to draw on prior knowledge when narrating the incident and answering questions about the incident in lines 21-47 [+ prior knowledge]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official questions the complainant about the incident and the police official also requires the personal details of the complainant [- single task]. No planning has to be done in this phase and therefore it represents the [- planning] feature. A considerable amount of information is given to the police official and **ekuseni** and **ebusuku** are examples of spatial referential expressions [- few elements]. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This phase predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. It thus illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. **Ndiyabona**, **kulungile**, **Ewe**, **inayo**, **ndiyakuva** and **enkosi** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. **Ungubani igama lakho** and **Ithini idilesi** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. Lines 8, 21, 29, 33-39, 43-44, 50-

58, 61-64 and 71-76 contain simple sentences. The **-nga-** in **ndingamfumana** is the potential particle.

Inokuba yenzeke phakathi kwaphezolo nale ntsasa phambi kokuba ndivuke is a complex sentence because it contains an independent, as well as a dependent clause. **Inokuba yenzeke phakathi kwaphezolo nale ntsasa phambi kokuba ndivuke** is the independent clause and **phambi kokuba ndivuke** is the dependent clause. In this sentence, **ekuseni** and **ebusuku** is an adverb of time. **Ngoko ke imoto yam ihlala ngaphandle esitalatweni** is another example of a complex sentence. **Ngoko ke imoto yam ihlala ngaphandle** is the independent clause and **esitalatweni** is the dependent clause. **Yishiye phaya kula mnumzana ukula mgangatho** is also a complex sentence. **Yishiye phaya kula mnumzana ukula** is the independent clause and **ukula mgangatho** is the dependent clause. **Ndirenta iflethi engenazigaraji** is a compound sentence, because it consists of two independent clauses. The two independent clauses are **Ndirenta iflethi** and **engenazigaraji** which are in the indicative present tense. These sentences have a higher level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Closing phase

Lines 13-14 and 79-83 form part of the closing phase. The closing phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and in terms of syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the police official and the complainant takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment contains more than one task, i.e. gratitude is expressed and greeting occurs. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she does not have to do any planning, hence neither the police official nor the complainant has to draw on prior

knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

The closing phase predominantly consists of simple sentences. **Wamkelekile, enkosi, kulungile** and **ndiyabulela** are examples of sentences that are learnt as holistic chunks. Therefore, this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

4.3.10.2 Task typology

Dialogue 10 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. The one participant holds information which is unknown to the other participant. In lines 1-14; 70-78 one participant X (police official) holds the information which is unknown to the other participant Y (complainant). In lines 15-69 the one participant Y (complainant) holds information which is unknown to the other participant X (police official).

This task entails a two-way flow of information. This configuration of features corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both participants (police official and complainant) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. both wants to obtain information about the stolen car and the officer who can offer help respectively and a single outcome, i.e. to give and get as many information as possible in order to get the stolen car back. Therefore, they are also meeting descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

4.4 Conclusion

The analysis in terms of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis predominantly illustrates a high performative and low developmental complexity. Therefore, the communicative tasks predominantly present the [+ few elements], [+ no reasoning] and [+ here-and-now] features along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension, and the [- planning], [- prior knowledge] and [- single task] features along the resource-dispersing (performative) dimension of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis. More complex cognitive constructions can be learned at a later stage, as it requires much more attention. Before these more complex cognitive constructions can be learned, the existing constructions in the above communicative tasks need to be achieved successfully.

The analysis in terms of syntactic complexity predominantly illustrates examples of a low level of syntactic complexity. The introductory phase and closing phase tend to consist of simple sentences, because reasoning does not occur in these phases. The questioning and narrating phase, in contrast, tend to consist of more complex sentences, as narrating and explaining request longer sentences and therefore more complex grammar.

The type tasks identified in terms of Pica's (1993) task typology, predominantly illustrate examples of information gap tasks. Information gap tasks require a lot of interaction. Therefore, it can be concluded that the communicative tasks predominantly illustrate a high interactivity. There are also examples of opinion-giving and decision-making tasks. These tasks do not have a high interactivity, because interaction is not required. The high interactivity is advantageous in that it helps to develop the communicative skills of learners in order to communicate in the 'real world'.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the communication entailed in the communicative tasks are appropriate for teaching language, i.e. isiXhosa for specific purposes, in this case for police communication.

CHAPTER FIVE

AN ANALYSIS OF POLICE-POLICE COMMUNICATION TASKS

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explore communicative tasks regarding police-police communication in isiXhosa in a specific domain, i.e. the police station. The aim is to determine the discourse structure of police-police communication and to examine these discourse structures in terms of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis (2005), i.e. cognitive complexity and in terms of syntactic complexity. Furthermore, the aim is to explore the communicative tasks in terms of the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993).

This chapter consists of ten communicative tasks of police-police communication. Interaction based on communication outside the classroom, i.e. communication in the 'real world' occurs in these tasks. A needs analysis was done in order to determine the needs and objectives of the police officials who communicate with each other in a specific domain, i.e. the police station. The discourse in these communicative tasks is written accordingly.

5.2 Discourse structure of police-police communication

Each of the dialogues on police-police communication can be divided into three distinct phases, i.e. the introductory phase, the discussion phase and the closing phase. These three phases of the police-police communication tasks can be analysed in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

(i) Introductory phase

The introductory phase in police-police communication is characterised by the two police officials who express the desire to discuss the case. This segment of dialogue typically occurs when the one police official enters another police official's office to discuss the incident. Normally the police officials will ask if the other police official has got time and will request to discuss the case. The communication during this phase comprises of sentences in the present tense.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

The discussion phase is characterised by two police officials who discuss the case and give opinions about the incident. The police officials will also tend to ask questions when something about the incident are not clear. In this way the police officials will obtain detailed information and clarity concerning the case. This phase typically occurs after the introductory phase and after the police official has requested to discuss deliberate information about the case. The police officials will always refer to events which happened in the past. The opinions which are given by the police officials are normally done by using sentences in the present tense.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

This phase is characterised by police officials who either give instructions or make decisions. The closing phase occurs after the police officials have discussed the case. Normally the police official will make a decision on what to do concerning the case, or one of the police officials will go out to the scene once again to investigate the case just in case they have missed something in the previous investigation.

5.3 Analysis of police-police dialogues

Each of the ten communicative tasks is written in isiXhosa. English translations are provided. The analysis in terms of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis (2005) and the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993) is applied to the isiXhosa version of the communicative tasks. A dialogue is provided and after each dialogue, the analysis of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis (2005) and the task typology of Pica *et al* (1993) follows, respectively. Language functions are identified in each dialogue.

5.3.1 Dialogue 1

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, interaction takes place between two participants (police officials). These two police officials have investigated a case concerning an attacking. The two police officials are at the police station and they are discussing the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Owasetyhini wahlaselwa endlwini yakhe. Wena noogxa bakho naya endlwini yakhe kwaye niphandile ngeli tyala. Nibuyela kwisikhululo samapolisa nixakekile nixoxa ngesi sehlo. Niyibona ingaqhelekanga noko ukuba umrhanelwa ahlabe ummelwane kuphela kwaye niyazibuza ukuba ingaba umrhanelwa ebenokumdlwengula lo wasetyhini ukuba ummelwane ebengakhange ave isikhalo sakhe. Nixoxa nangokuba ingaba umrhanelwa ebehleli eyiqwalasele le ndlu ixesha eli. Nenza izicwangciso zokuba niphinde nibonane nalo wasetyhini ukuze nize kumngcambazisa kwakhona nikwazi ukuphanda ngesi sehlo kwakhona.

A woman was attacked in her house. You and your colleague went out to the woman's house and you have investigated the case. You are back at the police station and are busy discussing the situation. You find it strange that the suspect only stabbed the neighbour and you wonder if the suspect would have raped the woman if the neighbour didn't hear her screaming. You discuss whether the suspect was watching the house. You arrange that you see the woman again so that you can question her again and investigate the scene again.

Colonel 1: Andikholelwa ukuba abantu basashiya iingcango zabo zivuliwe. Ingakumbi kweli lizwe siphila kulo ngoku. *(I can't believe that people still leave their doors open. Especially in the world we're living in now.)* (3)

[expressing surprise]

Colonel 2: Ewe. Yitsh'uphinda. *(Yes. You can say that again.)*

[agreeing with statement]

Colonel 1: Kuyamangalisa ukuba umrhanelwa uhlabane ummelwane yedwa hayi lo wasetyhini. *(It's strange that the suspect only stabbed the neighbour and not*

the woman.) (7)

[expressing strangeness]

Colonel 2: Mhlawumbi ubone ummelwane njengesiphazamiso. (*Maybe he saw the neighbour as a threat.*) (9)

[expressing opinion]

Colonel 1: Mhlawumbi. Kodwa ebembambe ngezi zakhe lo wasetyhini. Amatyeli amaninzi umrhandelwa udla ngokulimaza lowo ambambileyo. (*Maybe. But he had the woman in his hands. Usually the suspect will harm the person he's got in his hands.*) (13)

[expressing opinion]

Colonel 2: Akunyanzelekanga. Ebembambele kanye kule ndawo ebefuna kuyo. Ebengenakwenza kwanto. Ukanti ubesazi ukuba ummelwane kwelinye icala unokumpazamisa, kungoko aye wahlaba yena kune nkosikazi le. (*Not necessarily. He had the woman exactly where he wanted her. She could do absolutely nothing. The neighbour on the other hand could do something and that is why he stabbed him instead of the woman.*)

[disagreeing with opinion] ; [expressing opinion]

Colonel 1: Ewe, ndiyakuva. Andisakhumbuli, ebethe umrhandelwa lo ebepethe umpu kanene? (*Yes, I see your point. I can't remember, did she say the suspect had a gun?*) (21)

[agreeing with opinion] ; [expressing uncertainty]

Colonel 2: Hayi, isitshetshe sodwa. (*No, only a knife.*)

[giving certainty]

Colonel 1: Ucinga ukuba ebenokumdlwengula ukuba ummelwane ebengakhange asive isikhalo? (*Do you think he would have raped her if the neighbour didn't hear her screaming?*) (25)

[asking opinion]

Colonel 2: Ewe, ngokuqinisekileyo. Akukho mathandabuzo. Njengokuba utshilo, siphila kwilizwe lobundlobongela. (*Yes, definitely. There is no doubt about it. Like you said, we live in a cruel world.*)

[confirming opinion] ; [confirming statement]

Colonel 1: Ndiyazibuza ukuba ebekhangela ntoni. (*I wonder what he was looking for.*)

[expressing wonder]

- Colonel 2: Uthetha ukuthini? (*What do you mean?*)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Colonel 1: Ndiyazibuza mhlawumbi ebekhangela nto ithile anokuyiba. (*I wonder whether he was looking for something specifically to steal.*) (32)
[expressing wonder]
- Colonel 2: Ndiyakuthandabuza oko. Ndicinga uzibonele ithuba nje. Ucango beluvuliwe, ngoko ke ebenokuzingenela enze unothanda. (*I doubt that. I think he just saw an opportunity. The door was open, so he could just walk in and do whatever he wanted to do.*)
[expressing opinion]
- Colonel 1: Ewe, kunganjalo. Kodwa ngoku umbuzo uyavela: Wazi njani ukuba ucango beluvuliwe? (*Yes, it could be. But now the question arises: How did he know the door was open?*) (39)
[agreeing with opinion] ; [asking reason]
- Colonel 2: Ngokucacileyo ebemjongile. Kwaye uyazi ukuba ulishiya livuliwe ucango xa ehamba iimpahla. (*Obviously he was watching her. And he knows that she leaves the door open when she does the washing.*)
[giving reason]
- Colonel 1: Ucinga ukuba wakhe wamjonga ngaphambili? (*Do you think he watched her before?*) (44)
[asking opinion]
- Colonel 2: Ewe, ndicinga sekulithuba eyijongile la ndlu. (*Yes, I think he was watching the house quite a while now.*)
[confirming opinion]
- Colonel 1: Ngoko ke kutheni kungona ethatha ithuba lokwenza oku? (*Then why did he only take his chance now?*)
[asking reason]
- Colonel 2: Mhlawumbi kusoloko kukho izihlobo xa ejonge indlu. (*Maybe the rest of her family was at home every time he watched the house.*)
[giving reason]
- Colonel 1: Ewe, kunganjalo. Oku kubonakalisa ukuba ebesazi kwamnyakazo bebewenza. Ebesazi ngqo ukuba kukho bani ngaxesha liphi naxa ahleli yedwa. (*Yes, it could be. It also means that he knew every movement of them. He knew exactly*)

who was there at what time and when she was alone.)

[agreeing with reason] ; [expressing opinion]

Colonel 2: Ewe. (*Yes.*) (55)

[agreeing with opinion]

Colonel 1: Yiyo lo nto ndicinga ebefuna nto ithile. (*That is why I wonder if he wanted something specific.*) (57)

[expressing reason]

Colonel 2: Andazi. Ngoko bekutheni ukuze alinde de owasetyhini abe yedwa? Ukuba bekukho nto ithile ebeyifuna, ebengalinda de kungabikho mntu. (*I don't know. Then why was he waiting till she was alone? If he wanted something specific, he would have waited till no one was there.*) (61)

[expressing uncertainty] ; [asking reason] ; [expressing opinion]

Colonel 1: Ewe, uchan`ucwethe. (*Yes, you've got a point.*)

[agreeing with opinion]

Colonel 2: Andazi. Konke oku kuyamangalisa. (*I don't know. This whole thing is a mystery.*) (63)

[expressing uncertainty]

Colonel 1: Ewe. Kunjalo. (*Yes. It is.*)

[agreeing with statement]

Colonel 2: Ucinga fan`ukuba angaphinda abuye? (*Do think he will come back again?*)

[asking opinion]

Colonel 1: Andiyazi. Andiqondi angaphinda. (*I don't know. I doubt that he will.*)

[expressing uncertainty]

Colonel 2: Andiyazi ukuba singayifumana njani le ndoda. Siyalwazi uhlanga lwayo, kodwa asiyazi inkangeleko yakhe. (*I don't know how we are going to catch this guy. We know what his race is, but we don't know how he looks.*) (69)

[expressing uncertainty]

Colonel 1: Kuthethe ukuba asinakuyikhangela le ndoda. (*Which means that we can't trace the guy.*) (71)

[expressing faint-heartedness]

Colonel 2: Ngqo. (*Exactly.*)

[agreeing with statement]

Colonel 1: Kumele kubekho indlela. Asinakumyeka abaleke. Ngubani owaziyo, okungenzeka ukuba ujonge elinye ixhoba lakhe kwenye indawo. (*There has to*

be a way. We can't let this guy get away. Who knows, somewhere he is probably watching his next target.)

[expressing desire]

Colonel 2: Yingcinga eyoyikisayo. (*Scary thought.*) (77)

[expressing feelings]

Colonel 1: Ewe, yiyo. (*Yes, it is.*)

[agreeing with statement]

Colonel 2: Kufanele siphindele kulowa wasetyhini kwakhona. Mhlawumbi kukho into eza kumbhaqisa. Mhlawumbi singayifumana imibhalo yeminwe okanye enye into. Ebenxibe izikhuseli zandla? (*We have to go back to the woman again. Maybe there is something that will give him away. Maybe we can find finger prints or something. Did he wear gloves?*) (83)

[expressing desire] ; [expressing hope] ; [asking facts]

Colonel 1: Andazi. Asikhange simbuze. (*I don't know. We never asked her.*)

[expressing uncertainty]

Colonel 2: Hayi, asikhange. Mfowunele umxelele ukuba sifuna ukumbuza kwakhona kwaye sifuna ukuphanda ngesi siganeko kwakhona. (*No, we didn't. Phone her and tell her we want to question her again and that we want to investigate the scene again.*)

[giving instructions]

Colonel 1: Kulungile. (*Okay*) (89)

[accepting instructions]

Colonel 2: Zama ukwenza ukuba kube semva kwemini. Kungangcono xa simfumana kwangoku. (*Try to make it for this afternoon. The sooner we catch this guy, the better.*)

[giving instructions]

Colonel 1: Ndiyavumelana nawe. (*I agree.*)

[agreeing with statement]

Colonel 2: Undazise. Ndiza kube ndise-ofisini yam. (*Let me know. I'll be in my office.*)

[giving instructions] ; [giving place]

Colonel 1: Kulungile. (*Okay.*) (94)

[accepting instructions]

5.3.1.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-4 form part of the introductory phase. These sentences can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official carries out a single task, i.e. they only express an opinion. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. In the sentence **Andikholelwa ukuba abantu basashiya iingcango zabo zivuliwe, ukuba** is the complementiser. In the word **Ingakumbi, -nga-** is the potential particle.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 5-84 form part of this phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police officials discuss events in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] dimension. The communication in lines 26-28, 30, 62-78 takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. The two police officials reason about the incident (lines 13-21, 31-35, 49-55) and therefore it represents the [- no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when discussing the incident. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level segment of developmental complexity.

The two police officials has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when they discuss the incident. The police officials give information while the discussion takes place and they give opinions about the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component four according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and high developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Mhlawumbi**, **Andazi** and **Akunyanzelekanga** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 8-9, 22, 29, 30, 43-44, 47-48, 62-62, 66, 73-76 and 84 contain simple sentences. In lines 8-9 **-bona** appears to be the deficient verb. In the sentence **Ngubani owaziyo, okungenzeka ukuba ujonge elinye ixhoba lakhe kwenye indawo, -jonga** appears to be a deficient verb.

Kuyamangalisa ukuba umrhanelwa uhlabe ummelwane yedwa endaweni yalo wasetyhini is a complex sentence. **Umrhanelwa uhlabe ummelwane yedwa** is the independent clause and **Kuyamangalisa** and **endaweni yalo wasetyhini** are the two dependent clauses. In this sentence, **ukuba** is the complementiser. **Ucinga ukuba ebenokumdlwengula ukuba ummelwane ebengakhange asive isikhalo** is also a complex sentence. **Ucinga ukuba ebenokumdlwengula** is the independent clause and **ukuba ummelwane ebengakhange asive isikhalo** is the dependent clause. **Ukuba** is the complementiser in this sentence. **Njengokuba usitsho, siphila kwilizwe lobundlobongela** is another example of a complex sentence. **Njengokuba usitsho** is the dependent clause and **siphila kwilizwe lobundlobongela** is the independent clause. The independent clause is in the indicative present tense. A further example of a complex sentence is **Kwaye uyazi ukuba ulishiya livuliwe ucango xa ehlamba iimpahla. Kwaye uyazi ukuba ulishiya livuliwe ucango** is the independent clause which is in the present tense and **xa ehlamba iimpahla** is the dependent clause. **Ndicinga sekulithuba eyijongile la ndlu** is also a complex sentence with **sekulithuba eyijongile la ndlu** as the independent clause and **Ndicinga** is the dependent clause. **Yiyo lo nto ndicinga ebefuna nto ithile** is seen as a complex sentence, because **ndicinga ebefuna nto ithile** is the independent clause and **Yiyo lo nto** is the dependent clause.

Ucango beluvuliwe, ngoko ke ebenokuzingenela enze unothanda is a compound sentence because it consists of two independent clauses. **Ucango beluvuliwe** and **ngoko ke ebenokuzingenela enze unothanda** are the two independent clauses. These two clauses are in the past tense.

The above examples of complex and compound sentences, illustrate a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 85-94 represent this phase. This phase can also be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature along the resource-directing dimension. This segment entails no causal reasoning [+ no reasoning] and there are no spatial referential expressions [+ few elements]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment a decision is being made, i.e. to go out and investigate the case again. There is thus only one task that is being carried out [+ single task]. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. Furthermore, no planning is needed during this phase [- planning]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Ndiyavumelana nawe, Undazise** and **Kulungile** are examples of mono-clausal sentences.

Mfowunele umxelele sifuna ukumbuza kwakhona kwaye sifuna ukuphanda ngesi siganeko kwakhona is a compound, because it contains three independent clauses. **Mfowunele** and **umxelele sifuna ukumbuza kwakhona** and **sifuna ukuphanda ngesi siganeko kwakhona** are the three independent clauses. These three clauses are in the

indicative present tense. This compound sentence is syntactically complex, thus illustrating a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

5.3.1.2 Task typology

Dialogue 1 is an example of a predominantly opinion-giving task. The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion. Therefore, this task corresponds to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to form an opinion. This dialogue demonstrates how both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task, i.e. to try and figure out who the suspect is, the reason for the specific actions of the suspect and to eventually catch the suspect. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, it is likely that a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue each interactant is equally interacting. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-). Dialogue 1 shows how the participants (police officials) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to eventually catch the suspect. Therefore, it corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

Line 19-22 is an example of an information gap task. One participant (police official 1) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official 2), but which is needed to complete the task, i.e. in order to confirm the weapon that was used.

It is an example of a two-way flow of information. One participant (police official 1) requires all of the information concerning the weapon, while the other participant (police official 2) supplies the required information concerning the weapon that was used. The requiring and compliance of information corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant

relationship 2b in Table 3-1. The participants work toward a convergent goal and single outcome, i.e. the confirmation of the weapon. Therefore, it also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

5.3.2 Dialogue 2

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, interaction takes place between two participants (police officials). The two police officials are having a discussion in which both of them are sharing a considerable amount of information concerning the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Umfundi kwiYunivesithi yaseStellenbosch ubulewe. Ityala beliphandwa ngoku uxoxa ngokwaziyo kunye nogxa wakho. Uxoxa ngesixhobo sokubulala kunye nenyano yokuba intombaza ibixhatshazwa sisingqandamathe sayo ngaphambili. Nobabini nixoxa ngeminwe eshicilelweyo kunye neenyawo ezifumanekileyo nangenyaniso yokuba akukho namnye ombonileyo umrhanelwa esuka emsebenzini ngemini yoku kugetyengwa komfundi. Ukhananyile ukuba amapolisa atyholiwe ngokungenzi uphando lwawo kakuhle.

A student at the University of Stellenbosch was murdered. The case was investigated and you are discussing the information with your colleague. You discuss the murder weapon and the fact that the girl was abused by her boyfriend before. The two of you discuss the finger prints and foot print that were found and also the fact that no one saw the suspect leave his work on the day of the murder. You mention that the police are being accused for not doing their investigation work properly.

- Captain 1: Masijonge kuyo yonke inkcazelo esinayo ukuza kuthi ga ngoku. *(Let's look at all the information we have at our disposal thus far.)* (2)
[giving instructions]
- Captain 2: Kulungile. *(Okay)*
[accepting instructions]
- Captain 1: Wabulawa ngomhla we-16 kweyoKwindla kwigumbi lakhe eWelgevonden eStellenbosch. *(She was murdered on 16 March in her apartment in Welgevonden in Stellenbosch.)* (6)
[giving date]
- Captain 2: Isinqandamathe sakhe siyatyholwa ngokugwintwa kwakhe, kodwa safumaniseka singenatyala. *(Her boyfriend is accused of the murder, but he was found innocent.)* (9)
[confirming suspect]
- Captain 1: Ndisacinga ukuba isesisinqandamathe sakhe. Bendicinga ukuba ebethe ti ngokugqithisileyo nguye. *(I still think it was her boyfriend. I think he was very obsessive.)* (11)
[expressing opinion]
- Captain 2: Ugetyengelwe emsindweni ngenene. *(It was definitely a murder out of anger.)*
[confirming type of murder]
- Captain 1: Ewe. *(Yes)*
[showing agreement]
- Captain 2: Usebenzise isihombiso ukumbulala. *(He used an ornament hammer to kill her.)* (16)
[confirming murder weapon]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Ibiyihamile awamnika yona ngemini yakhe yokuzalwa. *(Yes. It was the hammer which she gave to him on his birthday.)*
[confirming present]
- Captain 2: Umama wakhe ebekrokra ukuba ebesoloko embetha. Waya endlwini ngenye impelaveki kwaye enempahla zokulala apho umama wakhe wambona enemigruzuko neziva ezingalweni. Umama wakhe wambuza malunga nayo kodwa wathi ungqubeke elucangweni. *(Her mother suspects that he used to hit her. She went home one weekend and when she had her pajamas on her mother saw bruises on her arms. Her mother asked her about it and she said*

she walked into a door.)

[suspicion of abuse]

Captain 1: Ngokukhawuleza yena nomhlobo wesinqandamathe sakhe baqale ukuthandana kwaye yena akakhange awuthande lo mbono kwaphela. Uye wafuna ukumshiya, kodwa wagwintwa phambi kokuba enze njalo. (*Apparently she and her boy friend's best friend started to like each other and he didn't like that idea at all. She wanted to leave him, but she was killed before she could.*)

[confirming another relationship]

Captain 2: Iminwe eshicilelweyo yakhe ifunyenwe kwiDVD ibithathwe yile ntombazana ngentsasa yaloo mini. (*His finger prints were found on a DVD which the girl took out that morning.*) (32)

[confirming finger prints]

Captain 1: Ewe, kodwa malunga ngokophando-nzulu kufunyenwe iimpawu zeminwe eglasini. (*Yes, but according to internationals it was a finger print of a glass.*)

[correcting finger prints]

Captain 2: Bekukho kwakhona umntu wokuqala othi intombazana igwintwe ngebhozo ekuhlanganeni kwakhe nezigwinta ngaphakathi. (*There is also an eyewitness that states the girl was murdered with a knife when she met her murderers half way.*) (38)

[confirming observation of eyewitness]

Captain 1: Bekukho kwanamarhe okuba olu lwazi besilufihlelwa. (*There are also rumours that information was kept from us.*) (40)

[confirming rumours]

Captain 2: Ewe. Okungenzeka ukuba lulwazi olubalulekileyo olukunosinceda malunga neli tyala. (*Yes. And it is probably important information that will help us with this case.*)

[expressing possibility]

Captain 1: Le nto ithetha ukuba umntu ongenatyala angaya entolongweni. (*This can mean that an innocent person can go to jail.*) (45)

[expressing possibility]

Captain 2: Ewe (*Yes*)

[agreeing with statement]

- Captain 1: Umhloli ufumene igazi lweenyawo ezicishilelweyo kumgangatho wegumbi lokuhlamba. (*The inspector found a blood foot print on the bathroom floor.*)
[confirming foot print]
- Captain 2: Ewe. Kodwa abazali bentombazana bathumele umntu ukuba enze iifoto kwaye ezi foto azikhange zifane neefoto zomcuphi. Loo nto ibonisa ukuba kukho umntu onyathele kushicilelo lweminwe phambi kokuba kuthatyathwe umfanekiso wesibini. (*Yes. But the girl's parents sent someone else to take photo's as well and that photo's didn't match the photo's of the inspector. This means that someone probably fumbled with the foot print before the photo's was taken the second time.*) (55)
[narrating incident]
- Captain 1: Ewe (*Yes*)
[confirming incident]
- Captain 2: Isinqandamathe sakhe sithi besisemsebenzini imini yonke. (*According to the boyfriend he was at work the whole afternoon.*) (58)
[confirming place]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Akukho ndlela anokuhamba ngayo aphinde abuye ngaphandle kokuba ejongiwe yi CCTV-khamera. (*Yes. And there is no way that he could go out and come back again without being watched by the CCTV-camera.*)
[making statement]
- Captain 2: Ewe. Yinyani leyo. Akukho nomnye obone imoto yakhe enombhalo wePhondo laseMpuma Kapa njengale yakhe ingena iphuma eziflethini ngala njika-linga. (*Yes. That is true. And no one saw his car with the familiar Eastern Cape registration number going in and out at the flats that afternoon.*)
[agreeing with statement]
- Captain 1: Kunokwenzeka uthabathe enye imoto. (*He could have taken another car.*)
[expressing possibility]
- Captain 2: Ewe, kodwa imoto kabani? (*Yes, but whose car?*) (67)
[expressing wonder]
- Captain 1: Andiyazi. (*I don't know.*)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Captain 2: Emveni kophando olunzulu, akukhange kubekho mpawu zabungqina begazi emotweni okanye kwimpahla yakhe. (*After intensive tests, no sign of blood*

prints was found in his car or on his clothes.) (71)

[confirming no blood prints]

Captain 1: Ewe. Ngoku amapolisa atyholiwe ngokungenzi uphando lwawo kakuhle. (*Yes. And now the police are blamed for not doing their investigation work properly.*) (74)

[confirming blame on police]

Captain 2: Ewe (*Yes*)

[agreeing with confirmation]

Captain 1: Kukho into engaqondakaliyo apha. Sibhideke phi bethu? (*Something is very strange here. Where did we miss something?*)

[expressing strangeness] ; [expressing wonder]

Captain 2: Andiyazi. Ukuba ibisisinqandamathe sakhe, makube ukwazile ngenene ukusikhohlisa. Waqinisekisa ukuba nabuphi ubuungqina obuza ngakuye buyatshatyalaliswa. (*I don't know. If it was the boyfriend, he was one step ahead of us. He made sure that any evidence against him was destroyed.*)

[expressing uncertainty]

Captain 1: Ewe. Sazile ukuba ibisisinqandamathe sakhe, kodwa besingenabungqina. (*Yes. We know it was the boyfriend, but we can't prove it.*) (83)

[expressing certainty]

Captain 2: Abazali bentombazana bafuna ukubiza isinqandamathe izigidi ezisi-iR8.5 ngokwenza ngokubaxhela ngokwasemphefumleni. (*The girl's parents want to summon the boyfriend of R 8.5 million for emotional damage.*) (86)

[confirming desire]

Captain 1: Ewe (*Yes*)

[giving confirmation]

Captain 2: Kufuneka siye kwindawo yesehlo kwakhona sibone ukuba sishiye ntoni na. Kumelezekile kubekho nto ithile. Nokuba yinto nje encinci. (*We have to go to the scene again and see what we've missed. There must be something. Even if it is something small.*) (90)

[expressing desire]

Captain 1: Ndiyathandabuza ukuba kukho into esiza kuyifumana. Inkundla seyigqibile ukuba akanatyala. (*I doubt that we will find anything. The court has already decided that he is innocent. The case is closed.*) (93)

[expressing doubt]

Captain 2: Bendiza kuphuma kakade. Phofu akukho kwanto esiza kuyiswela. (*I'm going to go out anyway. We have nothing to lose.*) (95)

[expressing desire]

Captain 1: Hayi, tu kwaphela. (*No, probably not.*)

[agreeing with statement]

5.3.2.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-3 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because it only a desire is expressed, i.e. to consider all the information at their disposal. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Kulungile** is an example of a mono-clausal sentence.

Masijonge kuyo yonke inkcazelo esinayo ukuza kuthi ga ngoku is a complex sentence, because it consists of an independent, as well as a dependent clause. **Masijonge kuyo yonke inkcazelo** is the independent clause and **esinayo ukuza kuthi ga ngoku** is the dependent clause. This sentence comprises a high syntactic complexity and therefore it illustrates a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 4-87 form part of the information and consultation phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police officials discuss events in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. The communication in lines 41-46 takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. The two police officials reason about the incident (lines 10-14, 41-46, 66-68) and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when the incident is discussed and **inombhalo wephondo leMpuma Kapa** and **eziflethini** illustrate temporal references. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The two police officials has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when they discuss the incident. The police officials give information while they discuss the incident and they give opinions about the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along

the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and high developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. Line 56 is an example of a mono-clausal sentence. Lines 10-11, 12-13, 44-45, 66, 67, 76-77 consist of simple sentences. In lines 10-11 the sentences are introduced by the complementiser **ukuba**. In the sentence **Akukho nomnye obone imoto yakhe enombhalo wephondo leMpuma Kapa efanayo ingena iphuma eziflethini ngala mini**, **enombhalo wephondo leMpuma Kapa** and **eziflethini** illustrates adverbs of place. In line 67, **kodwa** is the conjunction in the sentence. In lines 76-77 **apha** illustrates an adverb of place.

Wagwintwa ngomhla we-16 kweyoKwindla kwigumbi lakhe eWelgevonden eStellenbosch is a complex sentence. **Wagwintwa ngomhla we-16 kweyoKwindla** is the independent clause and **kwigumbi lakhe**, **eWelgevonden** and **eStellenbosch** are the dependent clauses. Each of the dependent clauses illustrates an adverb of place. **Usebenzise isihombiso ukumbulala** is also a complex sentence. **Usebenzise isihombiso** is the independent clause and **ukumbulala** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the past tense. **Iminwe eshicilelweyo yakhe ifunyanwe kwiDVD intombazana ibiyithathile ngentsasa** is a complex sentence, because **Iminwe eshicilelweyo yakhe ifunyanwe kwiDVD** is the independent clause and **intombazana ibiyithathile ngentsasa** is the dependent clause. Another example of a complex sentence is **Bekukho kwanamarhe okuba ulwazi besilufihlelwa. Ulwazi besilufihlelwa** is the independent clause and **Bekukho kwanamarhe** is the dependent clause in this sentence. **Umdloli ufumene igazi lweenyawo ezishicilelweyo kumgangatho wegumbi lokuhlamba** can be seen as a complex sentence, because it consists of an independent clause and a dependent clause. **Umdloli ufumene igazi lweenyawo ezishicilelweyo** is the independent clause and **kumgangatho wegumbi lokuhlamba** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the past tense. in this sentence –**fumene**

appears to be the deficient verb. **Loo nto ibonisa ukuba kukho umntu onyathele kwiimpawu zeminwe phambi kokuba kuthatyathwe umfanekiso wesibini.** is a complex sentence, because **Lo nto ibonisa ukuba kukho umntu onyathele kwiimpawu zeminwe** is the independent clause and **phambi kokuba kuthatyathwe umfanekiso wesibini** is the dependent clause. **Emveni kophando olunzulu, akukhange kubekho zimpawu zagazi emotweni okanye kwimpahla yakhe** is also a complex sentence. **Emveni kophando olunzulu** is the dependent clause and **akukhange kubekho zimpawu zagazi emotweni okanye kwimpahla yakhe** is the independent clause. Another complex sentence is **Ndisacinga ukuba sisingqandamathe sakhe**, because **sisingqandamathe sakhe** is the independent clause and **Ndisacinga ukuba** is the dependent clause. **Bendicinga ukuba ebethe ti ngokugqithisileyo** is a complex sentence, because it consists of an independent, as well as a dependent clause. **Ebethe ti ngokugqithisileyo** is the independent clause and **Bendicinga ukuba** is the dependent clause.

Isinqandamathe sakhe siyatyholwa ngokugwintwa kwakhe, kodwa safumaniseka singenatyala is a compound sentence, because it consists of two independent clauses. **Isinqandamathe sakhe siyatyholwa ngokugwintwa kwakhe** and **kodwa safumaniseka singenatyala** are the two independent clauses. In this sentence, **kodwa** is the conjunction. **Uye wafuna ukumshiya, kodwa wagwintwa phambi kokuba enze njalo** is also a compound sentence in which **kodwa** is the conjunction. The two independent clauses are **Uye wafuna ukumshiya** and **wagwintwa phambi kokuba enze njalo**. **Waya endlwini ngenye impelaveki kwaye enempahla zokulala apho umama wakhe embona enemigruzuko neziva ezingalweni** is a compound sentence, because it contains three independent clauses. **Waya endlwini ngenye impelaveki** and **kwaye enempahla zokulala apho** and **umama wakhe embona enemigruzuko neziva ezingalweni** are the three independent clauses. **Impela veki** illustrates an adverb of time. **Kodwa abazali bentombazana bathumele umntu ukuba enze iifoto kwaye iifoto azikhange zifane neefoto zomcuphi** is also a compound sentence in which **ne-** in **nezithombo** is a preposition. **Kodwa abazali bentombazana bathumele umntu ukuba athathe iifoto** and **kwaye iifoto azikhange zifane neefoto zomcuphi** are the two independent clauses which are both in the perfectum past tense. **Sazile ukuba ibisisinqandamathe, kodwa besingenabungqina** is a compound sentence because it has two independent clauses. **Kodwa** is the conjunction in this sentence, while **ukuba** is the complementiser. **Sazile ukuba ibisisinqandamathe** and

besingenabungqina are the two independent clauses which are in the indicative present tense.

The above examples of complex sentences and compound sentences are examples of sentences with a higher syntactic complexity, thus illustrating a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 88-96 form part of the instruction and decision-making phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature along the resource-directing dimension. This segment entails no causal reasoning [+ no reasoning] and there are no spatial referential expressions [+ few elements]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official only makes a decision, i.e. to go out and investigate the case again. There is thus only one task that is being carried out [+ single task]. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. Furthermore, no planning is needed during this phase [- planning]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses and therefore it represents a low level of complexity.

5.3.2.2 Task typology

Dialogue 2 is an example of predominantly a jigsaw task. Each interactant (police officials) holds a portion of information which must be exchanged and be manipulated, because they are working towards a single task goal. In this dialogue, both of the police officials have different portions of totality of the information concerning the girl that was murdered. Their goal is to try and find out who murdered the girl and eventually catch the suspect. The police officials share this particular information in order to make a decision, i.e. to go out to the scene once more to investigate the case.

According to Table 3-2 each interactant (police officials) holds, requests and supplies information as needed and they have a mutual relationship of request and suppliance. This task entails a two-way flow of information, i.e. from interactant X (police official 1) to interactant Y (police official 2) and vice versa. Interaction is required (+), because the police officials require and give information in a mutual relationship in order to complete the task (to find out who the suspect is).

The participants (police officials) are expected to achieve a convergent goal (+) and a single outcome (1). Therefore, these tasks corresponds with interactional activity 1a, interaction requirement 2a, goal orientation 3a and outcome options 4a in Table 3-1.

Lines 10-14 are an example of an opinion-exchange task. The participants (two police officials) are engaged in discussion and exchange of ideas. The two police officials are sharing an opinion of who the suspect might be. The task entails a two-way flow of information. Each participant (two police officials) is interacting (+). This interaction is carried out under the Table 3-1 categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

In this opinion-exchange task interaction is required (+). There is one outcome option (1), because in line 12-14 there is an agreement on the opinion that is given, i.e. on the fact that it was the girl's boyfriend who murdered her.

Lines 44-46 and 59-66 are further examples of an opinion-exchange task. In lines 44-46 police official 1 gives an opinion that an innocent man might go to jail and police official 2 agrees. In lines 59-66 police official 1 gives an opinion that the suspect couldn't have left work without being watched by the camera and police official 2 agrees with this opinion. Therefore, there is a two-way flow of information, because both of the police officials are interacting (+). This interaction is carried out under the Table 3-1 categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

Lines 90-96 are also an example of an opinion exchange task. In line 89 the police official says that there must be something that have been missed on the scene in the previous investigation and in line 91 police official 1 gives his opinion by saying that he doubt the fact that anything will be found. Therefore, there is a two-way flow of information, because both of the police officials are interacting (+). This interaction is carried out under the Table 3-1 categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

Lines 90-96 can also be an example of a decision-making task. The one participant (police official 2) decides to go to out to the scene once more to investigate the case. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide whether or not to go out to the scene once more ($X=Y$).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. to go to go out to the scene (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to go out and investigate the case).

5.3.3 Dialogue 3

The communication that takes place in this dialogue can be used to meet the demand of the real world. Therefore, the language in this task can be used to communicate in the real world outside the classroom. In this particular task, interaction takes place between two police officials. One of the police officials are at the scene where the murder of the victim took place. The police official phones his/ her colleague to come out to the scene. The two police men are having a discussion concerning the incident on the scene.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Intwazana igwintiwe kwaye umzimba wayo wafunyanwa ungewatywe phakathi kwengxondorha. Usemsebenzini ngoku ufowunelwayo kuthiwa yiya kule ndawo kwenzeke kuyo ingozi kwangoko. Nobabini nixoxa ngendlela egwintwe ngayo intombi ngokuqaphela imigruzuko esemzimbeni wayo. Ninika imiyalelo yokuba makufowunelwe abazali bale ntombi nize nigoca-goce umzimba wesidumbu.

A young girl was murdered and her body was found buried between dunes. You are on duty when you are called to go out to the scene immediately. The two of you are having a discussion on how she was murdered by discussing the bruises on her body. You give instruction to call her parents and to investigate the body.

USajini Steward ufowunela umntu asebenza naye kwaye umxelela ngokubulawa kwale ntwazana. *(Sergeant Steward phones his colleague and tells him about the murder of the young girl)*

Sergeant 1: Sajini Brown? *(Sergeant Brown?)* (1)

[asking certainty]

Sergeant 2: Ewe. Nguye othethayo. *(Yes. Speaking.)*

[Giving certainty]

Sergeant 1: Kumele uze ngoku. Sifumene umzimba wentwazana eStellenbosch le ibichazwe njengelahlekileyo phezolo. *(You have to come out immediately. We found the body of the young girl from Stellenbosch who was reported missing*

last night.) (6)

[expressing need] ; [giving reason]

Sergeant 2: Umfumene phi? (*Where did you find her?*)

[asking place]

Sergeant 1: Kulwandle lwaseElandsbaai. Ebengcwatywe phakathi kweengxondorha. (*On the beach at Elandsbaai. She was buried between the dunes.*) (9)

[giving place]

Sergeant 2: Ulapho ngoku? (*Are you there at the moment?*)

[asking presence]

Sergeant 1: Ewe, ndilapha. (*Yes, I am.*) (11)

[giving presence]

Sergeant 2: Kulungile. Ndisindleleni. (*Okay. I am on my way.*)

[accepting desire]

Sergeant 1: Kulungile. Ndiza kulinda. (*Okay. I will wait for you.*) (13)

[explaining happening]

USajini Brown usendleleni eya kwindawo yentlekele. Uthe akufika baqala ukuphanda ngetyala. (Sergeant Brown is on his way to the scene. Once he arrives, they start to investigate the case.)

Sergeant 1: Xa uqwalasela apha kwizihlahla zakhe kuyacaca ukuba uxhatshazwe ngokwasemzimbeni ngulo mntu. (*As you can see on her wrists it is clear that she has been physically abused by the person.*) (16)

[giving information]

Sergeant 2: Ewe. Ndiyavuma. Kukwabonakala ngathi ebemtsala ngaphandle kwemvume yakhe. Jonga iziva zokwenzakala kwizihlahla zakhe. (*Yes. I agree. It also looks as if she was pulled around against her will. Look at the marks and bruises on her wrists.*) (20)

[agreeing] ; [giving opinion]

Sergeant 1: Ewe. Ndiyayibona le nto uyithethayo. Kwizihlahla zakhe ugruzuke kakubi kakhulu. (*Yes. I see what you mean. Her wrists are bruised very badly.*) (23)

[agreeing with opinion]

Sergeant 2: Kukhangeleka ngathi ebembethela ukumbulala. (*It looks like he strangled her to death.*) (25)

[giving opinion]

Sergeant 1: Ewe, kunjalo. Jonga amaxeba entanyeni yakhe. Usebenzise intambo Uyishiye apha ecaleni kwakhe. (*Yes, he did. Look at the marks around her neck. He used a rope. He left it lying next to her.*) (28)

[agreeing with opinion] ; [giving information]

Sergeant 2: Iyamangalisa le yokuba ayishiye apha. (*Strange that he left it lying here.*)

[expressing strangeness]

Sergeant 1: Ewe, inako ukumangalisa. Ndinga ukuba ebengxamile. Akakhange acinge ngokubususa ubungqina. (*Yes, it is quite strange. I think he was hasty. He didn't think of removing all the evidence.*) (32)

[agreeing with opinion] ; [giving opinion]

Sergeant 2: Yantle lo ngcinga. Ingaba bethu kukho eminye imigruzuko emzimbeni wakhe? (*Good point. I wonder whether there are other bruises on her body.*)

[agreeing with opinion] ; [expressing uncertainty]

Sergeant 1: Andiyazi. Andikayijongi okwangoku. (*I don't know. I haven't looked yet.*)

[expressing uncertainty]

USajini 1 ujonga ngokukhawuleza kumzimba wonke wexhoba. (Sergeant 1 looks quickly at the rest of the victim's body.)

Sergeant 1: Andiboni kwanto ngoku okwalo mzuzwana. (*I don't see anything now at the moment.*) (38)

[giving information]

Sergeant 2: Hayi, nam andiboni kwanto. (*No, I don't see anything either.*)

[giving information]

Sergeant 1: Akubonakali ngathi umxhaphazile. (*Doesn't look like he abused her.*) [giving opinion]

Sergeant 2: Hayi. Kodwa ndicinga ukuba kumele silwenze uphando. (*No. But I think we should do an investigation.*) (42)

[agreeing with opinion] ; [expressing thought]

Sergeant 1: Ewe, nam ndicinga njalo. Makhulu kakhulu amathuba okuba kunokwenzeka umdlwengulile. (*Yes, I think so too. The chances are very good that she could*

have been raped by him.) (45)

[agreeing with thought] ; [giving reason]

Sergeant 2: Ewe, ndiyavuma. Ngokukodwa ngenxa yenyano yokuba ebengumntu onyanzelisayo. Abantu abanjalo ke bangazenza ezo zinto. (*Yes, I agree. Especially because of the fact that he was a very possessive kind of person. These kind of people is bound to do such things.*) (49)

[agreeing with reason] ; [giving opinion]

Sergeant 1: Ewe. (*Yes*)

[agreeing with opinion]

Sergeant 2: Mhlawumbi kukho eminye imigruzuko. Asazi okwangoku, kuba asikwazi ukuwususa umzimba ngoku. (*Maybe there are other bruises. We won't know now, because we can't move the body now.*) (53)

[expressing uncertainty]

Sergeant 1: Ewe. Kuza kufuneka baphande ngayo yonke into emzimbeni wakhe. (*Yes. They have to investigate everything around the body as well.*) (55)

[expressing need]

Sergeant 2: Ukhona umntu osele ebaxelele abazali bakhe ukuba umzimba wakhe ufumanekile. (*Has somebody told her parents yet that her body has been found?*) (58)

[expressing uncertainty]

Sergeant 1: Hayi. Ndiza kuba fowunela abazali kwangoko xa sifika esikhululweni samapolisa. (*No. I will phone the parents immediately when we arrive back at the police station.*) (61)

[giving certainty] ; [offering help]

Sergeant 2: Kuza kufuneka bangene ngaphakathi baze kuchonga umzimba wentombi yabo. (*They will have to come in to identify the body of their daughter.*)

[expressing need]

Sergeant 1: Ewe, kuza kufuneka benze njalo. (*Yes, they will have to.*)

[showing agreement]

Sergeant 2: Ndiza kuhamba ndiphindele esikhululweni samapolisa okwangoku ukulungiselela uphando lo mzimba. (*I will head back to the police station so long to arrange for an investigation of the body.*) (67)

[offering help]

Sergeant 1: Ndiyabulela. Iza kunceda kakhulu loo nto. Ndicela ubalungiselele ukuba beze

kwangoku. (*Thank you. It will help a lot. Please arrange for them to come out immediately to get the body.*) (70)

[expressing gratefulness] ; [giving instruction]

Sergeant 2: Kulungile. Ndiza kwenza njalo. (*Okay. I will*)

[showing co-operation]

Sergeant 1: Enkosi. Sakubonana esikhululweni samapolisa. (*Thank you. See you back at the police station.*) (73)

[expressing thankfulness] ; [giving place]

Sergeant 2: Kulungile. (*Okay*)

[showing acceptance]

5.3.3.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-13 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. The police official provides information to his/ her colleague. **Phezolo** is an example of a spatial referential expression and **eStellenbosch** illustrate a temporal expression. Therefore, it represents the [- few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because it contains the task of instruction and information is given concerning the place of incident. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [-

planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it represents a low level of syntactic complexity. **Ndisendleleni** and **Kulungile** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. In the sentence **Kumele uze ngoku, ngoku** illustrates the adverb of time. **Kulwandle** and **lwaseElandsbaai** in line 8 illustrate an adverb of place.

Sifumene umzimba wentwazana eStellenbosch le bekuchazwe ngokulahleka kwayo phezolo is a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. The independent clause is **Sifumene umzimba wentwazana eStellenbosch** and the dependent clause is **le bekuchazwe ngokulahleka kwayo phezolo**. **eStellenbosch** appears to be an adverb of place, while **phezolo** is an adverb of time. This complex sentence comprises a higher level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 14-58 form part of this phase. The information and consultation phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police officials discuss events in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. The communication in lines 37-39 and 41-58 takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. The two police officials reason about the incident and they give various opinions concerning the case. Therefore, it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment

further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when discussing the incident. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The two police officials has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when they discuss the incident. The police officials give information while the discussion takes place and they give opinions about the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] dimension. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component four according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and high developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. **Ewe, Andiyazi** and **ndiyavuma** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 26-32, 36, 39-40 contain simple sentences. **Ecaleni** and **apha** in lines 28 and 29 are examples of an adverb of place. The **-nga-** in **Ndingabuhlungu** appears to be the potential particle.

Ngembonakalo yezihlahla zakhe kuyacaca ukuba ubethiwe ngulo mntu is a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. **Ngembonakalo yezihlahla zakhe** is the dependent clause and **kuyacaca ukuba ubethiwe ngulo mntu** is the independent clause. **Andiboni kwanto ngoku okwalo mzuzwana** is a complex sentence since **Andiboni kwanto** is the independent clause and **ngoku okwalo mzuzwana** is the dependent clause. Another example of a complex sentence is **Ingaba akho amathuba okuba kuthi kanti umdlwengule. Kuthi kanti umdlwengule** is the independent clause and **Akho amathuba okuba** is the dependent clause.

Asazi okwangoku, kuba asikwazi ukususa umzimba ngoku is a compound sentence, because it contains two independent clauses. **Asazi okwangoku** and **asikwazi ukususa**

umzimba ngoku are the two independent clauses. These two clauses are in the present tense. In this sentence, **kuba** is the conjunction. **Ukhona umntu osele ebachazele abazali bakhe ukuba umzimba wakhe ufumanekile** is also a compound sentence. **Ukhona umntu osele ebachazele abazali bakhe** and **umzimba wakhe ufumanekile** are the two independent clauses.

The above examples of complex sentences and compound sentences are syntactically complex and therefore represent a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 59-74 represent the instruction and decision-making phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature along the resource-directing dimension. This segment entails no causal reasoning [+ no reasoning] and there are no spatial referential expressions [+ few elements]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment decisions are made, i.e. to head back to the police station in order to inform the parents and to send somebody out to investigate the body. Therefore, there is more than one task that is being carried out [- single task]. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge [- prior knowledge]. Furthermore, no planning is needed during this phase [- planning]. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category two according to Figure 3-2 of

Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Ndiyabulela, kulungile** and **enkosi** are examples of mono-clausal sentences.

Ndiza kuba fowunela abazali kwangoko xa sifika esikhululweni samapolisa is a complex sentence, because it consists of an independent, as well as a dependent clause. **Ndiza kuba fowunela abazali kwangoko** is the independent clause which is in the future tense. **Xa sifika esikhululweni samapolisa** is the dependent clause. **Ndiza kuhamba ndiphindele esikhululweni samapolisa okwangoku ukulungiselela ukugoca-goca umzimba** is also a complex sentence. **Ndiza kuhamba ndiphindele esikhululweni samapolisa** is the independent clause and **okwa ngoku ukulungiselela ukugoca-goca umzimba** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the future tense. These complex sentences illustrate a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

5.3.3.2 Task typology

This dialogue (lines 14-55) is an example of predominantly an opinion-giving task. The interactants (police officials) start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, i.e. to form an opinion about what exactly the suspect did when he murdered the victim. Therefore, it corresponds with interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Both of them are sharing opinions

about what might have happened during the murder of the victim. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task, i.e. to try and find out what the suspect's intentions were when he murdered the girl. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue each interactant is equally interacting; both of the police officials are sharing an opinion. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-) and any number of outcome options is possible (1+/-). Thus the opinion exchange task can end up with interactants holding contrasting opinions with which they began. In this dialogue the participants (police officials) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to investigate the case and send someone out to investigate the body and they end up with a convergent opinion, i.e. that it must have been someone who was a very possessive kind of person. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

Lines 1-13 are an example of an information-gap task. In this task one participant (police official 1) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official 2), but which he needs in order to complete the task. The police official 2 needs the information about the place where the incident took place and where police official 1 is at that moment when he receives the call.

According to Table 3-2 it is a two-way flow of information. It is the two-way flow of request and suppliance. Police official 1 (Y) requests information from police official 2 (X). The participants are both working towards a convergent goal and a single outcome (1). The goal is to find out where the incident took place, while the outcome is to get to the scene to help with the investigation of the case. According to Table 3-1 the features correspond to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. It further meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1. Interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

Lines 62-67 are an example of a decision-making task. The one participant (police official 2) decides to let the parents know about the death of their daughter and to head back to the police station to arrange for an investigation on the body. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide whether or not to let the parents know and to send people out to investigate the body (X=Y).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. to do a further investigation on the body (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to let the parents know and send out an investigation team).

5.3.4 Dialogue 4

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, the communication takes place between two participants (two police officials). Housebreaking took place and the two police officials are on their way to the scene. One of the police officials are giving directions to his/ her colleague on how to get to the scene.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Kuqhekezwe indlu kwaye nibiziwe. Nguwe nelinye ipolisa nisendleleni eya kwindawo yesehlo ngesithuthi samapolisa. Nguwe, umkhweli, ninika inkcazo ngendlela eya kwindawo yesehlo.

Housebreak took place and you are called out. You and another police man are on your way to the scene in one police car. You, the passenger, are giving the driver directions of how to get to the scene.

Captain 1: Lwenzeka phi olu qhekezo? (*Where did the house break take place?*) (1)

[asking place]

Captain 2: E-26 Die Laan. Isekujikeleni kwe-Die Laan neRatray Street. (*At 26 Die Laan. It is on the corner of Die Laan and Ratray Street.*) (3)

[giving place]

Captain 1: Kulungile. Ungasichazela indlela eya apho? (*Okay. Can you give the directions?*)

[asking directions]

Captain 2: Kulungile. (*Okay.*) (5)

[agreeing to give directions]

Bobabini ookapteini basesithuthini. Basesikhululweni samapolisa eso si.....Stalato (Both captains are in the car. They are at the police station which is in Street.)

Captain 2: Qhuba uye phambili ngale ndlela ude ufike ekupheleni kwendlela. Le ndlela iphambili kwakho yiBird Street. Uza kubona uRussels ekhohlo kwakho. (*Just drive straight with this road till you reach the T-junction. The road in front of you is Bird Street. You will see Russels is on your left hand side.*) (9)

[giving directions]

Captain 1: Kulungile. Ndenzeni xa ndifika apho? (*Okay. And what do I do once I get there?*) (11)

[asking what to do]

Captain 2: Ujika ekunene ukuze ungene eBird Street. (*You turn right so that you are in Bird Street.*) (13)

[instructing to turn right]

Captain 1: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)

[accepting instruction]

Bafikile ekupheleni kwendlela bajike ekhohlo. (They reach the T-junction and they turn left.)

Captain 2: Qhuba uhambe ngqo. (*Drive straight.*) (15)

[instructing to drive straight]

Captain 1: Emva koko? (*And then?*)

[asking what to do]

Captain 2: Qhuba ude ufike kwisangqa. Xa ufika kwisangqa, uze ujike ekhohlo kweso sangqa. (*Drive until you get to the circle. When you get to the circle, you turn left at the circle.*) (19)

[instructing to turn left at circle]

Captain 1: Lithini igama lesitalato? (*What is the name of that street?*)
[asking name of street]

Captain 2: Uza kube usePlein Street. (*You will then be in Plein Street.*) (21)
[giving name of street]

Captain 1: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)
[accepting name of street]

Bafika kwisangqa bajike ekhohlo. (They reach the circle and they turn left.)

Captain 2: Qhuba ngqo ngalo ndlela. Uza kuqabela kumchankcatho wabahambi ngeenyawo. Emva koko uza kufika kwesinye isangqa. (*Just drive straight with this road. You will go over a foot crossing. Then you will get to another circle.*) (25)
[instructing to drive straight]

Captain 1: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)
[accepting instruction]

Benyuka kwindawo yokuchankcatha abahambi ngeenyawo kwaye bafike kwisangqa. (They go over the foot crossing and reach the circle.)

Captain 2: Nilumke! Kukho imoto ezayo. Thobani isantya kancinci. (*Be careful! A car is coming. Slow down a bit.*)
[instructing to be careful]

Captain 1: Enkosi. Andikhange ndiyibone ukuza kwayo. (*Thank you. I never saw that car coming.*) (29)
[expressing gratefulness]

Bame kwisangqai. (They are standing at the circle.)

Captain 1: Kufuneka ndenze ntoni ngoku? (*What must I do now?*)
[asking what to do]

Captain 2: Qhuba ubheke phambili. (*Just drive straight.*) (31)
[instructing to drive straight]

- Captain 1: Kulungile. Emva koko? (*Okay. And then?*)
[accepting instruction] ; [asking what to do]
- Captain 2: Uza kufika kuStop. (*You will get to a Stop Street.*) (33)
[explaining next stop]
- Captain 1: Ndenzeni xa ndifika kuStop? (*What do I do when we get to the Stop Street?*)
[asking what to do]
- Captain 2: Hambela phambili udlule kuStop. (*You go over the Stop.*)
[instructing to go over Stop]
- Colonel 1: Kulungile. (*Okay*) (37)
[accepting instruction]

Bafikile kuStop. (They have reached the Stop.)

- Captain 1: Uthe sidlule kuStop? (*Did you say we must go over?*)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Captain 2: Ewe. Kunjalo. (*Yes. That is correct.*) (39)
[confirming instruction]
- Captain 1: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)
[accepting instruction]
- Captain 2: Ngoku? (*And now?*) (41)
[asking what to do]
- Captain 1: Kwisitalato sokuqala ekunene kukho iRatray. Nijike kanye apho. (*The first street on your right hand side is Ratray. Turn right there.*) (43)
[instructing to turn right]
- Captain 2: Kulungile. (*Okay.*)
[accepting instruction]
- Captain 1: Qhuba ngqo kulo ndlela. Indlu iza kuba kwicala lasekhohlo kuni. (*Just drive straight down with that road. The house will be on our left hand side.*)
[instructing to drive straight]

Bajikela ekunene eRatray kwaye bafikelela kwindawo abaya kuyo. (They turn right in Ratray and reach their destination.)

5.3.4.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-5 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official carries out more than one task because he/she requests the place of the incident and request to give directions to the scene. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it represents a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 6-46 represent the information and consultation phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] features. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only directions are given and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. The police official provides information to his/ her colleague by giving directions. Therefore, it represents the [- few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because only directions are given. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police official who gives the directions has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [+ prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component one according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a low performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. **Enkosi, Ndiqaphela, Kulungile, Nilumke and Kunjalo** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. In line 6, **-fika** is the deficient verb of the sentence **Qhuba uhambe ngqo ngale ndlela ude ufike ekupheleni kwendlela.**

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

This dialogue does not consist of an instruction and decision-making phase, because instructions are not given and decisions are not being made.

5.3.4.2 Task typology

Dialogue 4 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One of the participants (police official 2) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official 1), but which is needed in order for him to complete the task, i.e. to get the directions to the house where housebreaking took place.

This dialogue demonstrates an example of a two-way flow of information. One of the participants (police official 1) requires the information concerning the directions, while the other participant (police official 2) supplies the required information about the directions. The requiring and suppliance of information corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant relationship 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the participants (police officials) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. to give directions to get to the scene and to follow these directions and single outcome, i.e. to understand the directions and use it to get to the house where the scene. Therefore, it also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

5.3.5 Dialogue 5

The communication that takes place in this dialogue can be used to meet the demand of the real world. Therefore, the language in this task can be used to communicate in the real world outside the classroom. In this task, communication takes place between two participants (two police officials). One of the police officials enters his/ her colleague's office and asks to discuss the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Kugwintwe ibhinqa eFranschoek. Uliphandle eli tyala kwaye ngoku uhlinza impuku nogxa wakho. Uxelela ugxa wakho ukuba ngubani umranelwa, kwaye ubandakanyeka njani, ugwintwe njani, ugwintwe nini, njalo njalo. Umxelela eyona ndawo ixhoba belihlala kuyo kwaye nokuba ebephi umyeni weli bhinqa ngethuba egetyengwa wade wabe uyafa.

A woman was murdered in Franschoek. You investigated the case and you are now having a discussion with your colleague. You tell your colleague who the suspect is, how he fits in, how the murder took place, when the murder took place etc. You tell him where exactly the victim lived and where her husband was at the time of the murder.

Captain 1: Molo. Ingaba uxakekile ngalo mzuzu? Singalixoxa ityala le bhinqa owabulawa eFranschoek? (*Good morning. Are you very busy now? Can we discuss the case of the woman who was murdered in Franschoek?*) (3)

[greeting] ; [asking about discussion]

Captain 2: Ewe. Ngokuqinisekileyo. Hlala phantsi. (*Yes. Certainly. Have a seat.*)

[confirming discussion] ; [giving invitation]

Captain 1: Enkosi (*Thank you*) (5)

[expressing thankfulness]

Captain 2: Lwazi luni osele ulufumene malunga neli tyala? (*What information did you get concerning the case?*) (7)

[asking information]

Captain 1: Le ndoda ibulele lo mfazi ibingumhlobo omkhulu wayo. Le ndoda ineminyaka esondeleyo kuma-20 kwaye ixhoba lona llineminyaka engama-26. (*The man who murdered the woman was a very good friend of the victim. He is in his early twenties and the victim is 26 years old.*) (11)

[giving information] ; [giving age]

Captain 2: Ubulewe njani lo mfazi? (*How was she murdered?*)

[asking manner]

Captain 1: Ukrwitshiwe kwaye wafuthaniselwa. (*She was suffocated and strangled.*)

[explaining manner]

- Captain 2: Ingaba wadlwengulwa? (*Was she raped?*)
[expressing uncertainty] / [asking information]
- Captain 1: Hayi, akakhange adlwengulwe. (*No, she wasn't raped.*) (15)
[giving certainty] / [giving information]
- Captain 2: Igaba bakhe bawugoca-goca umzimba wakhe? (*Did they do an investigation on the body?*) (17)
[asking about investigation]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Bakwenzile oko. Kwaye bekucace gca ukuba kukhona ukukrwitshwa okuye kwenzeka. Kukho iimpawu zeziva ezicacileyo ezihlahleni zakhe nasezingalweni nto leyo ebonisa ukuba ebemqweqwedisa ngesinyalumane engafuni. (*Yes. They did. And it was obvious that there were strugglings involved. There are clear marks on her wrists and arms which show that he pulled her around against her will.*) (22)
[giving confirmation] ; [giving information]
- Captain 2: Ingaba unaso isinqandamathe? (*Does she have a boyfriend?*)
[asking about boyfriend]
- Captain 1: Utshate nendoda egama linguJohn du Toit. (*She is married to a man named John du Toit.*) (25)
[confirming marriage]
- Captain 2: Ingaba ixhoba eli nombulali babekhe bathandana ngaphambili? (*Did the woman and the suspect ever have a romantic relationship?*) (27)
[asking about relationship]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Babekhe bathandana. Babekunye kangangonyaka, kodwa laze ixhoba ladibana noJohn. Washiya umrhanelwa ngenxa kaJohn. Ngoko ke umrhanelwa akakwazanga ukuyinyamezela into yokuba bengasathandani. Umrhanelwa ebemlinda kakhulu, ebemfunela ngakuye. Akukho apho ebenokuya khona ngaphandle kwakhe. (*Yes. They did. They were together for a year, but then she met John. She left the suspect for John. And the suspect couldn't stand the fact that they weren't together anymore. He was a very possessive guy. He wanted her for himself. She couldn't go anywhere without him.*) (35)
[giving information]
- Captain 2: Ndiyabona. Ngoku ndiyayiqonda injongo yakhe malunga nokufa kwalo mfazi. Ingaba babe nalo unxibelelwano emveni kokuba bohlukenene? (*Oh, I see. Now I understand his motive behind her death. Did they have contact after they*

weren't together anymore?) (39)

[asking information]

Captain 1: Ewe, Ebeqhele ukumndwendwela amatyeli ngamatyeli emveni koko baphunge bancokole nje kancinci. Umrhanelwa wayenobubele. Zange wabonakalisa zimpawu zanzondo okanye ntoni. (*Yes, he used to visit her from time to time and then they drank coffee and chatted a bit. He was very friendly. Never showed any signs of anger or anything.*) (44)

[giving information]

Captain 2: Ebephi umyeni wakhe ngethuba egwintwa? (*Where was her husband when she was murdered?*) (46)

[asking presence]

Captain 1: Ebengekho eyokuzingela. (*He was out on to hunt.*)

[giving presence]

Captain 2: Ebegqibele nini ukuyibona inkosikazi yakhe? (*When was the last time he saw his wife?*) (49)

[asking time]

Captain 1: Umgqibele ukumbona phaya ngo-02:00 kusasa phambi kokuba aye kuzingela. (*The last time he saw her was about 02:00 in the morning before he left for the hunt.*) (52)

[giving time]

Captain 2: Uve nini ngenkosikazi yakhe? (*When did he find out about his wife?*)

[asking time]

Captain 1: Wafowunela inkosikazi yakhe kwangaloo ntsasa. Waqalisa ukuba nexhala xa ebona ukuba akawuphenduli umnxeba. Ekuhambeni kwexesha wafowunela umama wakhe wamcela ukuba makaye kujonga ukuba kuqhubeka ntoni. Umama wakhe wakhawulelwa ngumzimba wenkosikazi ifile. (*He phoned his wife later that morning. He started getting worried when she didn't return his calls. Later he phoned his mother to go and see what is going on. His mother came upon her dead body.*) (60)

[giving time] ; [giving reason]

Captain 2: Ingaba bebelhala nomama womyeni? (*Did they live with his mother?*)

[asking place of home]

Captain 1: Hayi, Bahlala kwindlwana encinci emalunga nekhilomitha ukuthi qelele kwindawo ehlala umama wakhe. (*No, they lived in a small house about a*

- kilometre away from his mother.* (64)
 [confirming place of home]
- Captain 2: Ingaba akukho nto ibiweyo kwindawo abahlala kuyo? (*Is there anything stolen from their apartment?*) (66)
 [asking about stolen items]
- Captain 1: Ewe ikhona. Umsesane womtshato kunye nemfonomfono yexhoba. (*Yes. The victim's wedding rings and cell phone.*) (68)
 [confirming stolen items]
- Captain 2: Uphi umranelwa ngoku? (*Where is the suspect now?*)
 [asking presence]
- Captain 1: Use kwizisele zamaPolisa. Uya kuvela enkundleni yamatyala ngomso. (*He is still in the police cells. His case appears tomorrow.*) (71)
 [giving presence] ; [confirming time of appearance]
- Captain 2: Kulingile. Enkosi. Wenze umsebenzi omhle. (*Okay. Thank you. Good job.*)
 [expressing thankfulness] ; [giving praise]
- Captain 1: Enkosi (*Thank you*) (73)
 [expressing thankfulness]

5.3.5.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-5 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. **eFrancshoek** illustrate a temporal reference and therefore it represents the [- few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because only a desire is expressed to discuss the incident. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Ewe, Ngokuqinisekileyo** and **Enkosi** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. **Hlala phantsi** is an example of a sentence that is learnt as a holistic chunk.

Singathetha ngetyala le nkosikazi egwintwe eFranschoek? is a complex sentence, because it contains an independent, as well as a dependent clause. **Singathetha ngetyala lenkosikazi** is the independent clause and **egwintwe eFranschoek** is the dependent clause. **Efranschoek** illustrates an adverb of place. This sentence comprises high syntactic complexity and therefore it illustrates a higher level of syntactic complexity.

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 6-71 form part of the information and consultation phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the past tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ there-and-then] features. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only directions are given and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. The police official provides a considerable amount of information to his/ her colleague. Furthermore, **kusasa** illustrates a spatial referential expression. Therefore, it represents the [- few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official provides information about the incident to his/ her colleague, therefore only one task is being carried out. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police official providing the information has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [+ prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component one according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a low performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it represents a low level of syntactic complexity. **Ndiyabona** and **Balenzile** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 12-17, 24-25, 47-49 and 51 contain simple sentences. In lines 50-52 **kusasa** illustrates an adverb of time in the sentence.

Lwazi luni othe walufumana malunga netyala is a complex sentence. **Lwazi luni othe walufumana** is the independent clause and **malunga netyala** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the indicative present tense. **Ingaba babe nalo unxibelelwano emveni kokuba bohlukeno?** is also a complex sentence. **Ingaba babe nalo unxibelelwano** is the independent clause and **emveni kokuba bohlukeno** is the dependent clause. Another

example of a complex sentence is **Bahlala kwindlwana encinci emalunga nekhilomitha ukuthi qelele kwindawo ehlala umama wakhe**. The independent clause is **Bahlala kwindlwana encinci** and the dependent clause is **emalunga nekhilomitha ukuthi qelele kwindawo ehlala umama wakhe**. The independent clause is in the past tense. **Ebephi umyeni wakhe ngethuba egwintwa** is a complex sentence since **Ebephi umyeni wakhe** is the independent clause and **ngethuba egwintwa** is the dependent clause. Another complex sentence is **Babe kunye kangangonyaka, kodwa laze ixhoba ladibana noJohn**, because it consists of an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. The independent clause is **Babe kunye kangangonyaka**, while the dependent clause is **laze ixhoba ladibana noJohn**. In this sentence **kodwa** is the conjunction.

Le ndoda ineminyaka esondeleyo kuma-20 kwaye ixhoba lona lineminyaka engama-26 is a compound sentence, because it contains two independent clauses. **Le ndoda ineminyaka esondeleyo kuma-20** and **ixhoba lona lineminyaka engama-26** are the two independent clauses which are in the present tense. **Kukho imigquzuko ecacayo esihlahleni sakhe nasezingalweni ebonisa ukuba ebemqweqwedisa engafuni** is also a compound sentence. **Kukho imigquzuko ecacayo esihlahleni sakhe nasezingalweni** and **ebemqweqwedisa engafuni** are the two independent clauses which are in the past tense. Another example of a compound sentence is **Ebeqhele ukumndwendwela amatyeli ngamatyeli emveni koko baphunge bancokole nje kancinci**. **Ebeqhele ukumndwendwela amatyeli ngamatyeli** and **baphunge bancokole nje kancinci** are the independent clauses which are both in the past tense. **Waqalisa ukuba nexhala xa ebona ukuba akawuphenduli umnxeba** is a compound sentence, because it contains two independent clauses. **Waqalisa ukuba nexhala** and **ebona ukuba akawuphenduli umnxeba** are the two independent clauses.

The above examples of complex, as well as compound sentences are syntactically complex, thus illustrating a higher level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 72-73 represent the instruction and decision-making phase. The instruction and decision-making phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only gratitude is given [+ no reasoning] feature. No information is provided and therefore it represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because only gratitude is expressed. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

The closing phase predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. **Enkosi** and **Kulungile** are examples of mono-clausal sentences.

5.3.5.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. The one participant (police official 1) holds all the information about the woman that was murdered in her house. The other participant (police official 2) does not know this information, but he needs it in order for him to complete the task, i.e. to determine what is going to happen to the suspect.

The interactants (both police officials) work together toward a convergent goal and a single outcome. The goal is that police official 1 gives all the information about the murder and that police official 2 requires as much information as possible. The outcome is that, with all the information, the police will make a decision on how to punish the suspect. Police official 2 (Y) requests the information and police official 1 (X) supplies the required information.

According to Table 3-1 the task corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. Because of the fact that the participants (both of the police officials) work toward a convergent goal and a single outcome, the task also meet the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

5.3.6 Dialogue 6

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, the communication takes place between two participants (two police officials). The two police officials are at the police station busy discussing the incident. One of the police officials are giving all of the information concerning the incident to his colleague.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Intombazana yadlwengulwa yabulawa. Uphanda ityala kwaye ulixoxa kunye ogxa wakho. Uchazela ugxa wakho ngako konke okwaziyo malunga neli tyala. Umxelela ukuba umyeni wakhe ngumqulunqi wayo yonke into kwaye waqasha waze wabhatala umqhubi weteksi wehotele ebebehlala kuyo ukuze abulale umfazi wakhe. Umxelela ngesivumelwano phakathi komyeni kunye nomqhubi kwiteksi kwaye naxa ityala livela enkundleni.

A woman was raped and murdered. You investigated the case and are now discussing it with your colleague. You give your colleague all the information concerning the case. You tell him

that her husband was behind everything and that he hired and paid the taxi driver of the hotel where they stayed to murder his wife. You tell him the agreement between the husband and the taxi driver and when the case appears in court.

Sergeant 1: Ingaba ugqibile ukuphanda ngetyala lika-Anni? (*Are you finished with the investigation on the Anni case?*) (2)

[expressing uncertainty]

Sergeant 2: Ewe. Ndinalo lonke ulwazi malunga netyala. Kufumaniseke ukuba umyeni wakhe ufuno umntu oza kubulala umfazi wakhe. Ubhatele le ndoda ukuba ibulale umfazi wayo. Igama lale ndoda nguTonga. (*Yes. I have all the information concerning the case. Apparently her husband arranged for someone to murder his wife. He paid the guy to murder his wife. The guy's name is Tonga.*) (8)

[giving certainty] ; [narrating incident]

Sergeant 1: Uyihlawule malini le ndoda? (*How much did he pay the guy?*)

[asking price]

Sergeant 2: Uyihlawule ama-R15000 (*He paid him R15 000*) (10)

[giving price]

Sergeant 1: Umazela phi uTonga? (*How does he know Tonga?*)

[asking relation]

Sergeant 2: Ungumqhubi weteksi yehotele apho uDewani nomfazi wakhe bebehlala khona. (*He is the taxi driver of the hotel where Dewani and his wife stayed.*)

[giving relation]

Sergeant 1: Lithini igama lale hotele? (*What is the name of the Hotel?*) (14)

[asking name]

Sergeant 2: YiCape Grace-hotel (*It is the Cape Grace-hotel*)

[giving name]

Sergeant 1: Uye wambuza imibuzo uTonga? (*Did you question Tonga?*) (16)

[asking information]

Sergeant 2: Ewe. Kwaye ufumaniseke enetyala. (*Yes. And he pleaded guilty.*)

[confirming information]

Sergeant 1: Umyeni wakhe yena? (*And her husband?*) (18)

[asking information]

- Sergeant 2: Uyiphikile inyani yokuba wenze isicwangciso sokubulala umfazi wakhe kunye nabo. (*He denied the fact that he arranged with them to murder his wife.*) (20)
[confirming denial]
- Sergeant 1: Ingaba bebhona abanye abarhanelwa ababandakanyekayo kweli tyala? (*Were there any other suspects involve in the murder?*) (22)
[asking about suspects]
- Sergeant 2: Ewe.Ngabanye ababini.UXolile kunye noQwabe. Uhlawule umntu ngamnye kubo ama-R15000 ukuze babulale umfazi wakhe (*Yes. There were two other, Xolile and Qwabe. He also paid each of them R 15 000 for the murder of his wife.*) (25)
[confirming suspects] ; [giving price]
- Sergeant 1: Bambulalela phi umfazi wakhe? (*Where did they murder his wife?*)
[asking place]
- Sergeant 2: Emotweni yakhe. (*In his car.*) (27)
[giving place]
- Sergeant 1: Iveli njani into yokuba isiganeko sokubulala senzenke emotweni? (*How did it come about that the murder took place in his car?*) (29)
[asking manner]
- Sergeant 2: Umnumzana Dewani kunye neNkosikazi yakhe bebeqhuba imoto ngobusuku bomhla we-13 kaNovemba apho bahlaselwa khona. Umnumzana Dewani wanyanzeliswa ukuba aphume emotweni waze uTonga waqhuba imoto kunye nomfazi wakhe. (*Mr Dewani and his wife were driving in his car on the night of 13 November when they were hijacked. Mr Dewani was forced out of the car and Tonga drove off with his wife.*) (35)
[narrating incident]
- Sergeant 1: Wafunyanwa phi umzimba wakhe? (*Where was her body found?*)
[asking place]
- Sergeant 2: Kufuphi neStellenbosch. (*Near Stellenbosch*) (37)
[giving place]
- Sergeant 1: Ngubani owabona umzimba? (*Who came upon the body?*)
[asking eyewitness]
- Sergeant 2: Lingqina elingazange lifune ukunikisa ngegama lalo elabona umzimba xa lisiya ezivenkileni. (*An eyewitness who didn't want to give her name came*

upon the body in the car on her way to the shops.) (41)

[confirming eyewitness]

Sergeant 1: Ndiyaqonda ukuba wafowunela amapolisa xa ewubona. (*I guess she phoned the police when she saw it.*) (43)

[giving opinion]

Sergeant 2: Ewe, wenza njalo. Ndakhawuleza ndahamba ndaya kuphanda ngetyala. Ababulali bashiya umzimba wakhe kwisitulo sangasemva. Ingalo yakhe yangasekhohlo yayisesifubeni kwaye isandla sakhe sasiphambi kobuso bakhe. (*Yes, she did. I immediately went out to investigate the case. The murderers left her body lying on the back seat. Her left arm was on her chest and her hand in front of her face.*) (48)

[confirming opinion] ; [giving information]

Sergeant 1: Wabulawa njani? (*How was she murdered?*)

[asking manner]

Sergeant 2: Wadutyulwa. Imbumbulu yaqala esandleni ngaphambi kokuba iye emqaleni. (*She was shot. The bullet went through her hand before it hit her neck.*)

[explaining manner]

Sergeant 1: Yintoni enye owayifumanisayo? (*What else did you find?*) (52)

[asking information]

Sergeant 2: Imilenze yakhe yayivuliwe ngoku befumana umzimba kunye nempahla yangaphantsi ibekelwe ezantsi kwamadolo. Iziphumo zifumanise ukuba udlwenguliwe. Ebenemigruzuko emilenzeni. Kucaca ukuba imilenze yakhe ivulwe ngokunyanzelisa. (*Her legs were open when her body were found with her underwear pulled down underneath her knees. Investigation showed that she was raped. There were bruises on her legs. It shows that her legs were forced open.*) (59)

[giving information]

Sergeant 1: Kuvakala kusothusa oku. (*It sounds really shocking.*)

[expressing disgust]

Sergeant 2: Ewe, bekusothusa kakhulu ingakumbi ngou besigoca-goca umzimba wakhe. (*Yes, it was quite a shocking image when we investigated the body.*) (62)

[expressing disgust]

- Sergeant 1: Bekumele ukuba njalo. Eli tyala livela nini enkundleni? (*I can imagine. When does this case appear in court?*) (64)
[agreeing with feeling] ; [asking date]
- Sergeant 2: Kwiveki ezayo. NgoMvulo. (*Next week. Monday.*)
[giving date]
- Sergeant 1: Ndifuna ube senkundleni kwaye ndifuna ufumane yonke into ebiphosakele. Aba bantu bahlakaniphile. (*I want you to get everything that you might have missed. These people are very clever.*) (68)
[expressing desire] ; [giving reason]
- Sergeant 2: Ewe banjalo ngenene. Kulungile, ndiza kufika. (*Yes. They are. Okay, I will be there.*) (70)
[agreeing with reason] ; [fulfilling desire]
- Sergeant 1: Umsebenzi wakho uyancomeka. (*Good work so far.*)
[giving praise]
- Sergeant 2: Ndiyabulela (*Thank you*) (72)
[expressing thankfulness]

5.3.6.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-2 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because it only contains the task of request about the investigation case. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment contains a complex sentence, because it consists of an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. **Ingaba ugqibile ukuphanda ngetyala lika-Anni** is the complex sentence. The independent clause is **Ingaba ugqibile ukuphanda ngetyala** and **lika-Anni** is the dependent clause. Therefore, this segment illustrates a high level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 3-65 form part of the information and consultation phase. This phase can be analysed in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the past tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ there-and-then] feature. The interaction between the two police officials in lines 60-65 is in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because the police official only provide information about the incident [+ no reasoning] feature. The police official provides a considerable amount of information to his/ her colleague. Furthermore, **ngobusuku** and **neStellenbosch** illustrate examples of temporal references. Therefore, it represents the [- few elements] feature along the resource-directing dimension. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential

framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because only information is given concerning the incident. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police official providing the information has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [+ prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Wadutyulwa** and **NgoMvulo** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 9-11, 14-18, 26-27, 36-38, 49, 52, 60, 63-64 consist of simple sentences. In lines 30-35 **ngobusuku** is an example of an adverb of time. In line 37 **neStellenbosch** illustrates an adverb of place.

Ndinalo lonke ulwazi malunga netyala is a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause and a dependent clause. **Ndinalo lonke ulwazi** is the independent clause and **malunga netyala** is the dependent clause. **Uhlawule le ndoda ukuze ibulale umfazi wakhe** is also a complex sentence. The independent clause is **Uhlawule le ndoda** and the dependent clause is **ukuze ibulale umfazi wakhe**. Another complex sentence is **Uhlawule umntu ngamnye kubo ama-R15000 ukuze babulale umfazi wakhe**. **Uhlawule umntu ngamnye kubo ama-R15000** is the independent clause which is in the past tense and **ukuze babulale umfazi wakhe** is the dependent clause. **Imbumbulu yaqala esandleni ngaphambi kokuba iye emqaleni** is a complex sentence, because **Imbumbulu yaqala esandleni** is the independent clause and **ngaphambi kokuba iye emqaleni** is the dependent clause. These complex sentences illustrate a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 66-72 represent the instruction and decision-making phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only an instruction is given [+ no reasoning] feature. No information is provided and therefore it represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because only an instruction is given. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

5.3.6.2 Task typology

Dialogue 6 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (police official 2) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official

1), but which he needs in order to complete the task. Police official 2 holds all the information about the murder of the woman, where it happened and the person who came upon the dead body. Police official 1 requires this information so that the suspects can be caught and the case be solved.

This task entails a two-way flow of information. The one participant (police official 2) requires information and the other participant (police official 1) supplies the required information. According to Table 3-1 these features correspond with interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. It also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a. Both interactants (both police officials) work towards a convergent goal and only one acceptable outcome is possible. The goal is to receive all of the information about the murder. The outcome is that the police will eventually catch the suspects in order to solve the case.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

Lines 60-63 are an example of an opinion giving task. The participants (two police officials) are engaged in discussion. The police official shared an opinion about his feeling concerning the murder. The task entails a two-way flow of information. Each participant (two police officials) is interacting (+). This interaction is carried out under the Table 3-1 categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

In this opinion-exchange task interaction is required (+). There is one outcome option (1), because in lines 61-62 police official 2 agrees with the opinion of police official 1, i.e. that it was a very horrific murder.

5.3.7 Dialogue 7

The communication that takes place in this dialogue can be used to meet the demand of the real world. Therefore, the language in this task can be used to communicate in the real world outside the classroom. Interaction in this particular dialogue takes place between two

participants (two police officials). The two police officials are at the police station busy discussing the incident about the murder of the farmer.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Umlimi wagwintelwa kwifama yakhe. Wena kunye nogxa wakho nixoxa malunga neli tyala. Nixoxa ngokuba lenzeke nini na, ngobani na abarhanelwa, kwaye bangene njani na kweli bandezi. Nithetha malunga nokhuseleko lwendlu nokuba isenzo sokugwinta senzeke njani na. Nithethe nangokuba ixhoba belingumntu olunge kangakanani na, nangendlela wonke ubani aza kumkhumbula ngayo ekuhlaleni.

A farmer was murdered on his farm. You and your colleague are having a discussion about the case. You discuss when it happened, who the suspects are and how the suspects came in the yard. You speak about the safety of the house and how the murder took place. You speak about the good person that the victim was and how everybody in the community will remember him.

Captain 1: Ziya zisanda iziganeko zokufa kwamafama kwezi ntsuku. *(There are more and more farm murders these days. It is unbelievable!)*
[expressing unbelief]

Captain 2: Ewe. Kubi kakhulu. *(Yes. It is very bad!)* (3)
[expressing unbelief]

Captain 1: Ndincine inkosikazi kaCosta kwaye ngokunokwakhe esi siganeko senzeke malunga ne-02:50 ngentseni. *(I questioned Costa's wife and according to her the incident took place at 02:50 in the morning.)* (6)
[explaining deed]

Captain 2: Bangene njani abarhanelwa kweli bandezi? Kuthiwa ibandezi lakhe lelikhuseleke kakhulu. *(But how on earth did the suspect come in the yard? Apparently he had a very secured yard.)* (9)
[expressing uncertainty] ; [stating uncertainty]

Captain 1: Ewe, kunjalo. Abarhanelwa bombe umngxuma ngaphantsi kocingo baze bangena bafumana ithuba lokungena ngolo hlobo. *(Yes he did. The suspects*

- dug a hole underneath the fence and that is how they got in.* (12)
[explaining deed]
- Captain 2: Bebebabini? Bendicinga ukuba ebe mnye. (*Were there two of them? I was under the impression that there was only one.*)
[asking amount] ; [expressing uncertainty]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Bebebabini abarhanelwa. Bobabini bebexhobile. (*Yes. There were two suspects. And both of them were armed.*) (16)
[giving certainty]
- Captain 2: Andiqinisekanga, kodwa baqhekezile endlwini? (*I'm not sure, but did they break into the house?*) (18)
[expressing uncertainty] ; [asking manner]
- Captain 1: Hayi. UCosta uve ingxolo yezinja wade waphuma waya kujonga ngaphandle. (*No. Costa heard his dogs bark and then he reacted on his barking dogs. He went outside to have a look.*) (21)
[explaining manner]
- Captain 2: Udutyulwe ngelo xesha ke. (*And that is when he got shot.*)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Ulimele esifubeni. (*Yes. They wounded him in his chest.*) (23)
[giving certainty]
- Captain 2: Bendingaphangeli ngelo xesha kodwa umkapteni uTraut uthi kuye kwavakala isandi sevuso. (*I wasn't on duty when it happened, but I know Captain Traut said that an alarm signal went off.*) (26)
[giving information]
- Captain 1: Ewe kunjalo. UCosta ebesebanda ceke ngeli xesha afika ngalo kwindawo yentlekele. (*Yes. That is correct. And Costa was already dead when he arrived on the scene.*)
[confirming information]
- Captain 2: Ndicinga ukuba umrhanelwa uye wabaleka ngeli xesha kufika amapolisa. (*I guess the suspects fled when the police arrived on the scene.*) (30)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 1: Ewe kunjalo. (*Yes, they did.*)
[confirming information]

- Captain 2: Kuye kwabakho igazi elibonisa ukuba omnye wabarhanelwa ulimele. (*There was a blood print which shows that one of the suspects was injured as well.*)
[giving information]
- Captain 1: Ndicinga ukuba uCosta uye wamdubula xa ebezikhusela. (*I guess Costa shot the suspect in self defence.*) (35)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 2: Ewe. Ukwenze oku ngeenjongo zokuzikhusela ngenene. (*Yes. It was definitely out of self defence.*)
[agreeing with opinion]
- Captain 1: Andimbeki tyala. Nam bendiza kwenza ngolo hlobo. (*I don't blame him. I would have done the same.*) (38)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 2: Ewe nam ngokunjalo. Bafuna ntoni ngenene kwibandezi lomnye umntu?! (*Yes. Me too. I mean, what do they want on somebody else's yard?!*) (40)
[agreeing with opinion]
- Captain 1: Yitsh`uphinda. Ayikho into ebalahlekele apho. (*Exactly. They have lost nothing there.*) (42)
[agreeing with opinion]
- Captain 2: Umhlobo kaCosta uthi umrhanelwa usebenzela uCosta. (*According to Costa's friend, the suspects work for Costa.*) (44)
[giving information]
- Captain 1: Ewe, kunjalo. (*Yes, they do.*)
[confirming information]
- Captain 2: Kutheni bembulala. (*Why did they murder him?!*) (46)
[asking reason]
- Captain 1: Abanelisekanga ngumrholo. Bafuna enye imali ngaphezulu. (*They weren't satisfied with their salaries. They wanted more money.*) (48)
[giving reason]
- Captain 2: Ewe, kodwa loo nto ayisisizathu sokubulala omnye umntu. (*Yes, but that's still not a reason to murder somebody.*) (50)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 1: Kuthiwa batya iziyobisi. Benziwe ndlongondlongo zizo. (*Apparently they were on drugs. And that made them very aggressive.*) (52)
[giving information] ; [giving reason]

- Captain 2: Lilonke bebesebenzisa iziyobisi kubusuku obandulela obo bokugwintwa kukaCosta. (*So I guess they used drugs the night before they murdered Costa.*)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Bahloliwe bafunyanwa beneziyobisi. (*Yes. They were tested and the test was positive.*) (56)
[confirming opinion]
- Captain 2: Bonke abahlali baseBoland bacaphukile ngokufa kukaCosta. (*The whole Boland community are very upset about the murder of Costa.*) (58)
[giving information]
- Captain 1: Ewe umhlobo kaCosta uthi ebengengomfama ugqwesileyo nje kuphela, koko ebengumhlobo kumntu wonke. (*Yes. According to Costa's friend he was not only a very successful farmer, but he was everybody's friend.*) (61)
[giving information]
- Captain 2: Ewe, ebengumntu onovelwano. Ebesoloku enceda abantu. (*Yes, and he was a very sympathetic person. He was always there to help everyone in need.*)
[confirming information]
- Captain 1: Abantu baza kumkhumbula kakhulu. (*The people are going to miss him extremely!*) (64)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 2: Ewe. Kwaye ushiya ngasemva inkosikazi nabantwana ababini - owokuqala uneminyaka emithathu, owesibini uneminyaka esibhozo. (*Yes. And he leaves behind a wife and two children – one is three years old and the other is eight years old.*) (68)
[agreeing with opinion] ; [giving information]
- Captain 1: Ngoku abantwana baphulukene noyise. (*Now the children lost a father*) (70)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 2: Ewe, inkosikazi kuza kufuneka iziqhelise ukuba kwimeko yokungabikho kunye nomyeni wayo. (*Yes, and also a wife who needs to adapt to circumstances because he is not there anymore.*)
[agreeing with opinion] ; [giving opinion]
- Captain 1: Yinkohlakalo yokwenene le. (*It is so unnecessary.*) (73)
[expressing feelings]
- Captain 2: Ewe. Ngenene. (*Yes. Indeed.*)
[sharing feelings]

Captain 1: Kwakhona obu bubungqina bokuba ukhuseleko ludinga ukujongisiswa. (*Once again this is a confirmation that security and safety, as well as lawlessness need immediate attention.*) (77)

[giving opinion]

Captain 2: Ndiyavuma. (*I fully agree*)

[agreeing with opinion]

Captain 1: Ityala liyaqala kwiveki ezayo. Sidinga ukuba khona. (*The case appears next week. We need to be there.*) (80)

[giving time of appearance] ; [expressing need]

Captain 2: Kulungile. (*Okay. That is fine.*)

[showing co-operation]

5.3.7.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-3 form part of the introductory phase. The introductory phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only an opinion is given and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official only expresses an opinion concerning farm murders. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of

Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 4-78 form part of this phase. The information and consultation phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police officials have a discussion about events in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. The communication in lines 34-42 and lines 73-78 takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now], because the police officials give opinions about the incident. The two police officials reason about the incident (lines 34-42, 73-78) and therefore it represents the [- no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when discussing the incident and **kusasa** is an example of a spatial referential expression. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly high level segment of developmental complexity.

The two police officials has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when they discuss the incident. The police officials give information while the discussion takes place and they give opinions about the incident. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example

of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component four according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and high developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

There are predominantly simple sentences in this segment and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. Lines 7-9, 15-16, 31, 36-38, 39-42, 46-52, 64-70, 73-74 contain simple sentences. **Ndiyavuma** is an example of a mono-clausal sentence.

Ndibuze inkosikazi kaCosta iye yathi esi siganeko senzeke malunga no-02:50 ngentseni is a compound-complex sentence, because it contains two independent clauses and one dependent clause. **Ndibuze inkosikazi kaCosta** and **esi siganeko senzeke malunga no-02:50 ngentseni** are the two independent clauses and **iye yathi** is the dependent clause. The two independent clauses are in the past tense. In this sentence **ngentseni** illustrates an adverb of time.

Angiqinisekanga, kodwa baqhekezile endlwini? is a compound sentence, because it consists of two independent clauses. **Angiqinisekanga** and **baqhekezile endlwini** are the two independent clauses. **Angiqinisekanga** is in the present tense negative and **baqhekezile endlwini** is in the past tense perfectum. In this sentence **kodwa** is the conjunction. **UCosta uve ingxolo yezinja wade waphuma waya kujonga ngaphandle** is also a compound sentence. **UCosta uve ingxolo yezinja** and **wade waphuma waya kujonga ngaphandle** are the two independent clauses which are in the past tense.

UCosta ebesele ebanda ceke ngexesha afike ngalo is a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause and a dependent clause. **UCosta ebanda ceke** is the independent clause and **ngexesha afike ngalo** is the dependent clause. These clauses are in the past tense perfectum. Another complex sentence is **Ndicinga ukuba umrhanelwa uye wabaleka ngeli xesha kufika amapolisa**. The independent clause is **Ndicinga ukuba umrhanelwa uye wabaleka** and the dependent clause is **ngeli xesha kufika amapolisa**. **Ndicinga ukuba basebenzise iziyobisi kubusuku obandulela obo bokubulala uCosta** is a complex sentence. **Ndicinga ukuba basebenzise iziyobisi** is the independent clause and

ubusuku obandulela obo bokubulala uCosta is the dependent clause. In this sentence **ubusuku** illustrates an adverb of time. These sentences consist of a high level of syntactic complexity. **Ulimele esifubeni** is a complex sentence, because **Ulimele** is the independent clause and **esifubeni** is the dependent clause. Another complex sentence is **Umhlobo kaCosta uthi umrhanelwa usebenzela uCosta**, because **umrhanelwa usebenzela uCosta** is the independent clause and **Umhlobo kaCosta uthi** is the dependent clause.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 79-81 illustrate the instruction and decision-making phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] features. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only an instruction is given [+ no reasoning] feature. Few information is provided and therefore it represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is not an example of a single task, because an instruction is given and information is provided. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

5.3.7.2 Task typology

Dialogue 7 is an example of predominantly a jigsaw task. Each interactant (police officials) holds a portion of information which must be exchanged and manipulated, because they are working towards a single task goal. In this specific dialogue, both of the police officials have different portions of totality of the information about the farmer that was murdered. Their goal is to solve the case with all of the information they have at their disposal.

According to Table 3-2 each interactant (police officials) holds, requests and supplies information as needed and they have a mutual relationship of request and suppliance. This task entails a two-way flow of information, i.e. from interactant X (police official 1) to interactant Y (police official 2) and vice versa. Interaction is required (+), because the police officials require and give information in a mutual relationship in order to complete the task (to solve the case about the farmer that was murdered).

The participants (police officials) are expected to achieve a convergent goal (+) and a single outcome (1). Therefore, these tasks corresponds with interactional activity 1a, interaction requirement 2a, goal orientation 3a and outcome options 4a in Table 3-1.

Lines 34-42 are an example of an opinion giving task. The participants (two police officials) are engaged in discussion. Police official shared an opinion about his feeling concerning the fact that the victim have shot the suspect as well. The task entails a two-way flow of information. Each participant (two police officials) is interacting (+). This interaction is carried out under the Table 3-1 categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

In this opinion-exchange task interaction is required (+). There is one outcome option (1), because in lines 36, 39, 40 police official 2 agrees with the opinion of police official 1, i.e. that it was out of self defence that the victim has shot the suspect.

5.3.8 Dialogue 8

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this particular dialogue, the communication takes place between two participants (two police officials). The two police officials are at the police station and they are having a meeting to see whether they have got all of the information concerning the case at their disposal.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Utata uxhwila intwazana yakhe, aze amkisele kunye nayo. Wena nogxa wakho nibambe intlanganiso ukuze niphonononge ukuba ngaba zikhona zonke iinyani ezibambekayo malunga neli tyala. Nixoxa ngobunyani bokuba bakhe bachankcatha indlela yokuchitha umtshato, nokuba wayekhe wafumana isithintelo-somthetho. Nixoxa ngendlela afike ngayo endlwini yakhe, nangohlobo amhlasele ngalo, waza akugqiba wemkisela nentwazana yakhe.

A father kidnapped his daughter and fled with her. You and your colleague are having a meeting to see whether you have all the facts concerning the case. You discuss the fact that they went through a divorce and that she got an interdict against him. You are also having a discussion on how he arrived at her house and how he attacked her and fled with his daughter.

Colonel 1: Ingaba unalo ixesha? Singakhawuleza siqwalasela iinkcukacha? (*Do you have time? Can we quickly go over all the facts.*) (2)

[asking for time] ; [expressing desire]

Colonel 2: Ngokuqinisekileyo. Ungafumana isihlalo. (*Certainly. Have a seat.*)

[fulfilling desire] ; [giving invitation]

Colonel 1: Enkosi. (*Thank you*) (4)

[expressing thankfulness]

Colonel 2: Mandifumane ifayile yakho. (*Let me just get the file of the case. . .*)

[showing deed]

Kulungile. Ndiyifumene. (*Okay. I've got it.*) (6)

[confirming deed]

- Colonel 1: Utata ngumfoti. (*The father is a graphic designer.*)
[giving information]
- Colonel 2: Ewe. Kodwa akasebenzi okwalo mzuzu. (*Yes. But he doesn't have a work at the moment.*) (9)
[confirming information] ; [giving information]
- Colonel 1: Kulungile yena nenkosikazi yakhe basandul'ukuwuqhawula umtshato kwinyanga ezintandathu ezidlulileyo. (*That is correct. Apparently he and his wife went through a divorce for six months.*) (12)
[confirming information] ; [giving information]
- Colonel 2: Ewe unencwadi yesithintelo-somthetho ejolise kumyeni wakhe. (*Yes. And she got an interdict against her husband.*) (14)
[confirming information]
- Colonel 1: Ewe kuba ebenobungozi emsongela nangokumbulala athathe abantwana bakhe. (*Yes, because he was very dangerous and threatened to kill her and take the children with him.*) (17)
[confirming information] ; [giving reason]
- Colonel 2: Khona ngoku ebesandula kumfowunela amatyeli ngamatyeli. Akayinanzanga loo minxeba yakhe. (*Apparently he phoned her several times. But she ignored the calls. She told him to speak to her lawyer.*)
[giving information]
- Colonel 1: Ewe kwaye ayisebenzanga. (*Yes. And that didn't work either.*) (21)
[confirming information]
- Colonel 2: Hayi. Ufike endlwini yakhe kusasa izolo. Andiqinisekanga ngexesha. (*No. He arrived at her house yesterday morning. I'm just not sure what the time was.*)
[confirming information] ; [giving day] ; [expressing uncertainty]
- Colonel 1: Ufike ngentsimbi yesithandathu kusasa. (*He arrived at 06:00 in the morning.*)
[giving time]
- Colonel 2: Kulungile ndiza kuyinika ingqwalasela loo nto. (*Okay. I will make a note of that.*) (26)
[showing acceptance]
- Colonel 1: Uthe efika wabe ebona ukuba ikhona into engalunganga. Uye wavala iingcango zamagumbi. Andiqinisekanga ke ngoku ukuba umvulele kusini na umnyango wangaphambili? (*When he arrived, she knew that something was wrong. She went to close the bedroom doors of the children. I'm not sure now,*

- did she open the front door for him?* (31)
[narrating incident] ; [expressing uncertainty]
- Colonel 2: Hayi ukhabe ucango lwavuleka. Akuba engaphakathi uqalise ukumtyhala emkrwitsha. (*No. He kicked the door open. Once he was inside, he started to push her around and he strangled her.*) (34)
[giving certainty] ; [narrating deeds]
- Colonel 1: Egumbini lokuhlala. (*In the living room.*)
[giving place]
- Colonel 2: Ewe ngeli lixa amkrwitshayo umthembise ngokumbulala embonisa nokuba uza kumbulala njani. (*Yes. While he strangled her he said that he is going to kill her and that he will show her how he will kill her.*) (38)
[confirming place] ; [narrating incident]
- Colonel 1: Uthe akudlula wathatha intombi yakhe eneminyaka emithandathu wemka nayo. (*When she passed out, he took his 6 year old daughter and fled with her.*) (41)
[explaining deeds]
- Colonel 2: Ewe bade bamfumana eRichmond. (*Yes. They eventually found him in Richmond.*) (43)
[confirming deeds] ; [giving place]
- Colonel 1: Intombazana isindile. Ngethamsanqa akayenzanga nto. (*The daughter was safe. Luckily he did nothing to harm her.*) (45)
[confirming safety]
- Colonel 2: Ewe ngethamsanqa. (*Yes, luckily.*)
[expressing relief]
- Colonel 1: Ufunyaniswe enetyala lokubetha nokuthimba. (*He is found guilty of assault and kidnapping.*) (48)
[confirming guilt]
- Colonel 2: Ityala lakhe likwiveki ezayo. (*Yes. And his case appears next week.*)
[giving time]
- Colonel 1: Kule veki izayo ngoMvulo. (*Next week Monday.*) (50)
[confirming time]
- Colonel 2: Ewe (*Yes*)
[confirming time]

Colonel 1: Kulungile. Ndicinga ukuba sinayo yonke into. (*Okay. I think we have everything.*) (53)

[expressing gratefulness]

Colonel 2: Ndicinga njalo. (*I think so too.*)

[showing agreement]

Colonel 1: Enkosi ngexesha lakho. (*Thank you for your time.*) (55)

[expressing thankfulness]

Colonel 2: Enkosi (*Thank you*)

[expressing thankfulness]

5.3.8.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-4 form part of the introductory phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase [+ no reasoning]. No information is provided by the two police officials in this phase. Therefore it represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

In this segment the police official requests time to discuss the incident. Therefore, it represents the [+ single task] feature. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning [- planning]. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, it represents the [- prior knowledge] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase

predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. **Ngokuqinisekileyo** and **Enkosi** are examples of monoclausal sentences.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 5-54 form part of this phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police officials have a discussion about events in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. The two police officials do not reason about the incident and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when discussion concerning the incident occurs. Furthermore, **kusasa** illustrate a spatial referential expression. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The two police officials has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when they discuss the incident. The police officials give information while the discussion takes place. Therefore, it represents the [+ single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in

category/ component one according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a low performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains sentences consisting of simple clauses. Lines 5-9, 18-21, 24-26, 35, 42-46 and 49-51 consist of simple sentences. In line 24 **kusasa** illustrates an adverb of time. In the sentence **Uthe akudlula wathatha intombi yakhe eneminyaka emithandathu wemka nayo**, the word **wathatha** is in the A-past tense.

Ufike endlwini yakhe kusasa izolo is a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. **Ufike endlwini yakhe** is the independent clause and **kusasa izolo** is the dependent clause. **Kusasa** is an adverb of time in this sentence. **Ufike ngentsimbi yesithandathu kusasa** is also a complex sentence. **Ufike ngentsimbi yesithandathu** is the independent clause and **kusasa** is the dependent clause. The independent clause is in the perfectum past tense. Another complex sentence is **Ufunyaniswe enetyala lokubetha nokuthimba**, because **Ufunyaniswe enetyala** is the independent clause which is in the past tense and **lokubetha nokuthimba** is the dependent clause. **Ndicinga ukuba sinayo yonke into** is also a complex sentence. **Sinayo yonke** is the independent clause which is in the indicative present tense and **Ndicinga ukuba** is the dependent clause.

Akuba engaphakathi uqalise ukumtyhala emkrwitsha is a compound-complex sentence, because it consists of two independent clauses and one dependent clause. **Uqalise ukumtyhala** and **emkrwitsha** are the two independent clauses and **Akuba engaphakathi** is the dependent clause. The complex sentences, as well as the compound-complex sentence illustrate a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Andiqinisekanga is an example of a negative present tense.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 55-56 form part of the instruction and decision-making phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only gratitude is being expressed [+ no reasoning] feature. No information is provided and therefore it represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because only gratitude is expressed. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this predominantly phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

5.3.8.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of predominantly a jigsaw task. Each interactant (police officials) holds a portion of information which must be exchanged and manipulated, because

they are working towards a single task goal. Both of the police officials have different portions of the totality of information about the man who strangled his wife and fled with his daughter. Their goal is to solve the case and to see whether they have all of the information at their disposal before the case appears in court.

According to Table 3-2 each interactant (police officials) holds, requests and supplies information as needed and they have a mutual relationship of request and suppliance. This task entails a two-way flow of information, i.e. from interactant X (police official 1) to interactant Y (police official 2) and vice versa. Interaction is required (+), because of the fact that the police officials require and give information in a mutual relationship in order to complete the task, i.e. to see whether they have got all of the information at their disposal concerning the case.

The participants (police officials) are expected to achieve a convergent goal (+) and a single outcome (1). Therefore, these tasks corresponds with interactional activity 1a, interaction requirement 2a, goal orientation 3a and outcome options 4a in Table 3-1.

5.3.9 Dialogue 9

The communication that takes place in this dialogue can be used to meet the demand of the real world. Therefore, the language in this task can be used to communicate in the real world outside the classroom. Interaction in this particular task is taking place between two participants (two police officials). The two police officials are having a discussion in which they are providing a considerable amount of information concerning the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Indoda igwinte inkosikazi yayo yakugqiba yay kufaka isimangalo sokulahleka kwayo. Wena kunye nogxa wakho nixoxa malunga nexesha eyenzeka ngalo le nto, yenzeke njani kwaye yenzeke phi. Nixoxa malunga nendlela ayinyengeze ngayo inkosikazi yakhe nangendlela ayibulele nayo nokuba umzimba wakhe ufunyenwe ndawoni emva kokuba efake eze

kuchaza ngokulahleka kwakhe. Nikwahlafunisisa nesizeka bani esinokuba sikhokelele ekubeni agwinte inkosikazi yakhe.

A man murdered his wife and then reported her missing. You and your colleague are having a discussion in which you discuss when it happened, how it happened and where it happened. You discuss how he got rid of her after he killed his wife and where her body was found after he reported her missing. You are also having a discussion in which you are trying to figure out his motive behind the murder.

Captain 1: Umnumzana Davids uchaza ngokunyamalala kwenkosikazi yakhe ngoLweesibini, umhla we-19 kweyoMqungu. (*Mr Davids reported his wife missing on Tuesday, 19 January.*)

[giving time of report]

Captain 2: Ewe. Kwaye kungala mini wambulala ngayo. (*Yes. And it was on that same day when he murdered her.*) (4)

[confirming report] ; [giving information]

Captain 1: Ewe. Umzimba wakhe ufunyenwe emlanjeni. (*Yes. Her body was found in a river. He threw the body in the river after he murdered her.*)

[confirming information] ; [giving information]

Captain 2: Kuyacaca ukuba bebenengxabano ngolu suku ambulala ngalo. (*Apparently they had a fight on the day he murdered her.*) (8)

[giving information]

Captain 1: Ewe. Wacaphuka kakhulu waze wambetha wade wamosela. (*Yes. He got very angry and he started attacking her until she was dead.*) (10)

[confirming information] ; [giving reason]

Captain 2: Wayekhangeleka engakwazi ukuzilawula. (*He was totally beyond himself.*)

[giving information]

Captain 1: Ingaba uyayazi ukuba bebesilwa ngantoni? (*Do you know what they were fighting about?*) (13)

[expressing uncertainty]

Captain 2: Andikhumbuli. Ndimbuzile xa bendimncina malunga eli tyala, kodwa akakhange afune kundiphendula. (*I have no idea. I asked him when I questioned him about the case, but he didn't want to answer me.*) (16)

[expressing uncertainty] ; [giving reason]

- Captain 1: Ndibuze abamelwane bakhe baze bathi ebenengxaki enkulu yotywala. Ngalo lonke ixesha ebenxila kakhulu, aphele esiba nobundlobongela. (*I asked his neighbours and they said that he had a big alcohol problem. Every time he drank too much, he got very aggressive.*) (20)
[giving information] ; [giving reason]
- Captain 2: Ingaba ebemxhaphaza xa enxilile? (*Did he abuse her when he was drunk?*)
[asking about abuse]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Ebemxhaphaza ngokwasemzimbeni. Ebeqhele ukumbetha. Ebesoloko egcwele imigruzuko emzimbeni. (*Yes. He physically abused her. He used to hit her. She was constantly full of bruises.*) (24)
[confirming abuse]
- Captain 2: Kwaye akazange akhe acinge ngokuwuchitha umtshato? (*And she never thought of getting a divorce?*) (26)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Captain 1: Ngokwabammelwane wayemoyikisa ngokumbulala xa enokucinga ngokumlahla. (*According to the neighbours he threatened to kill her if she ever thought of divorcing him.*) (29)
[giving information]
- Captain 2: Ingaba wayezisebenzisa iziyobisi? (*Did he use drugs?*)
[asking about drugs]
- Captain 1: Ewe. Ebezisebenzisa. (*Yes. He did.*) (31)
[confirming use of drugs]
- Captain 2: Kunjalo sesinye isizathu esikhokelele kubundlobongela bakhe. (*So that's the other reason for his aggressiveness.*) (33)
[giving opinion]
- Captain 1: Ewe. (*Yes*)
[confirming opinion]
- Captain 2: Usuhambise njani isidumbu ukusisa emlanjeni? (*How did he transport the dead body to the river?*) (36)
[asking manner]
- Captain 1: Uye waqesha imoto. (*He hired a car.*)
[giving manner]

- Captain 2: Uye wayenzani imoto emva kokulahla umzimba? (*What did he do with the car after he dumped the body?*) (39)
[asking deed]
- Captain 1: Uyithathe wayisa kule ndawo ebeyiqeshe kuyo. (*He took it back to the place where he hired it.*) (41)
[explaining deed]
- Captain 2: Ingaba ubushiyele ubungqina emotweni? (*Did he leave any evidence behind in the car?*) (43)
[asking evidence]
- Captain 1: Hayi. Akukhange kubekho kwanto emotweni xa wayeyibuyisa. (*No. The car was spotless when he returned it.*) (45)
[denying evidence]
- Captain 2: Ezama ukufuna intsusa yokuba lo mfo abulale inkosikazi yakhe. (*Try to find out his motive behind the murder of his wife.*) (47)
[giving task]
- Captain 1: Kulungile. Ndiza kumbuza kwakhona. (*Okay. I will question him again.*)
[showing co-operation]
- Captain 2: Kulungile ndiza kuthetha nabamelwane bakhe kunye nabantu asebenza nabo. (*Okay. I will speak to his neighbours and his colleagues. Where does he work?*) (51)
[showing co-operation] ; [asking place]
- Captain 1: Kumzi othengisa amayeza. (*At the pharmacy.*)
[giving place]
- Captain 2: Kulungile. Ingaba unabo abantwana? (*Okay. Does he have any children?*)
[asking information]
- Captain 1: Hayi. (*No.*) (54)
[confirming information]
- Captain 2: Kukungile. Ungakhangela ukuba ungafumana ntoni kwaye siphinde sihlngane ngomso emva kwesidlo sasemini. (*Okay. See what you can find out and then we can meet tomorrow after lunch again.*) (57)
[giving task]
- Captain 1: Kulungile. (*Okay*)
[showing co-operation]

Captain 2: Sobonana ke. (*See you then.*) (59)
[greeting]

5.3.9.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

This particular task does not contain an introductory phase since neither of the police officials is expressing a desire to discuss the incident.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 1-54 represent the information and consultation phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police officials have a discussion about events in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. In lines 46-54 the police official gives an instruction to his colleague. This interaction takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. The two police officials do not reason about the incident and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when discussion regarding the incident occurs. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The two police officials have a discussion concerning the incident and therefore they have to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge]. The police officials give information while the discussion takes place and instructions are given. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police official does not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity.

Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Andikhumbuli, Kulungile** and **Ebezisebenzisa** are examples of mono-clausal sentences. Lines 3-4, 11-13, 22-26, 30-34, 37 and 48-54 contain simple sentences.

UDavids uchaza ngokunyamalala kwenkosikazi yakhe ngoLwesibini, nomhla we-19 kweyoMqungu is a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. **UDavids uchaza ngokunyamalala kwenkosikazi yakhe** is the independent clause and **ngoLwesibini, umhla we-19 kweyoMqungu** is the dependent clause. **Kubonakalisa ukuba bebenengxabano ngala mini ambulala ngayo** is a complex sentence, because **Kubonakalisa ukuba bebenengxabano** is the independent clause and **ngala mini ambulala ngayo** is the dependent clause. **Ingaba ebemxhaphaza, xa enxilile** is a complex sentence. **Ingaba ebemxhaphaza** is the independent clause and **xa enxilile** is the dependent clause. A further example of a complex sentence is **Usihambise njani isidumbu ukusisa emlanjeni. Usihambise njani isidumbu** is the independent clause which is in the past tense and **ukusisa emlanjeni** is the dependent clause. **Akukhange kubekho kwanto emotweni xa wayeyibuyisa** is also a complex sentence, because it contains an independent clause, as well as a dependent clause. **Akukhange kubekho kwanto emotweni** is the independent clause and **xa wayeyibuyisa** is the dependent clause.

Wacaphuka kakhulu waze wambetha wade wafa is a compound sentence, because it consists of two independent clauses. **Wacaphuka kakhulu waze** and **wambetha wade wafa** are the two independent clauses which are in the past tense. **Ndibuze abamelwane bakhe baze bathi ebenengxaki enkulu yotywala. Ngalo lonke ixesha ebenxila kakhulu, ebeba ndlongo-ndlongo** is also a compound sentence. **Ndibuze abamelwane bakhe baze** and **bathi ebenengxaki enkulu yotywala** are the two independent clauses.

Ndimbuzile xa bendimncina malunga neli tyala, kodwa akakhange afune ukundiphendula is a compound-complex sentence, because it contains two independent

clauses and one dependent clause. **Ndimbuzile** and **akakhange afune ukundiphendula** are the two independent clauses and **xa bendimbuza ngetyala** is the dependent clause.

The above examples of complex, compound and compound-complex sentences are syntactically complex and therefore illustrate a higher level of syntactic complexity.

Because of the fact that this segment consists of predominantly simple clauses, it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 55-59 form part of the instruction and decision-making phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The interaction between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only an instruction is given [+ no reasoning]. No information is provided and therefore it represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of a single task, because only an instruction is given. No planning has to be done in this segment. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [+ single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level of performative complexity. Hence, this predominantly phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

Khangela ukuba ungafumana ntoni kwaye siphinde sihlangane ngomso emva kwesidlo sasemini is a compound sentence, because it contains two independent clauses. **Khangela ukuba ungafumana ntoni kwaye siphinde sihlangane ngomso emva kwesidlo sasemini** and **siphinde sihlangane ngomso emva kwesidlo sasemini** are the two independent clauses. This sentence illustrates a higher level of syntactic complexity.

5.3.9.2 Task typology

Dialogue 9 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (police official 1) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official 2), but which he needs in order to complete the task. Police official 1 holds all the information about the death of a woman, why the suspect murdered her, what problems he had, how he murdered her, etc. Police official 2 requires the information in order to get clarity about the murder case.

This task entails a two-way flow of information. The one participant (police official 2) requires information and the other participant (police official 1) supplies the required information. According to Table 3-1 these features correspond with interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. It also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a. Both interactants (both police officials) work towards a convergent goal and only one acceptable outcome is possible. The goal is to receive all of the information about the murder. The outcome is that the police will get clarity about the murder and the suspect in order to solve the case.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

Lines 1-11 are an example of a jigsaw task. Each interactant (police officials) holds a portion of information which must be exchanged and manipulated, because they are working towards

a single task goal. Both of the police officials have different portions of the totality of information about the man who murdered his wife and who threw the body in a river. Their goal is to solve the case and to see whether they have all of the information at their disposal.

According to Table 3-2 each interactant (police officials) holds and supplies information as needed and they have a mutual relationship of request and compliance. This task entails a two-way flow of information, i.e. from interactant X (police official 1) to interactant Y (police official 2) and vice versa. Interaction is required (+), because the police officials require and give information in a mutual relationship in order to complete the task, i.e. to see whether they have got all of the information at their disposal.

The participants (police officials) are expected to achieve a convergent goal (+) and a single outcome (1). Therefore, these tasks correspond with interactional activity 1a, interaction requirement 2a, goal orientation 3a and outcome options 4a in Table 3-1.

Lines 46-50 are an example of a decision-making task. The one participant (police official 1) decides to question the suspect again, while the other participant (police official 2) decides to question the neighbour of the victim. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide whether or not to question the suspect and the neighbour ($X=Y$).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. to question the neighbour and the suspect (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to question these people).

5.3.10 Dialogue 10

This task is based on the language that is used outside of the classroom, i.e. in the real world. Therefore, the learners are able to meet the demands of the real-world target tasks. In this

particular dialogue, the communication takes place between two participants (two police officials). The police official enters the office of his colleague and he/ she provides a considerable amount of information in order for his/ her colleague to obtain clarity concerning the incident.

- [Language Functions]

Scenario

Kuphangwe ivenkile. Wena ke kufuneka uphanda lo mbodamo. Ugxaxakho ungena e-ofisini yakho akubuze malunga neli tyala. Umxelela ukuba yintoni kanye eyenzekileyo nalapho yenzeke khona. Umxelela nangesiganeko esichaphazelainja yakho. Kananjalo mxelele ukuba ngaba bangaphi na abarhanelwa ababandakanyekayo, nokuba usaphanda umkhondo womnye wabarhanelwa.

A store was robbed. You had to investigate the case. Your colleague comes to your office and asks you about the case. You tell him exactly what happened and where it happened. You tell him about the incident with your dog. You also tell him how many suspects were involved and that you are still looking for one of the suspects.

- Inspector 1: Molo (*Hello*) (1)
[greeting]
- Inspector 2: Molo. Kunjani ngempilo? (*Hello. How are you?*)
[greeting] ; [asking well being]
- Inspector 1: Ndiphilile enkosi. Kunjani kuwe? (*I'm fine thank you. And you?*) (3)
[responding about well being] ; [asking well being]
- Inspector 2: Ndiphilile enkosi. Ungahlala phantsi. (*I'm fine thank you. Have a seat.*)
[responding about well being] ; [giving invitation]
- Inspector 1: Enkosi. Ndiva ukuba kuqhekeziwe kwayeinja yakho ihlatyiwe. (*Thank you. I heard there was a robbery and that your dog was stabbed.*) (6)
[expressing thankfulness] ; [expressing unbelief]
- Inspector 2: Ewe. Ibiyinto embi kakhulu. (*Yes. It was quite an experience.*)
[confirming information] ; [sharing experience]
- Inspector 1: Kuqhekezwe phi? (*Where did this robbery take place?*) (8)
[asking place]

Inspector 2: Kwivenkile yakwaWoolworths kwisitalato saseCaledon. Iqela lamadoda liqhekeze ifestile enkulu engaphambili ekuboniswa kuyo iimpahla, baze beba iimpahla ezixabisa ama-21 089 eerandi. Bazithathile iimpahla bazifaka kwiMazda emhlophe baze babaleka. Kodwa uloyiso lwabo alukhange luphumelele. Sibaleqe ngesithuthi sethu samapolisa saze esonogada bakwaMaxisafe sasancedisa. Imoto yabarhanelwa itshayise isithuthi esizimeleyo. Ithe yakutshayisa bayishiya apho imoto babaleka bathi saa. Kodwa sisukelisile sisezithendeni zabo. *(At the Woolworths store in Caledon street. A group of men broke the display window in the front of the store and stole clothes with a value of R21 089. They took the clothes and bundled it into a white Mazda and then they sped away. But their victory didn't last. We chased the suspects in our police car and a security vehicle from Maxisafe also joined in the chase. The suspect's car eventually crashed into a stationary vehicle. Once the car crashed, the suspects left the car behind and ran off in different directions. But we were on their heels.)* (23)

[giving place] ; [narrating incident]

Inspector 1: Benibangaphi kule ndawo yentlekele? *(How many of you were on the scene?)* [asking amount]

Inspector 2: Besibane kunye nenja yam yamapolisa. *(There were four of us and my police dog.)* (26)

[giving amount]

Inspector 1: Niye naphumelela ukubabamba abarhanelwa abo? *(Did you succeed in catching the suspects?)* (28)

[asking about success]

Inspector 2: Ewe. Sikwazile ukubamba omnye xa bebephuma emotweni bebaleka. Samvalela kwangoko. *(Yes. We managed to catch one of the suspects on the scene when they got out of the car and ran away. We arrested him immediately.)* (32)

[confirming success] ; [explaining deed]

Inspector 1: Abanye ke? *(And the rest of the suspects?)*

[asking about suspects]

Inspector 2: Babaleke bangena ematyholweni. Ndiqaphele uOscar etyholweni kwaye bendikufuphi emva kwakhe. Xa bendimalunga neemitha ezine emva kwakhe ndimbone ebuya umva. Bendingayazi ukuba kwenzeka ntoni kodwa xa ndifika

kuOscar uphinde watshona etyholweni kwakhona. *(They ran into the bushes. I released Oscar into the bushes and I was closely behind him. When I was about four metres behind Oscar, I saw him stagger backwards. I didn't know what was going on, but when I reached Oscar, he charged into the bushes again.)* (40)

[narrating incident]

Inspector 1: Emva koko? *(And then?)*

[asking happening]

Inspector 2: Ndive amadoda amabini ekhwaza bavele etyholweni ngelokuzama ukubaleka. UOscar utsale enye ngeengalo wayikhuphela ngaphandle etyholweni waze waphindela kwasetyholweni apho ukuya kulanda eyesibini. Ndibavalele ndabafaka kwisithuthi samapolisa. *(I heard two men shouting before they emerged from the bush in an attempt to escape. Oscar pulled one of the men out of the bushes by his arm and then he went back and pulled out the second man as well. I arrested them and took them to the police van.)*

[explaining happening]

Inspector 1: Ingaba kungeli lixa lokuhlatywa kwakhe uOscar? *(Was it in that time when Oscar was stabbed?)* (49)

[expressing uncertainty]

Inspector 2: Ewe. Xa besisondele kwiveni yamapolisa ndiqaphele ukuba kukho into engalunganga ngoOscar. Ebenganyatheli kakuhle ngonyawo lwakhe. Xa sisemotweni ndiqaphele ukuba uOscar uhlatywe ebusweni nasemlonyeni. *(Yes. While we were heading for the police van, I noticed that there was something wrong with Oscar. He wasn't very stable on his feet. Once we were at the van, I saw that Oscar was stabbed in his face and mouth.)* (55)

[giving certainty] ; [explaining happenings]

Inspector 1: Inokuba ngabarhanelwa kuba bebezama ukumoyikisa ukuze abayeke babaleke. *(It must have been the suspects in an attempt to scare the dog away so that they can get away.)* (58)

[giving opinion]

Inspector 2: Ewe. Kodwa nangona wayenzakele, wabuyela etyholweni wababamba abarhanelwa. *(Yes. But despite the fact that he was injured, he still went back into the bushes and caught the suspects.)* (61)

[agreeing with opinion] ; [giving information]

- Inspector 1: Ngenene yinja ethembakeleyo! (*That is really a reliable dog!*)
[giving opinion]
- Inspector 2: Ewe unjalo! (*Yes, it is!*) (63)
[agreeing with opinion]
- Inspector 1: Ubuthe babe bane abarhanelwa. Nibambe abathathu kuphela. Uphi omnye?
(*You said there were four suspects. You only caught three. Where is the other one?*)
[expressing uncertainty]
- Inspector 2: Usanyamalele. Sisamfuna. (*He is still out there. We are still looking for him.*)
[giving certainty]
- Inspector 1: Ubancinile aba abarhanelwa nibabambileyo? (*Have you questioned the suspects that you have caught?*) (69)
[asking information]
- Inspector 2: Ewe, ndizamile. (*Yes, I have.*)
[confirming information]
- Inspector 1: Abatshongo ukuba angafumaneka phi? Mhlawumbi bayazazi iindawo anokubalekela kuzo. (*Didn't they say where he might be? Maybe they know of places where he might have gone to.*) (73)
[expressing uncertainty] ; [giving opinion]
- Inspector 2: Hayi, bale kwaphela ukuthetha. (*No, they refused to say anything.*)
[giving certainty]
- Inspector 1: Bendicinga njalo. Abazi kuthetha kwanto. (*I thought so. They won't say anything.*) (76)
[expressing thought]
- Inspector 2: Hayi, abasokuze. Kodwa ndiza kuqhubeka ndizama. (*No, they won't. But I will keep trying.*) (78)
[agreeing with thought] ; [showing determination]
- Inspector 1: Kwanga kungakuhle. (*Good luck.*)
[expressing emotion]
- Inspector 2: Enkosi. (*Thank you.*) (80)
[expressing thankfulness]
- Inspector 1: Uze undifowunele ukuba ufuna uncedo. (*Call me if you need help.*)
[offering assistance]

- Inspector 2: Enkosi. Ndakwenze njalo. (*Thank you. I will.*) (82)
[expressing thankfulness]
- Inspector 1: Ube nemini emyoli. (*Have a nice day.*)
[expressing friendliness]
- Inspector 2: Enkosi. Kube njalo nakuwe. (*Thank you. You too.*) (84)
[expressing thankfulness]

5.3.10.1 Task complexity

(i) Introductory phase

Lines 1-4 form part of this phase. The introductory phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase and thus it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature, as well as the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing dimension of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 in Chapter three of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

This segment is an example of more than one task, because it contains the task of greeting and the asking well being. Since the topic of dialogue is familiar to the police official, he/ she do not have to do any planning. Neither of the police officials has to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- single task], [- planning] and [- prior knowledge] features along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences. **Molo, Ndiphilile enkosi, Kunjani kuwe** and **Ungahlala phantsi** are examples of sentences which are learnt as holistic chunks. In line 4 **-nga-** is the potential particle in **Ungahlala**. Therefore, this segment illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

(ii) Information and consultation phase

Lines 5-78 form part of the information and consultation phase. This phase can be analysed in terms of cognitive complexity and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The police officials have a discussion about events in the past. Therefore, it represents the [+ There-and-Then] feature. In lines 62-63 the police official give an opinion to his colleague. This interaction takes place in the present tense [+ here-and-now]. The two police officials do not reason about the incident and therefore it represents the [+ no reasoning] feature. This segment further represents the [- few elements] feature, because a considerable amount of information is given when the incident is discussed. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of developmental complexity.

The police official has to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] when he/ she narrates the incident. The police official narrates the incident, gives information and opinions are given. Therefore, it represents the [- single task] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. The police officials do not do any planning in this segment, thus representing the [- planning] feature. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a predominantly low level segment of performative complexity. Hence, this phase predominantly falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment predominantly contains simple sentences and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity. Lines 7-8, 24, 33, 41, 62-67 and 74-78 consist of simple sentences.

Ndiva ukuba kuqhekeziwe kwayeinja yakho ihlatyiwe is a compound sentence, because it contains two independent clauses. **Ndiva ukuba kuqhekeziwe** and **inja yakho ihlatyiwe** are the two independent clauses. **Sikwazile ukubamba omnye xa bebephuma emotweni bebaleka** is also a compound sentence. **Sikwazile ukubamba omnye** and **bebephuma emotweni bebaleka** are the two independent clauses. Another compound sentence is **Ndiqaphele uOscar etyholweni kwaye bendikufuphi emva kwakhe**, because the two independent clauses are **Ndiqaphele uOscar etyholweni** and **bendikufuphi emva kwakhe**. These two independent clauses are in the past tense. **Ndibavalele ndabafaka kwisithuthi samapolisa** is a compound sentence. **Ndibavalele** and **ndabafaka kwisithuthi samapolisa** are the two independent clauses which are in the past tense.

Bazithathile iimpahla bazifaka kwiMazda emhlophe baze babaleka is a compound-complex sentence. **Bazithathile iimpahla** and **baze babaleka** are the two independent clauses and **bazifaka kwiMazda emhlophe** is the dependent clause. **Bendingayazi ukuba kwenzeka ntoni kodwa xa ndifika kuOscar uphinde watshona etyholweni kwakhona** is also a compound-complex sentence. **Bendingayazi ukuba kwenzeka ntoni** and **uphinde watshona etyholweni futhi** are the two independent clauses which are in the past tense and **kodwa xa ndifika kuOscar** is the dependent clause.

Xa bendimalunga neemitha ezine emva kwakhe ndimbone ebuya umva is a complex sentence, because it consists of one independent clause and one dependent clause. **Ndimbone ebuya umva** is the independent clause and **Xa bendimalunga neemitha ezine emva kwakhe** is the dependent clause. **Xa sasisondela kwiveni yamapolisa ndiqaphele ukuba kukho into engalunganga ngoOscar** is another example of a complex sentence. **Ndiqaphele ukuba kukho into engalunganga ngoOscar** is the independent clause and **Xa sasisondela kwiveni yamapolisa** is the dependent clause. A further example of a complex sentence is **Kodwa ngaphandle kokuba wayenzakele, wabuyela etyholweni wababamba abarhanelwa**, because **wabuyela etyholweni wababamba abarhanelwa** is the independent clause and **Kodwa ngaphandle kokuba wayenzakele** is the dependent clause.

The above examples of compound, complex and compound-complex sentences illustrate a higher level of syntactic complexity.

(iii) Instruction and decision-making phase

Lines 79-80 represent the instruction and decision-making phase. This phase can be analysed as follows in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity.

Cognitive complexity:

The communication between the two police officials takes place in the present tense. Therefore, it represents the [+ here-and-now] feature. No causal reasoning occurs in this phase, because only an instruction is given [+ no reasoning] feature. No information is provided and therefore it represents the [+ few elements] feature along the resource-directing dimension. Therefore, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level segment of developmental complexity.

Politeness is expressed in this phase, as well as gratitude. Therefore, more than one task is carried out [- single task]. The police officials do not do planning in this segment [- planning]. The police officials do not have to draw on prior knowledge. Therefore, this segment represents the [- prior knowledge] feature along the resource-dispersing dimension. It follows that, according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, this phase is an example of a low level of performative complexity. Hence, this phase falls in category/ component two according to Figure 3-2 of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis illustrating a high performative and low developmental complexity.

Syntactic complexity:

This segment only contains mono-clausal sentences and therefore it illustrates a low level of syntactic complexity.

5.3.10.2 Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (police official 2) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official 1), but which he needs in order to complete the task. Police official 2 holds all the information about robbery that took place, where it happened, what exactly happened how many suspects there were and the dog of the police official that was stabbed by one of the suspects. Police official 1 requires the information in order to get clarity about the robbery that took place.

This task entails a two-way flow of information. The one participant (police official 1) requires information and the other participant (police official 2) supplies the required information. According to Table 3-1 these features correspond with interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. It also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a. Both interactants (both police officials) work towards a convergent goal and only one acceptable outcome is possible. The goal is to receive all of the information about the robbery. The outcome is that police official 1 will get clarity about the robbery and that police official 2 will find the missing suspect.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

Lines 56-63 are an example of an opinion-giving task. The participants (two police officials) are engaged in discussion. Police official 1 shared an opinion about the possibility of the dog being stabbed and that it is a very reliable dog. The task entails a two-way flow of information. Each participant (two police officials) is interacting (+). This interaction is carried out under the Table 3-1 categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

In this opinion-exchange task interaction is required (+). There is one outcome option (1), because in lines 59-61, 63 police official 2 agrees with the opinion of police official 1, i.e. that it was out of an attempt to scare the dog away that the suspects stabbed the dog and that it is a very reliable dog.

5.4 Conclusion

The analysis in terms of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis predominantly illustrates a high performative and low developmental complexity. Therefore, the communicative tasks predominantly present the [+ few elements], [+ no reasoning] and [+ here-and-now] features along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension, and the [- planning], [- prior knowledge] and [- single task] features along the resource-dispersing (performative) dimension of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis. However, some of the information and consultation phases in the communicative tasks illustrate a high performative and high developmental complexity. Therefore, the communicative tasks predominantly present the [- few elements], [- no reasoning] and [- here-and-now] features along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension, and the [- planning], [- prior knowledge] and [- single task] features along the resource-dispersing (performative) dimension of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis. Furthermore, some of the information and consultation phases in the communicative tasks illustrate a low performative and low developmental complexity. Therefore, the communicative tasks predominantly present the [+ few elements], [+ no reasoning] and [+ here-and-now] features along the resource-directing (developmental) dimension, and the [+ planning], [+ prior knowledge] and [+ single task] features along the resource-dispersing (performative) dimension of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis. More complex cognitive constructions can be learned at a later stage, as it requires much more attention. Before these more complex cognitive constructions can be learned, the existing constructions in the above communicative tasks need to be achieved successfully.

The analysis in terms of syntactic complexity predominantly illustrates examples of a low level of syntactic complexity. The introductory phase and instruction and decision-making phase tend to consist of simple sentences. These phases predominantly consist of mono-clausal sentences and sentences which are learned as holistic chunks. The information and consultation phase, in contrast, tend to consist of more complex sentences.

The type tasks identified in terms of Pica's (1993) task typology, predominantly illustrate examples of information gap tasks. Information gap tasks require a lot of interaction, therefore it can be concluded that the communicative tasks predominantly illustrate a high interactivity. There are also examples of jigsaw tasks which require a lot of interaction, thus

illustrating high interactivity. Furthermore, examples of opinion-giving and decision-making tasks appear in the communicative tasks. These tasks do not have a high interactivity, because interaction is not required. The high interactivity is advantageous in that it helps to develop the communicative skills of learners in order to communicate in the ‚real world‘.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the communication entailed in the communicative tasks are appropriate for teaching language, i.e. isiXhosa for specific purposes, in this case for police communication.

CHAPTER SIX
SCALING COMPLEXITY OF POLICE-PUBLIC AND POLICE-POLICE
COMMUNICATION TASKS

6.1 Introduction

The development of grammar and grammatical knowledge is seen as important for the completion of tasks in task-based language teaching (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 124). In order for grammar to develop successfully, relevant aspects of grammar need to be considered. Applicable control by language learners over their language use is viewed as an important aspect during task completion („essentialness’) (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 126). It will happen that some grammatical structures are likely to occur naturally in performing a communication task, while others will not. Grammatical structures will usually not occur naturally for second language users. Learners will reach a level of proficiency where they have the ability to identify gaps in their grammar, i.e. noticing will occur. Certain strategies such as reduction or achievement strategies (see Chapter 3) can be used to fill these grammatical gaps and where there is a lack of grammar (Færch & Kasper, 1983). Second Language learners tend to use internal strategies, i.e. strategies which refer to the use of syntax, semantics, pragmatics, morphology and the lexicon (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993: 128). Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993: 132) argues that communicative tasks involving grammatical structures in different ways can be very advantageous. These grammatical structures include task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness. Task-naturalness refers to grammatical structures which will occur naturally during the performance of a task. Task-utility refers to the fact that tasks can be completed without using these grammatical structures, but it will be easier to complete the tasks if the grammatical structures were used. Task-essentialness refers to the fact that tasks cannot be completed without using particular grammatical structures (see section 3.5 in Chapter 3).

Each police-public communication dialogue and police-police communication dialogue contains various language functions. These various language functions can be distinguished in terms of task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness.

6.2 Police-public communication

Language Function	Type of language function	Language structure: degree of naturalness, utility or essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 1, line 5)	Accepting invitation	task-naturalness
Ndiyaxolisa (dialogue 1, line 6)	Apologising	task-naturalness
Ndingakunceda (dialogue 1, line 11)	Offering assistance	task-essentialness
Kucacile ukuba (dialogue 1, line 46)	Making suggestion	task-naturalness
Ayikho enye into (dialogue 1, line 78)	Confirming	task-essentialness
Ucinga fan'ukuba (dialogue 1, line 81)	Asking opinion	task-utility
Andiyazi (dialogue 1, line 83)	Expressing uncertainty	task-essentialness
Ndingathanda ukubuza (dialogue 2, line 2)	Expressing desire	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 2, line 6)	Accepting desire	task-utility
Kukho amarhe okuba (dialogue 2, line 41)	Request confirmation	task-essentialness
Ukwazile (dialogue 2, line 56)	Asking ability	task-essentialness
Andiyazi nokuba (dialogue 2, line 62)	Expressing uncertainty	task-utility
Wamkelekile (dialogue 2, line 80)	Showing acceptance	task-naturalness
Ndicela (dialogue 3, line 1)	Giving invitation	task-naturalness
Uyavuma ukuba (dialogue 3, line 4)	Asking admission	task-essentialness
Uyithumelela ni (dialogue 3, line 10)	Asking reason	task-essentialness
Bendinga ukuba (dialogue 3, line 11)	Giving reason	task-utility
Ubucinga ukuba (dialogue 3, line 12)	Expressing surprise	task-naturalness
Ungacinga ukuba (dialogue 3, line 14)	Asking opinion	task-utility
Benicinga ntoni (dialogue 3, line 36)	Expressing anger	task-naturalness
Ndiyaxolisa (dialogue 3, line 39)	Feeling sorry	task-naturalness
Uyaxolisa (dialogue 3, line 40)	Expressing anger	task-utility

Ndifuna ukuba (dialogue 4, line 7)	Expressing desire	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 4, line 9)	Accepting desire	task-essentialness
Uyayazi ukuba (dialogue 4, line 9)	Offering assistance	task-utility
Andiqinisekanga (dialogue 4, line 10)	Expressing uncertainty	task-essentialness
Ndikucacisele (dialogue 4, line 13)	Offering assistance	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 4, line 14)	Accepting assistance	task-utility
Ndiyaqashisa ukuba (dialogue 4, line 38)	Requiring certainty	task-utility
Andinayo (dialogue 4, line 50)	Confirming innocence	task-essentialness
Ingaba uyakwazi (dialogue 4, line 51)	Asking ability	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 4, line 66)	Showing acceptance	task-utility
Wamkelekile (dialogue 4, line 72)	Showing acceptance	task-naturalness
Asinakukhalaza (dialogue 5, line 3)	Responding about well being	task-naturalness
Ndisafuna (dialogue 5, line 8)	Expressing request	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 5, line 11)	Accepting request	task-utility
Ndicela ukuba (dialogue 5, line 37)	Giving instructions	task-essentialness
Ndingasifumana; ndifuna (dialogue 5, line 40)	Expressing request	task-essentialness
Ndingazifumana (dialogue 5, line 45)	Expressing desire	task-essentialness
Andiqondi; andiqinisekanga (dialogue 6, line 54)	Expressing uncertainty	task-essentialness
Ucinga ukuba (dialogue 6, line 55)	Asking opinion	task-essentialness
Ndicinga ukuba (dialogue 6, line 56)	Giving opinion	task-essentialness
Ungakwazi (dialogue 6, line 58)	Asking recognition	task-essentialness
Ndiza kwenza (dialogue 6, line 60)	Giving confirmation	task-essentialness
Ndingakunceda (dialogue 7, line 3)	Offering assistance	task-essentialness
Ndifuna ukufaka (dialogue 7, line 4)	Expressing desire	task-essentialness
Ndiyavuma (dialogue 7, line 27)	Agreeing with opinion	task-utility
Asinayo (dialogue 7, line 37)	Confirming information	task-essentialness
Ndiz kuthumela (dialogue 7, line 47)	Offering help	Task-essentialness
Ndicela undinike (dialogue 7, line 52)	Expressing request	Task-essentialness
Ndiza kukwazisa (dialogue 7, line 52)	Confirming help	Task-utility

55)		
Ndingakunceda (dialogue 8, line 3)	Offering assistance	Task-essentialness
Ndifuna ukuchaza (dialogue 8, line 4)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 8, line 6)	Accepting desire	Task-essentialness
Azitshintshanga (dialogue 8, line 16)	Expressing hope	Task-utility
Ndiyeva (dialogue 8, line 19)	Expressing compassion	Task-utility
Ndifuna (dialogue 8, line 29)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Andimphathi gadalala (dialogue 8, line 32)	Expressing denial	Task-utility
Andicingi ukuba (dialogue 8, line 33)	Expressing thoughts	Task-utility
Awuzange (dialogue 8, line 42)	Asking reassurance	Task-essentialness
Andiqinisekanga (dialogue 8, line 44)	Expressing uncertainty	Task-utility
Ngokuqinisekileyo (dialogue 8, line 48)	Expressing denial	Task-utility
Ndicinga ukuba (dialogue 8, line 49)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Ndingazifumana (dialogue 9, line 14)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Ngokuqinisekileyo (dialogue 9, line 16)	Accepting request	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 9, line 25, 26)	Showing co-operation	Task-essentialness
Qinisekileyo (dialogue 9, line 49)	Giving permission	Task-essentialness
Kulungile; Ndiza kuba lapho (dialogue 9, line 63)	Expressing thankfulness	Task-utility
Siza kunceda (dialogue 9, line 66)	Offering help	Task-utility
Ndiyazi (dialogue 9, line 70)	Expressing understanding	Task-utility
Ungakwazi (dialogue 10, line 1)	Expressing uncertainty	Task-essentialness
Ndifuna ukuchaza (dialogue 10, line 3)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Andizi kukwazi ukukunceda (dialogue 10, line 4)	Expressing truth	Task-essentialness
Wamkelekile (dialogue 10, line 14)	Expressing gratification	Task-naturalness
Ndingakunceda (dialogue 10, line 18)	Offering assistance	Task-essentialness

Ndingwenela (dialogue 10, line 19)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 10, line 21)	Expressing acceptance	Task-essentialness
Kulungile; Ndiyakuva (dialogue 10, line 43)	Understanding	Task-naturalness
Ndingafumana iinkcukacha (dialogue 10, line 46)	Expressing need	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 10, line 49)	Accepting need	Task-essentialness
Ndiyakhumbula (dialogue 10, line 61)	Expressing remembrance	Task-utility
Siza kukwazisa (dialogue 10, line 66)	Offering help	Task-utility
Ungakwazi (dialogue 10, line 70)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Wamkelekile (dialogue 10, line 80)	Expressing gratification	Task-naturalness

6.3 Police-police communication

Language Function	Type of language function	Language structure: degree of naturalness, utility or essentialness
Andikholelwa (dialogue 1, line 1)	Expressing surprise	task-naturalness
Kuyamangalisa (dialogue 1, line 5)	Expressing strangeness	task-naturalness
Mhlawumbi (dialogue 1, line 8)	Expressing opinion	task-utility
Akunyanzelekanga (dialogue 1, line 14)	Disagreeing with opinion	task-utility
Andisakhumbuli (dialogue 1, line 19)	Expressing uncertainty	task-utility
Ucinga ukuba (dialogue 1, line 23)	Asking opinion	task-essentialness
Ngokuqinisekileyo (dialogue 1, line 26)	Confirming opinion	task-naturalness
Ndiyazibuza (dialogue 1, line 29)	Expressing wonder	task-utility
Ucinga ukuba (dialogue 1, line 43)	Asking opinion	task-essentialness
Kuthethe ukuba (dialogue 1, line 51)	Expressing opinion	task-essentialness
Andazi (dialogue 1, line 58)	Expressing uncertainty	task-utility
Andiqondi (dialogue 1, line 66)	Expressing uncertainty	task-essentialness
Kufanele (dialogue 1, line 79)	Expressing desire	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 1, line 89)	Accepting	task-naturalness

Ndiyavumelana (dialogue 1, line 92)	Agreeing	task-utility
Undazise (dialogue 1, line 93)	Giving instructions	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 2, line 3)	Accepting	task-naturalness
Ndisacinga ukuba (dialogue 2, line 10)	Expressing opinion	task-utility
Ibikukubulala (dialogue 2, line 12)	Confirming	task-utility
Ngokukhawuleza (dialogue 2, line 25)	Confirming	task-utility
Kwaye kungenzeka ukuba (dialogue 2, line 41)	Expressing possibility	task-utility
Yinyani leyo (dialogue 2, line 62)	Agreeing	task-naturalness
Andiyazi (dialogue 2, line 68)	Expressing uncertainty	task-essentialness
Sazile ukuba (dialogue 2, line 82)	Expressing certainty	task-essentialness
Kufuneka siye (dialogue 2, line 88)	Expressing desire	task-essentialness
Ndiyathandabuza ukuba (dialogue 2, line 91)	Expressing doubt	task-utility
Kumele uze (dialogue 3, line 3)	Expressing need	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 3, line 12)	Accepting desire	task-essentialness
Ndiza kulinda (dialogue 3, line 13)	Explaining happening	task-essentialness
Ndiyavuma (dialogue 3, line 17)	Agreeing	task-naturalness
Iyamangalisa le yokuba (dialogue 3, line 29)	Expressing strangeness	task-essentialness
Ndicinga ukuba (dialogue 3, line 30)	Giving opinion	task-utility
Andinakothuka (dialogue 3, line 33)	Expressing uncertainty	task-utility
Andiyazi (dialogue 3, line 36)	Expressing uncertainty	task-essentialness
Ndicinga ukuba (dialogue 3, line 41)	Expressing thought	task-utility
Ndiyavuma (dialogue 3, line 46)	Agreeing	task-naturalness
Ndicela ukuba (dialogue 3, line 68)	Giving instruction	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 3, line 71)	Showing co-operation	task-essentialness
Ngokuqinisekileyo (dialogue 5, line 4)	Confirming discussion	task-utility
Bekucacile ukuba (dialogue 5, line 18)	Giving confirmation	task-essentialness
Kufumaniseke ukuba (dialogue 6, line 3)	Giving certainty	task-essentialness

Ndiyaqonda ukuba (dialogue 6, line 42)	Giving opinion	task-essentialness
Ndingacinga (dialogue 6, line 63)	Agreeing	task-naturalness
Ndifuna ube (dialogue 6, line 66)	Expressing desire	task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 6, line 69)	Fulfilling desire	task-utility
Kuthiwa (dialogue 7, line 7)	Stating uncertainty	task-essentialness
Bendinginga ukuba (dialogue 7, line 13)	Expressing uncertainty	task-utility
Andiqinisekanga (dialogue 7, line 17)	Expressing uncertainty	task-naturalness
Ndicinga ukuba (dialogue 7, line 29)	Giving opinion	Task-utility
Ndicinga ukuba (dialogue 7, line 34)	Giving opinion	Task-naturalness
Akunamfuneko (dialogue 7, line 73)	Expressing feelings	Task-naturalness
Ndiyavuma (dialogue 7, line 78)	Agreeing	Task-naturalness
Sidinga ukuba (dialogue 7, line 79)	Expressing need	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 7, line 81)	Showing co-operation	Task-naturalness
Singakhawuleza (dialogue 8, line 1)	Expressing desire	Task-essentialness
Ngokuqinisekileyo (dialogue 8, line 3)	Fulfilling desire	Task-naturalness
Andiqinisekanga (dialogue 8, line 22)	Expressing uncertainty	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 8, line 25)	Showing acceptance	Task-utility
Ndicinga ukuba (dialogue 8, line 52)	Expressing gratefulness	Task-utility
Ndicinga njalo (dialogue 8, line 54)	Showing agreement	Task-naturalness
Kubonakalisa ukuba (dialogue 9, line 7)	Giving information	Task-essentialness
Andikhumbuli (dialogue 9, line 14)	Expressing uncertainty	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 9, line 48)	Showing co-operation	Task-utility
Bona ukuba (dialogue 9, line 55)	Giving task	Task-essentialness
Kulungile (dialogue 9, line 58)	Showing co-operation	Task-utility
Ndiva ukuba (dialogue 10, line 5)	Expressing unbelief	Task-utility
Mhlawumbi (dialogue 10, line 71)	Giving opinion	Task-utility
Bendinginga njalo (dialogue 10, line 75)	Expressing thought	Task-utility

6.4 Scaling of Tasks

Tasks can be scaled in terms of their complexity. It can either be made more complex or simple depending on the proficiency level of the learners. If learners have a high level of proficiency, tasks can be made more complex. If learners have a low level of proficiency, tasks can be made less complex. The complexity of tasks can either be increased or decreased depending on the complexity of the content. The tasks can be made complex or simple in terms of cognitive complexity or syntactic complexity. According to Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis tasks can be made complex by giving space for more reasoning [+ reasoning] to take place between the participants, by giving a considerable amount of information concerning the incident or spatial referential and locational expressions [- few elements]. Furthermore, learners can be requested to carry out more than one task [- single task] or a learner could be requested to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge]. In terms of syntactic complexity, tasks can be made complex by using difficult grammar such as compound sentences, compound-complex or complex sentences or tasks can be made less complex by using more mono-clausal sentences, sentences which have been learnt as holistic chunks or even simple sentences.

Each of the dialogues in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 can be scaled in terms of their complexity. In this case, the complexity of the dialogues will be increased, because the dialogues are rather simple as it is written according to the proficiency level of the learners. Only dialogue 1, 2, 4, 7, and 9 of both police-public and police-police communication will be scaled in terms of complexity.

After the dialogues are scaled in terms of Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis, it can be analysed in terms of Pica's Task Types. See section 3.3 in Chapter 3 to recall the description of type tasks. An analysis of dialogue 1, 2, 4, 7 and 9 will follow directly after Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis.

Furthermore, an example of a post-task description of each of the dialogues will be provided. These post-task descriptions are examples of tasks to be completed after the respective tasks in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 have been scaled in terms of complexity, i.e. after the complexity has been decreased.

6.4.1 Police-public communication dialogues

6.4.1.1 Dialogue 1: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase could be made more complex by adding the actual conversation of the police official over the phone. The conversation could for example be about an investigation case of some sort. This conversation could also include the element of reasoning [- no reasoning] about the particular incident, as well as the element of prior knowledge which means that the participants in the conversation will need to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge]. In this case it will represent the [+ there-and-then] dimension and immediately it makes the task more complex. The level of syntactic complexity will automatically be higher and because of the use of sentences in the past tense. During the reasoning, longer sentences will be used in order to give information about the particular incident.

In the questioning and narrating phase, the cognitive complexity can be increased by asking more questions about the stolen item, for example what kind of laptop it is, what the serial number of the laptop is, etc. More questions can also be asked concerning the safety of the house, for example whether there is burglar bars in front of the windows, a fence around the house, etc. More reasoning [- no reasoning] can occur concerning the reason why only the laptop was stolen, and specifically the particular victim's, and not other stuff. Reasoning can also take place about the fact that the suspect(s) knew exactly when to take their chance. This will specifically be causal reasoning. Furthermore, the narration could be elaborated. By reasoning about the incident, the syntactic complexity can be increased by giving reasons for the different views about the incident. This will force the participants to use compound sentences or compound-complex sentences or only complex sentences.

The cognitive complexity of the closing phase can be increased by asking the complainant to write an affidavit and then to attach the affidavit. This will expect the complainant to draw on prior knowledge [+ prior knowledge] and to give a considerable amount of information [- few elements]. The syntactic complexity will then automatically increase when the complainant draws on prior knowledge, because sentences containing past tense will be used.

6.4.1.1.1 Dialogue 1: Task typology

The dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (complainant) will hold all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official), but which is needed in order to complete the task, i.e. to get all of the information concerning the incident in order to determine who the suspects might be.

The task entails a two-way flow of information. One participant Y (police official) requests the information, while the other participant X (complainant) supplies the information. This corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police official and complainant) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. to supply and get as much information as possible about the laptop that was stolen and a single outcome, i.e. to determine who the suspects might be and to eventually catch the suspects. This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and single outcome (1) of the task.

In the case of the telephonic conversation, one of the police officials hold all the information which is unknown to the other police official, but which is needed in order to complete the task, i.e. to get all of the information concerning the incident.

This conversation is also a two-way flow of information. One participant Y (police official) requests the information, while the other participant X (police official) supplies the information. This corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police officials) work toward a convergent goal and single outcome, i.e. to supply and get as much information as possible concerning the particular incident. This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and single outcome (1) of the task.

6.4.1.1.2 Example of task description

You are working in the police office and you are responsible for the complaints of the community. You are on duty when a person comes into the police office to lay charge. You tell the complainant to wait, because you are having a conversation with your colleague over the phone. In this telephonic conversation, you and your colleague are reasoning about all the information concerning the particular incident. After the telephonic conversation, you have a conversation with the complainant in which you greet each other, you offer assistance, you ask him his personal details and you ask him to explain what happened. You ask him questions after he told you what happened so that you have clarity about the situation. The complainant must elaborate on information concerning the laptop, for example, what kind of laptop it was, what the serial number of the laptop is etc. Furthermore, the complainant must elaborate on information concerning the safety of the house, i.e. whether the windows has burglar bars, whether there is a fence around the house etc. Reasoning must take place about why only the laptop was stolen and nothing else. In this reasoning the participants must agree and disagree about certain opinions that are given. The complainant must be requested to write an affidavit.

Three participants must complete this task. There must be two police officials and one complainant. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. When the participants agree or disagree about an opinion, they should not use expressions such as „yes’ or „no’, but rather try and use whole phrases such as „Yes, I agree with your opinion’ or „No, I do not agree with what you said’. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.1.2 Dialogue 2: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase can be increased by elaborating the introduction [- single task]. For example, the police official can introduce him/herself and even invite the interviewer to have a seat. The interviewer can also elaborate on the reason why he/she wants to ask questions about the incident, i.e. causal reasoning. When reasons are

given for the interview, the syntactic complexity will increase, because complex sentence structures will be used.

The questioning and narrating phase can be made more complex by elaborating lines 16-22 and giving more detail concerning the people involved in the incident and where the concerning office is that is mentioned. More information can be given about the white Ford, i.e. what happened to the car (lines 42-46). The police official can furthermore give information about what happened to the third suspect (lines 56 58) [- few elements]. This extra information can be given by using complex sentences and not by using mono-clausal sentences. In this sense the syntactic complexity will be increased.

The cognitive complexity of the closing phase can be increased by speaking more. For example, in line 79 the interviewer can add that she appreciate all the information that was given and in line 80 the police official, in turn, can respond by adding that the interviewer can phone him/her if there is any uncertainties.

6.4.1.2.1 Dialogue 2: Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (police official) hold all the information which is unknown to the other participant (interviewer), but which is needed in order to complete the task, i.e. to write an article about the incident for the paper to be published.

The task entails a two-way flow of information. One participant Y (interviewer) requests the information, while the other participant X (police official) supplies the information. This corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police official and interviewer) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. to supply and get as much information as possible and a single outcome, i.e. to publish the incident in the paper. This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

6.4.1.2.2 Example of task description

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the communication department. There was an armed robbery, hi-jacking and eventually a car accident. You are having an interview with the media in your office. You introduce yourself to the interviewer and ask him/her to have a seat. The interviewer asks to have an interview and elaborates on the reason for wanting to have an interview. You have to tell the media exactly what happened, where everything happened, how many were part of the whole thing and everything that the police and the members of the community did to catch the suspects. You give the interviewer permission to contact you, should there be any uncertainties after the interview.

Detailed information must be given. No information must be left out. For example, the participants must elaborate on where the office is where the suspects stormed into and what the people in the office were busy doing when the suspects came in. Detailed information must be given about the white car that was part of the incident and what happened to the car. Information must be given about every suspect that formed part of the incident and exactly what happened to each of these suspects.

Two participants must complete this task. There must be one police official and one interviewer. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of approaching the given task. Learners must try to use useful expressions and phrases. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.1.3 Dialogue 4: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase can be increased by increasing the number of tasks [- single task]. For example, the participants can introduce each other and ask the well being of each other. In this sense, the participants will be forced to give more information [- few elements]. The syntactic complexity can be increased by giving reasons for statements that are being made. For example, the participants can give a reason for why they are doing well or why they are not doing well. By giving reasons will force the participants to use more complex grammar and sentence structures.

The questioning and narrating phase can also be made more complex. The participant can elaborate more in lines 22-28 by giving more information [- few elements] about the training in the second year. More information can also be provided about the medical aid benefits that are given (lines 31-37), as well as about the fitness mentioned in lines 38-41, i.e. what type of fitness will be evaluated, what the qualifying criteria will be, what must be done in order to reach the qualifying criteria for fitness, etc. A fitness plan can be given. Causal and intentional reasoning can occur accordingly in order to provide reasons for the particular fitness plan and qualifying criteria that is requested [- no reasoning]. This will represent the [+ planning] dimension. The participant in lines 53-54 and 59-60 can elaborate on the topic of the languages, for example the degree of proficiency in each of the languages which the participant can speak, whether the participant took these languages on University level, etc. When the participant refers to the languages on University, it will represent the [+ there-and-then] dimension. Furthermore, a CV and certified copy of degree can be requested. This will raise the amount of tasks to be performed [- single task]. The syntactic complexity will automatically increase when referred to the past [+ there-and-then] and when reasoning takes place, because of the use of complex sentence structures that will be needed.

The complexity of the closing phase can be increased by giving more information [- few elements] on where to hand in the application form. Another option could also be to ask to postpone the date of handing in the application form. Causal reasoning can take place of why to postpone the date [- no reasoning]. The syntactic complexity will increase when reasoning takes place, because complex sentence structures will be needed when reasons are being given.

The dialogue ends with the police official asking to bring back the application form the following day. Therefore, the task can be made more complex by adding the discourse of the following day between the police official and the applicant. This discourse can contain greeting, asking about well being, etc [- single task]. Furthermore, the actual application form, CV and certified degree can be attached.

6.4.1.3.1 Dialogue 4: Task typology

Dialogue 4 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant holds information which is unknown to the other participant, but which is needed in order to

complete the task. In the case of the information about the training, one participant X (police official) holds the information which is unknown to the other participant Y (applicant). In the case of the information about the languages, one participant Y (applicant) holds information which is unknown to the other participant X (police official).

This task is an example of a two-way flow of information and it corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both participants (police official and applicant) work toward a convergent goal, i.e. the fact that both the police official and the applicant wants to obtain the information that they don't know on behalf of the languages and training respectively and a single outcome, i.e. to understand the information provided so that the applicant can apply for the course and be accepted. Therefore, they are also meeting descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

When reasoning takes place in the closing phase of when to hand in the application form, a decision is made when a date and time is chosen. Therefore, this segment represents an example of a decision-making task. The one participant (police official) decides on a date and time to hand in the application form. Both of the participants (police official and applicant) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide on a date and time (X=Y).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (police official and applicant) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. decide on a date and time (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to give a date and time).

6.4.1.3.2 Example of task description

You are working in the Human Resource Management office. A person comes into your office and wants to apply for police training. The two of you greet each other, introduce

yourselves and ask about the well being of each other. You give information on how long the training is and what each semester contains. You give information about what they will receive. Further, you ask her a few questions. You ask her about her health, criminal record, the languages that she can speak and her highest qualification. You give her an application form to complete.

This task must be completed by two participants. One participant must play the role of the police official and the other participant must be the applicant. The participant playing the role of the police official must elaborate on the information about the training in the second year, as well as the medical aid benefits that are given. More information must be given about the fitness, i.e. what type of fitness will be evaluated, what the qualifying criteria will be, what must be done in order to reach the qualifying criteria for fitness, etc. The police official must present a fitness plan and provide reasons accordingly. The participant playing the role of the applicant must elaborate on the topic of languages, for example the degree of proficiency in each of the languages which he/she can speak, whether the participant took these languages on University level, etc. The two participants must be able to reason. They must reason about a date to hand in the requested application form. The discourse that takes place when the applicant returns the application form must be included.

A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of approaching the given task. Learners must try to use applicable expressions and phrases. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.1.4 Dialogue 7: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase can be increased by adding more tasks to be carried out [- single task]. The participants can for example ask about the well being of each other and give reasons for the state of their well being [- no reasoning]. In this case, causal reasoning will take place. When reasoning takes place, the participants will give more information [- few elements] which will in turn increase the cognitive complexity.

The complexity of the questioning and narrating phase can be increased by increasing the cognitive complexity thereof. An extra task can, for example, be added after lines 4-5. After the request to lay charge, the complainant can be referred to another police official and explain the reason for not being able to help, i.e. causal reasoning will take place. Furthermore, directions can be given of how to get to the office of the recommended police official. After the section with the directions, the discourse between the complainant and the recommended police official must be added where they are greeting each other and asking the well being of each other for example. The complainant could then request to lay charge and the police official can offer assistance. This built in section will increase the amount of tasks to be performed [- single task]. After lines 22-24 more information [- few elements] can be given on what the suspects looked like, what they were wearing, etc. This will represent the [+ there-and-then] dimension. Furthermore, the participant could disagree with the statement in lines 25-26 and give reasons for the disagreement. Therefore, causal reasoning [- no reasoning] will occur. The syntactic complexity will increase when the [+ there-and-then] dimension occurs, because learners will be expected to use past tense sentences. Reasoning will also expect learners to use complex sentence structures and in this way the syntactic complexity will increase.

The closing phase can be made more complex by attaching the actual declaration that is requested. Furthermore, information can be given [- few elements] on where the declaration should be handed in. Directions can be given to the place where it should be given in. This will increase the amount of tasks to be performed [- single task] and in this sense, increase the complexity.

6.4.1.4.1 Dialogue 7: Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant, but which he needs it in order to complete the task. In the case where a police official is recommended and where directions are given, the police official holds the information which the complainant needs in order to complete the task, i.e. to meet the right police official. In the case where information is provided about the suspect, the complainant holds all the information which the police official needs in order to complete the task, i.e. to eventually trace the suspect.

The task entails a two-way flow of information. This configuration of features corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. Both of the interactants (police official and complainant) work toward a convergent goal and single outcome. The one participant supplies as much information as possible and the other participant requires as much information as possible (goal) in order to meet with the correct police official so that information can be provided to eventually try and determine who the suspects are (outcome). This meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

When disagreement takes place with the statement in lines 25-26, the task represents an example of an opinion-giving task. The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, thus corresponding to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible ($X=Y$), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue both participants (police official and complainant) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task. The police official gives an opinion and the complainant disagrees by giving his/her own opinion. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue each interactant is equally interacting. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-). In this dialogue the participants (police official and complainant) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to determine who the suspects are and eventually to catch the suspects. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

6.4.1.4.2 Example of task description

You are on duty in the police office when a person comes in and lay charge against housebreaking that took place. You greet each other and ask about the well being of each other. The two of you provide reasons for the state of well being. You refer the complainant

to your colleague for you are not in a position to help the complainant. You provide reasons for not being able to help and give directions on how to get to your colleague's office. Once the complainant gets to the colleague's office, the discourse continues between the colleague and the complainant. The colleague and complainant are having a discourse in which they greet each other, ask about the well being of each other and offering assistance. The colleague requests the complainant's details, the time of housebreaking, the place, the date, etc. Furthermore he/she asks the person information about the incident, the safety of the house and if he suspects anyone. The complainant must elaborate on the information about the suspects, i.e. what they look like, what they were wearing etc. Disagreement should take place on statements being made. A declaration must be requested and information must be provided on where and when to hand in the declaration. The declaration must be attached.

Three participants must complete this task. There must be two police officials and one complainant. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. When the participants agree or disagree about an opinion, they should not use expressions such as „yes' or „no', but rather try and use whole phrases such as „Yes, I agree with your opinion' or „No, I do not agree with what you said'. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.1.5 Dialogue 9: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase (lines 1-3) can be increased by increasing the number of tasks [- single task] for example. After the request to report a stolen car in lines 2-3, the police official could refer the complainant to someone else and give reasons accordingly, i.e. causal reasoning will occur [- no reasoning]. Another section can then be incorporated where the complainant is put through to the police official in charge of complainants. The police official could for example introduce him/ herself and then offer assistance. This section will increase the amount of tasks to be performed [- single task]. The reasoning that takes place will increase the syntactic complexity, because complex grammar will be used in order to provide reasons.

The questioning and narrating phase (lines 33-69) can be made more complex by adding more reasoning about the manner that was used to break into the car (lines 52-55). Furthermore, reasoning can, for example, take place about who the suspect might be, i.e. causal reasoning will take place [- no reasoning]. Information can be given on why certain people are seen as suspects [- few elements]. Reasoning will increase the syntactic complexity, because complex sentence structures will have to be used in order to complete the task successfully.

The discourse between the police officials in lines 21-26 can be increased by, for example, reasoning about whose car the police official will drive with to the scene, what road they will use to get to the scene, etc. Furthermore, directions can be included on how to get to the scene [- single task].

The cognitive complexity of the closing phase (lines 70-71) can be increased by adding more tasks to be performed [- single task]. The complainant can for example double check the time of the arrival of the person who needs to take the fingerprints. Reasoning, i.e. causal reasoning [- no reasoning] can take place on the time that will best suit the complainant. The reasoning that occurs will increase the syntactic complexity when complex sentence structures are being used.

6.4.1.5.1 Dialogue 9: Task typology

Dialogue 9 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (complainant) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participants (police officials), but which they need to know in order to complete the task, i.e. to get all the information about the car break.

The distribution of information results in a two-way flow of information. Two participants Y (police officials) request the information and participant X (complainant) supplies the information. This configuration of features corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b in Table 3-1. The interactants (police officials and complainant) work toward a convergent goal, namely to get as many information as possible in order to trace the suspect(s) and a single outcome, i.e. to catch the suspect. This meets the descriptions

of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1 where only one acceptable outcome is possible.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

When reasoning takes place about the way the suspect(s) broke into the car and who the possible suspect(s) might be, the task represents an example of an opinion-giving task. The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, thus corresponding to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task. Both of the police officials are giving opinions about the manner that was used to break into the car, as well as whom the possible suspects might be. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this case neither of the police officials are dominating. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-). In this dialogue the participants (police officials) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to determine who the suspects are and to eventually catch the suspects. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

When reasoning takes place about what car will be driven and which road will be taken to get to the scene, the task represents an example of a decision-making task. The one participant (police official) decides on whose car to take and what route to use. Both of the participants (police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide on a car and route (X=Y).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. decide on a car and route (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to decide upon a car and route).

6.4.1.5.2 Example of task description

You are on duty the evening when you receive a call. You ask the complainant how you may help. The moment you find out that someone broke into a car, you refer the complainant to the police official in charge of complainants. After you have referred the complainant to your colleague, the discourse continues between your colleague and the complainant. In the discourse between the complainant and the colleague, they must greet each other, ask about the well being of each other and offer assistance. The colleague must get the details, i.e. where it happened, when, etc. Furthermore, he/she must ask the person's personal details before he/she calls another police man so that they are two to investigate the case. They arrange where to meet each other. Before they go out to the scene, they reason about whose car they will take and what route they will follow. They ask questions concerning the car. Reasoning must occur, i.e. disagreement must take place. Reasoning must take place on the way that was broken into the car, who the suspects can possibly be etc. After the investigation, reasoning must occur about the best time that will suit the complainant for the fingerprints that must be taken.

Four participants must complete this task. There must be three police officials and one complainant. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. When the participants agree or disagree about an opinion, they should not use expressions such as „yes' or „no', but rather try and use whole phrases such as „Yes, I agree with your opinion' or „No, I do not agree with what you said'. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.2 Police-police communication dialogues

6.4.2.1 Dialogue 1: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase can be increased by adding more reasoning. The participants could for example reason and elaborate on the topic of people leaving their doors open [- no reasoning], i.e. causal reasoning. Furthermore, the participants can perform more tasks [- single task]. For example, the participants can greet each other, ask about the well being of each other and then get the files ready to discuss the case. A brief overview of the information in the file could maybe also be given [+ there-and-then]. The moment reasoning and narration occurs, the syntactic complexity will increase, because complex grammar will be used in order to communicate events of the past.

The information and consultation phase can be increased in terms of cognitive complexity. More reasoning can take place. One of the participants could disagree with the opinions in lines 14-18, 26-28, 33-36 and 45-46, i.e. casual reasoning can take place. The participants can give more information about what happened to the neighbour after he was stabbed, if anything was stolen and if there was, what was stolen. More detail can be given of anyone else who was present on the scene.

The cognitive complexity of the instruction and decision making phase can be increased by adding reasoning. The participants can for example reason on all the possibilities to gain as much information as possible. Furthermore, the participants can plan on how to trace the suspect [+ planning]. During planning, reasoning will automatically occur, because it can happen that the participants will differ, i.e. causal reasoning or intentional reasoning, in ways to trace the suspect [- no reasoning]. When planning and reasoning occurs, more than one task [- single task] will be carried out which will in turn increase the cognitive complexity.

6.4.2.1.1 Dialogue 1: Task typology

Dialogue 1 is an example of a predominantly opinion-giving task. The interactants start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion. Therefore, this task corresponds to interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to form an opinion. This dialogue demonstrates how both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task, i.e. to determine who the suspect is, the reason for the specific actions of the suspect and to eventually catch the suspect. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, it is likely that a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue each interactant is equally interacting. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-). The participants (police officials) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to eventually catch the suspect. Therefore it corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

When a brief overview of the information concerning the incident is given in the introductory phase, as well as when extra information is given in the information and consultation phase, it represents an example of an information gap task. One participant (police official X) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official Y), but which is needed to complete the task, i.e. in order to determine who the suspect might be.

It is an example of a two-way flow of information. One participant (police official X) requires all of the information, while the other participant (police official Y) supplies the required information. The requiring and suppliance of information corresponds to interactant relationship 1b and interactant relationship 2b in Table 3-1. The participants work toward a convergent goal and single outcome, i.e. to determine who the suspect might be. Therefore, it also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

6.4.2.1.2 Example of task description

A woman was attacked in her house. You and your colleague went out to the woman's house and you have investigated the case. You are at the police station. Your colleague enters your office in order to discuss the situation. The two of you greet each other and ask about the well being of each other. You take out the file concerning the case and you read the brief overview

about the incident. You discuss the strangeness of the fact that the suspect only stabbed the neighbour and you wonder if the suspect would have raped the woman if the neighbour didn't hear her screaming. You discuss whether the suspect was watching the house or not. Information must be given about what happened to the neighbour after he was stabbed and whether anything was stolen from the house. Reasoning must take place about statements that are made, i.e. disagreement must take place. Furthermore, planning must take place on how to gain more information and how to trace the suspect.

Two participants must complete this task. There must be two police officials. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. When the participants agree or disagree about an opinion, they should not use expressions such as „yes' or 'no', but rather try and use whole phrases such as „Yes, I agree with your opinion' or „No, I do not agree with what you said'. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.2.2 Dialogue 2: Task complexity

The introduction phase can be made more complex by increasing the cognitive complexity. Participants can perform more tasks [- single task]. They can for example greet each other, ask about the well being of each other and maybe read the brief overview of the information in the file at their disposal. The overview will contain information referring to the past [+ there-and-then]. The [+ there-and-then] dimension will increase the syntactic complexity, because complex grammar will be used in order to refer to the past.

The cognitive complexity of the information and consultation phase can be increased by reasoning about certain issues. There can be disagreement on the opinion in lines 10-11, i.e. causal reasoning can occur. An opinion can also be given on the information in lines 19-24 and reasoning [- no reasoning] can take place accordingly. More information [- few elements] can be given about the eyewitness mentioned in lines 35-38. The participants can also elaborate on the information that was kept from the police in lines 39-40. Furthermore, more reasoning can take place about the opinion in line 66, as well as the opinion in line 72-74, i.e.

causal reasoning. The participants can also reason about options for other suspects whom it might have been. The syntactic complexity can be increased by using compound, compound-complex and complex sentences when reasoning about the opinions in the aforementioned lines.

The instruction and decision-making phase can be increased in terms of cognitive complexity. Planning [+ planning] can take place on how to gain more information concerning the incident. The participants can reason [- no reasoning] how they will approach the different ideas of strategies, i.e. intentional reasoning and eventually a decision can be made. More than one task can be performed [- single task]. For example, the participants can give requests and greet each other. By reasoning and giving requests, the syntactic complexity can be increased.

6.4.2.2.1 Dialogue 2: Task typology

This dialogue is an example of predominantly an opinion-giving task. The interactants (police officials) start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, i.e. to form an opinion about what exactly the suspect did when he murdered the victim. Therefore, it corresponds with interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible (X=Y), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Both of them are sharing opinions about the incident. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task, i.e. to try and find out the reason of the murder and who the suspect might be. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue each interactant is equally interacting; both of the police officials are sharing an opinion. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-) and any number of outcome options is possible (1+/-). Thus the opinion exchange task can end up with interactants holding contrasting opinions with which they began. In this dialogue the participants (police officials) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to investigate the case and they end up with contrasting opinions because of the fact that they are disagreeing on certain opinions. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

The information that is given in the introductory phase will represent an example of an information-gap task. In this task one participant (police official 1) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official 2), but which he needs in order to complete the task.

According to Table 3-2 it is a one-way flow of information, because only one of the police officials is giving information when he/she reads a brief overview of the incident. The participants are both working towards a convergent goal and a single outcome (1). The goal is to gain all the facts and information, while the outcome is to determine the suspect. According to Table 3-1 the features correspond to interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. It further meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1. Interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

The decision that is made in the instruction and decision-making phase represent an example of a decision-making task. One of the police officials decide upon the best way of gaining more information concerning the incident. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide what the best way will be to get more information (X=Y).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. to gain more information (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to choose the best way to gain more information).

6.4.2.2.2 Example of task description

A student at the University of Stellenbosch was murdered. The case was investigated and you have to discuss the information with your colleague. Your colleague enters your office, you greet each other and you ask about the well being of each other. You take out your file and you read the brief overview of the incident. You discuss the murder weapon and the fact that

the girl was abused by her boyfriend before. The two of you discuss the finger prints and foot print that were found and also the fact that no one saw the suspect leave his work on the day of the murder. You mention that the police are being accused for not doing their investigation work properly. Detailed information must be given about the information that was kept from the police, as well as the eyewitness that was part of the incident. Reasoning must occur about opinions that are given. For example, if an opinion is given about who the suspect might have been, disagreement must take place. Reasoning must occur on possible ways of gaining more information.

Two participants must complete this task. This task requires two police officials. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. When the participants agree or disagree about an opinion, they should not use expressions such as „yes’ or ‘no’, but rather try and use whole phrases such as „Yes, I agree with your opinion’ or „No, I do not agree with what you said’. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.2.3 Dialogue 4: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase can be increased by adding more tasks to be performed [- single task]. Extra sections can be added. Captain 2 can, for example, receive a phone call from the head police official stating that housebreak took place and requesting captain 2 to go out immediately. Thereafter, a discourse can be added between captain 1 and captain 2 where captain 2 phones captain 1 stating that housebreak took place. The two police officials could then reason where to meet each other, i.e. spatial reasoning will occur [- no reasoning].

The dialogue can also be made more complex by adding an instruction and decision-making phase. Once the police officials have arrived at the scene, they can reason how they will approach the house. For example, one police official can go around the house, while the other police official can approach the house from the front, i.e. spatial reasoning will take place [- no reasoning]. After the house was approached and nothing was found, another scene can be

added where the police officials question the victim whose house it is. Thereafter, the police officials could do planning [+ planning] on how they will go about to catch the suspect. While planning takes place, the police officials can reason what the best way will be to trace the suspect, i.e. causal reasoning will take place [- no reasoning]. These extra sections will increase the number of tasks to be performed [- single task]. When reasoning takes place, the syntactic complexity will increase, because the participants will need to use complex sentence structures in order to complete the tasks.

6.4.2.3.1 Dialogue 4: Task typology

This dialogue is an example of a predominantly decision-making task. In the case of the introductory phase, one of the police officials decides where to meet the other police official. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide where to meet each other ($X=Y$). When the police officials are on the scene, one of them can decide how both of them will approach the house.

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. where to meet each other and how to approach the house on the scene respectively (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (where to meet each other and how to approach the house).

When questioning takes place between the police officials and the victim, it represents an example of an information gap task. One participant (victim) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participants (police officials), but which they need in order to complete the task, i.e. to determine the suspect.

This task entails a two-way flow of information. The one participant (police officials) requires information and the other participant (victim) supplies the required information. According to Table 3-1 these features correspond with interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. It also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a. The interactants (both police officials and the victim) work towards a convergent

goal and only one acceptable outcome is possible. The goal is to receive all of the information about the housebreak. The outcome is that the police will get clarity about the housebreak and determine the suspect.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

6.4.2.3.2 Example of task description

You receive a phone call from the head police official stating that housebreak took place and you are requested to go out to the scene. You phone your colleague, briefly explain what happened and tell him/her that you need to go out to the scene and investigate the case. You and your colleague reason where to meet each other. On your way to the scene you, the passenger, give your colleague directions of how to get to the scene. Once you and your colleague are on the scene, you reason how to approach the house in order to determine whether the suspect is still present. Thereafter, the two of you question the victim. You and your colleague discuss various ways of how to trace the suspect.

This task requires four participants, i.e. three police officials and one victim. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. When the participants agree or disagree about an opinion, they should not use expressions such as „yes’ or ‘no’, but rather try and use whole phrases such as „Yes, I agree with your opinion’ or „No, I do not agree with what you said’. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation

6.4.2.4 Dialogue 7: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity of the introductory phase can be increased by adding more tasks to perform [- single task]. The two police officials could, for example, first contact each other and reason [- no reasoning] for a date and time to have a discussion about the incident. Thereafter, a section can be added that will enlist with the existing introductory phase. In this

section greeting can take place, an invitation can be given to sit down for example, etc. The syntactic complexity will increase when reasoning occurs, because complex language will be needed in order to perform the task.

The information and consultation phase can be made more complex by increasing the cognitive complexity. Information can, for example, be given about what happened to the dogs mentioned in lines 19-21. More information [- few elements] can also be given about the alarm mentioned in lines 24-28. Furthermore, information can be provided about the workers of the victim mentioned in lines 43-45. For example, how long they have worked for the victim, where they are originally from, how the victim came across them, etc. The participants can also elaborate more on what kind of person the victim was (lines 59-64) [+ there-and-then]. More information that is given increases the number of tasks to be performed [- single task]. The fact that the participants need to refer to happenings in the past, increases the syntactic complexity, because past tense sentences have to be used which is difficult.

The cognitive complexity of the instruction and decision-making phase can be increased by increasing the number of tasks [- single task] and giving more information [- few elements] by elaborating on the date of the court case, the time, which court, etc. Furthermore, the police officials can greet each other and thank each other for their time.

6.4.2.4.1 Dialogue 7: Task typology

Dialogue 7 is an example of a predominantly information gap task. One participant (police official 1) holds all the information which is unknown to the other participant (police official 2), but which he needs in order to complete the task, i.e. to gain all the information concerning the incident.

This task entails a two-way flow of information. The one participant (police official 2) requires information and the other participant (police official 1) supplies the required information. According to Table 3-1 these features correspond with interactant relationship 1b and interactant requirement 2b. It also meets the descriptions of goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a. Both interactants (both police officials) work towards a convergent goal and only one acceptable outcome is possible. The goal is to receive all of the information

about the murder. The outcome is that the police will get clarity about the murder in order to solve the case.

According to Table 3-2 interaction is required (+) in order to reach the convergent goal (+) and the single outcome (1) of the task.

When reasoning takes place in the introductory phase about a time and date, a decision will eventually be made. Therefore, it represents an example of a decision-making task. The one participant (police official 1) decide upon a date and time to discuss the incident. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide upon a date and time (X=Y).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. decide upon a date and time that will best suit both of them (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to give a date and time).

6.4.2.4.2 Example of task description

A farmer was murdered on his farm. You and your colleague need to have a discussion about the case. You phone your colleague and the two of you reason for a suitable date and time for the discussion to take place. Thereafter, the scene plays off where the two of you are having the discussion. You first greet each other, ask about the well being of each other and then you start with the discussion. You discuss when it happened, who the suspects are and how the suspects came in the yard. You speak about the safety of the house and how the murder took place. Detailed information must be provided about the dogs and what happened to them, as well as the alarm that went off. Furthermore, detailed information must be given about the workers of the victim, for example how long they have worked for the victim, where they are originally from, how the victim came across them, etc. You speak about the good person that the victim was and how everybody in the community will remember him. Detailed

information must be provided about the kind of person that the victim was. Information must also be given on when the case appears in court, the time of the case, in which court etc.

This task requires two participants, i.e. two police officials. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

6.4.2.5 Dialogue 9: Task complexity

The cognitive complexity can be increased by adding an introductory phase in which the two police officials could greet each other, ask about the well being of each other and request to discuss the case [- single task]. Furthermore, reasoning could be added. For example, the two police officials can reason about a date and time that will be best suited in order to discuss the case [- no reasoning]. If reasoning occurs, another section can be added which will be the introductory leading to the existing discussion of the case. This leading introductory could contain greeting, asking well being, giving invitation to sit down, etc. [- single task].

The information and consultation phase can be made more complex by adding reasoning [- no reasoning]. The participants can, for example, reason about why the victim and the suspect were fighting (lines 12-20) in which reasons are given for their opinions, i.e. causal reasoning. Furthermore, reasoning can take place about why the victim could have got a divorce (lines 25-29), for example she could have gotten an interdict. The reasoning will increase the syntactic complexity, because complex language structures will be used.

The cognitive complexity of the instruction and decision-making phase can be increased by adding planning [+ planning]. The police officials can plan how they will go about to gain more information concerning the incident. While planning takes place, the police officials can reason about what the best way will be [- no reasoning], i.e. causal reasoning will occur and make a decision accordingly. Furthermore, greeting can take place. This will increase the number of tasks [- single task].

6.4.2.5.1 Dialogue 9: Task typology

Dialogue 9 is an example of predominantly an opinion-giving task. The interactants (police officials) start out with shared access to the information needed for task completion, i.e. to form an opinion about the relationship, as well as the actions between the victim and the suspect. Therefore, it corresponds with interactant relationship 1c and interaction requirement 2c in Table 3-1.

According to Table 3-2, a two-way exchange of information is possible ($X=Y$), but interaction is not necessary (-) in order for participants to carry out the task, as one participant can use the information to convey an opinion. In this dialogue both participants (both police officials) are participating in the two-way exchange of information. Both of them are sharing opinions about the relationship and actions between the victim and the suspect. Therefore, both are interacting in order to carry out the task, i.e. to try and find out why the suspect and victim were fighting and why they never got a divorce. The fact that there is no requirement for interaction, a single interactant might dominate (X or Y). In this dialogue each interactant is equally interacting; both of the police officials are sharing an opinion. The interactants are not expected to converge toward a single opinion or goal (-) and any number of outcome options is possible ($1+/-$). Thus the opinion exchange task can end up with interactants holding contrasting opinions with which they began. In this dialogue the participants (police officials) are working toward a single goal, i.e. to try and find out why the suspect and victim were fighting and why they never got a divorce. This corresponds with goal orientation 3a and outcome option 4a in Table 3-1.

The decision being made in the introductory phase represents an example of a decision-making task. One of the participants (police official) will decide upon a date and time to discuss the incident. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide upon a date and time ($X=Y$).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. decide upon a date and time that will best be suited to discuss the

incident (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (to give a date and time).

The decision being made in the instruction and decision-making phase is an example of a decision-making task. One of the participants (police official) can decide what the best way will be in order to gain more information concerning the incident. Both of the participants (both police officials) have shared access to the information needed to complete the task, i.e. to decide how they will go about to gain more information concerning the incident (X=Y).

According to Table 3-1 this task is carried out under the categories of interactant relationship 1c and interactant requirement 2c.

According to Table 3-2 the interactants (both police officials) converge toward a single decision as their goal, i.e. decide upon a way to gain more information (+). Interaction is not required (-), but the participant (police official) chose to make a decision (how to gain more information).

6.4.2.5.2 Example of task description

A man murdered his wife and then reported her missing. You phone your colleague and ask to him/her to have a discussion about the incident. You greet each other, ask about the well being of each other and then the two of you reason about a date and time for the discussion to take place. Thereafter, the scene takes place where the actual discussion takes place. You greet each other and ask about the well being of each other. You and your colleague are having a discussion in which you discuss when it happened, how it happened and where it happened. You discuss how he got rid of her after he killed his wife and where her body were found after he reported her missing. You reason about why the victim and the suspect were fighting in which reasons are given for the opinions. Furthermore, the two of you reason about why the victim could have got a divorce. At the end of the discussion, you and your colleague discuss the best way of gaining more information. You greet each other and arrange for a date and time to further investigate the case.

Two participants must complete this task. There must be two police officials. A planning period will be provided in which learners can discuss ways of completing the task. During the

completion of the task, learners should try to use useful expressions and phrases. When the participants agree or disagree about an opinion, they should not use expressions such as ‚yes’ or ‚no’, but rather try and use whole phrases such as ‚Yes, I agree with your opinion’ or ‚No, I do not agree with what you said’. Learners must widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation. Learners must also be creative in their conversational strategies.

6.5 Willis and Willis’s Focus-on-Form

Willis and Willis (2007: 25) advance the view that it is more advantageous to focus on specified forms after a task sequence, rather than before learners engage with a task. Willis and Willis (2007: 25) give three reasons for their belief. Firstly it encourages learners to make sense of the language that has been used during task completion. A form-focused stage will lend learners the opportunity to look closely to the forms that have been used and to study these forms in detail. In this sense, a context will be created in which learners can make sense of new language. Secondly, it focuses attention on language that is likely to be used in the future. Once learners have studied certain language features, they will be able to recognise these features in the future. Lastly, focus-on-form is a source of motivation. By teaching grammar at the end of a cycle will increase motivation. However, it is necessary to point out what the learning opportunities are in a given task. Although learners have struggled at first to use the correct language in order to express different meanings, learners have worked with meaning. By the time learners start to work with focus-on-form, they will be more receptive to different ways of expressing meanings (Willis and Willis, 2007: 25).

According to Willis and Willis (2005: 130) it is useful to keep in mind the different ways in which language and concepts of one task can be incorporated into another task. As a repertoire of tasks are being built up and as learners gain experiences in these tasks, they will start seeing opportunities of how to reinforce language of one task into another task. Willis and Willis (2007: 131) argue that learners do not only work with one text or task in order to develop language skills, and in turn, focus-on-form. Learners will normally try to draw on all their existing knowledge concerning language in order to form a picture of the language. It can be useful when learners focus on similar language items in different texts or tasks. This will increase their ability of focus-on-form.

Therefore, Willis and Willis (2007: 133) conclude that in focus-on-form tasks the focus is on the recognition and manipulation of language forms in various ways, i.e. consciousness raising, recall, extension and correction. In consciousness raising tasks are completed with the goal to find different ways to express different meanings, to find phrases containing specific words and to find words or phrases which might be useful for future reference. In recall tasks learners normally work with familiar texts in order to focus on specific grammatical words and phrases. Extension tasks are used to focus on grammatical features that have not yet been focused on in previous tasks. Correction in form-focused tasks is used to motivate learners and to provide learners with negative information which learners are not able to find in the input that tasks contain (Willis and Willis, 2007: 133). Focus-on-form is thus a very useful way of developing grammatical features in task-based language tasks.

6.6 Conclusion

The language functions which occur in the communicative tasks in Chapters four and five predominantly illustrate task-essentialness. Therefore, the communicative tasks cannot be completed successfully without using particular grammatical structures. It is thus important that language learners have control over their language use during task completion.

The communicative tasks in Chapters four and five were rather simple and therefore the complexity thereof were increased. The analysis of the police-public communicative tasks in terms of Pica's (1993) task typology, predominantly illustrate examples of information gap tasks. Information gap tasks require a lot of interaction, therefore it can be concluded that the communicative tasks predominantly illustrate a high interactivity. There are also examples of opinion-giving and decision-making tasks. These tasks do not have a high interactivity, because interaction is not required. The high interactivity is advantageous in that it helps to develop the communicative skills of learners in order to communicate in the 'real world'.

The analysis of the police-police communicative tasks in terms of Pica's (1993) task typology, predominantly illustrate examples of opinion-giving tasks. The opinion-giving tasks do not have a high interactivity, because interaction is not required. There are also examples of decision-making tasks in these communicative tasks which do not have a high interactivity. Furthermore, the police-police communicative tasks illustrate examples of

information gap tasks. Information gap tasks require a lot of interaction, therefore it can be concluded that the communicative tasks predominantly illustrate a high interactivity.

After the complexity of the communicative tasks was decreased, an example of a post-task description was provided. These tasks can only be performed once the communicative tasks in Chapters four and five were successfully completed and the required proficiency level was reached. The reason for this is that the post-tasks require useful expressions and phrases. Learners are required to widen their repertoire of conversational strategies. Furthermore, learners must focus on form, use richer vocabulary and try to be more accurate and fluent in their conversation.

It can be concluded that it is more advantageous to focus on form in the post-tasks. By doing this, learners will have the ability to make sense of the language used during the completion of tasks. Learners will have more motivation in focussing on language features that could be used in future discourses. Therefore, the language use in the post-tasks is appropriate for discourses in the ‚real world‘.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

The aim of this Chapter is to present a multi-perspective approach and summary of the main findings in the investigation regarding task-based language teaching and learning. This chapter is divided into nine sections which include research regarding aspects contributing to syllabus design and task-based language learning and teaching, the key findings of the analysis done in chapters four and five, the classifying of language functions, scaling of tasks and examples of task descriptions in chapter six and suggestions for future research.

7.1 Key issues in syllabus design

Section 2.2 presented a discussion regarding syllabus design. This section was divided into ten subsections, each being part of a syllabus as a whole. First, the matter of syllabus design was discussed, i.e. what considerations a syllabus design entails. Various definitions provided by Nunan (2001), Robinson (2009) and Raya (2009), were discussed. It can be concluded that a syllabus design is a plan containing formalized content in order to teach and learn that which want to be acquired, in this case isiXhosa as a second language for specific purpose police communication.

Language acquisition is possible through the approach of Task-based Language Teaching and Learning. This aspect was discussed in section 2.2.1. The discussion focused on views of Benevides and Valvona (2003), who argued that language is instructed through a communicative approach, i.e. through the use of communicative tasks. Attention was given to the aim and properties of Task-based language teaching with its focus on what learners will be able to do with a language after it has been taught. Task-based language teaching is advantageous in the sense that it provides the opportunity for instruction, as well as the assessment of tasks. Furthermore, it provides natural contexts in which learners are able to communicate with each other for a purpose. A central property of a task-based approach is to allow learners to make meaning in various ways, rather than making language forms the primary focus. Task-based language teaching is based on the use of tasks (Raya, 2009).

In section 2.2.2 a definition for the term „task’ was provided by Nunan (2003). Tasks help learners to focus on understanding what is being said or written. Nunan (2003) argued that

there can be distinguished between target tasks and pedagogical tasks. Various definitions were provided respectively by Nunan (2003), Long (1985), Richards *et al* (1986), Ellis (2003) and Benevides and Valvona (2003). Attention was given to views on Benevides and Valvona (2003), who argued that a task can either be short and simple or long and more complex. Irrespective, these tasks always have a practical outcome. Furthermore, section 2.2.2 distinguished between different kinds of tasks which may occur in task-based language teaching. A distinction is made between task as response, task as derived outcome, task as goal-orientated activity, task as focus on meaning, task as workplan, holistic activities, analytical activities, focused and unfocused tasks, open tasks and closed tasks, one-way and two-way tasks and type tasks. Decisions always occur on what to teach, in what order it should be taught and what tasks would be appropriate.

Section 2.2.3 discussed the grading and sequencing of tasks. Tasks are normally sequenced in terms of their complexity, i.e. from simple to complex. The choice of tasks to be taught first is considered easy enough for learners on an intermediate level. This discussion was explored with reference to Robinson (2009), who argued that the ideal is that tasks should be sequenced in order to lead to both increased complexity and accuracy of production. Learner factors play a role, because the grading and sequencing of tasks also depend on the amount of knowledge that the learners consist of. Nunan (2003) stated that grading and sequencing of tasks is difficult, because language items cannot be taught in isolation; it must be taught as a whole, for language items are integrated. Therefore, a task-based lesson will consist of a sequence of tasks in which each of these tasks is related to each other (Willis and Willis, 2007). Language can be acquired subconsciously or through conscious learning.

In section 2.2.4 the matter of focus on form was discussed. This discussion was examined with reference to Nunan (2003), who argued that some theorists argue that it is important that communicative interaction form part of a language and therefore focus on form is not necessary. Attention was given to views of Krashen (1981, 1982), who proposed that focus on form is aimed on the conscious learning of language. According to Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) a particular form is not always needed in order to complete a task successfully. Sometimes it happens that certain forms appear naturally during the completion of a task.

As grammar develops through the process of language learning, learners will engage in the process of building, revising, expanding and refining second language representations (Ortega, 2009). This can be done through the processes of simplification, overgeneralization, restructuring and U-shaped behaviour. These processes were discussed in section 2.2.6.

According to Ringbom *et al* (2009) implications in the teaching of a language do occur. In section 2.2.7 the discussion followed that a lot of knowledge is needed concerning the mechanisms which are used for language learning. It is necessary to bear in mind the cross-linguistic similarities between a first language and a second language. Learners with a close relation to a second language need to learn less, they can incorporate what they have learned more easily into their existing knowledge and they reach a higher proficiency level in a shorter time period, and vice versa. Task-based syllabuses are constructed accordingly. Contextual and learner variables need to be considered when cross-linguistic similarities are used in a teaching environment. The only way that learners is going to learn, is by „doing’, i.e. experiential learning. Experiential learning was addressed in section 2.2.8 and it was concluded that learners move from what they already know and what they already can do to the incorporation of new knowledge and skills (David Kolb, 1984). Therefore, it is necessary that learners make sense of some immediate experience and then learners need to go beyond the immediate experience through a process of reflection and transformation. According to the discussion regarding Content-based Instruction in section 2.2.9, learners have the opportunity to engage in the mastery of content, as well as in the acquisition of a second language.

To conclude, certain key issues have to be considered when designing a syllabus. These key issues have been discussed in section 2.2.10.

7.2 Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

In the discussion regarding second language acquisition in section 2.3, Ortega argued that second language acquisition is used to investigate the ability of the human being to learn other languages than their first language during childhood, adolescence or adulthood. The learning of a language can be specified in different ways (section 2.3.1). Ellis (2003) argued that it is more practical if syllabuses are designed to begin with communicative task-based modules with the emphasis on the gain of vocabulary. Section 2.3.2 addressed the fact that

similarities and differences between a first language and a second language need to be considered when second language acquisition occurs. Learners tend to transfer their knowledge of the first language to the second language being acquired (section 2.3.2.1). Furthermore, first language transfer does not always affect a second language negatively; it can also have a positive influence (section 2.3.2.2).

Transfer can occur at three different levels, namely item transfer, system/ procedural transfer and overall transfer. These three different levels were discussed in section 2.3.3 with reference to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009). Furthermore, the different types of transfer lead to different types of learning. These types of learning include item learning for comprehension, item learning for production, system learning for comprehension and system learning for production. These were also discussed in section 2.3.3 with reference to Ringbom and Jarvis (2009). It is not just language transfer that has an influence on second language acquisition, but also the environment in which the language are being taught and acquired.

Section 2.3.4 explored, with reference to Ortega (2009), the way in which the L2 environment plays an important role concerning certain attitudes that learners have. These attitudes may have an affective and social-psychological bases and it is important that these attitudes be considered for the understanding of L2 learning. Schumann (1976) did a research study concerning the social distance between the L1 and L2 and it was found that it is possible that a social distance can occur between a first language and a second language. Furthermore, it was found that negative attitudes of individuals toward the target language may lead to a negative learning situation. Therefore, if learners become more intimate with the target society and its members, socially as well as psychologically, they will be more successful in their learning outcomes. Furthermore, with reference to Ortega (2009), it was discussed that input, interaction, negotiation for meaning, noticing and attention is important in the case of second language learning (discussed in sections 2.3.4.1 - 2.3.4.3).

The discussion focused on views of how language aptitude has an influence on second language acquisition. Section 2.3.5 explored views relating to how learners differ in their aptitude in the acquisition of a second language, i.e. they differ in what concerns how fast, how well and by what means they learn and acquire a second language (Ortega, 2009). The cognitive abilities, the motivations and the personal predispositions of learners also play a

role in the acquisition of a second language. Language-related difficulties do occur (discussed in section 2.3.5.2).

7.3 Implicit and explicit learning

Section 2.4 explored, with reference to Ellis (2008), the way in which language can either be acquired implicitly or explicitly. It is normally the case that a first language is implicitly learned. Also, in the case of children, a second language is usually implicitly acquired. In the case of adult learners, a second language is acquired explicitly. Explicit and implicit learning are different learning processes. Learners do not have the same implicit or even explicit memory systems. Furthermore, people do not have the same knowledge about a language. It is possible that learners can reflect on the knowledge that they have acquired implicitly (in other words, without metalinguistic awareness) and in this sense, develop an explicit representation thereof (Ellis, 2008). In the case of implicit learning, there can be distinguished between awareness as noticing (involving perception) and metalinguistic awareness (involving analysis) (discussed and defined in section 2.4.1).

Implicit and explicit learning can also occur through the process of implicit and explicit instruction. In section 2.4.2 instruction was discussed. Instruction refers to the attempt to intervene in interlanguage development. Language instruction is characterized in terms of direct and indirect intervention. Indirect intervention is used to create situations for learners to be able to learn experientially when they learn how to communicate in a L2, while direct intervention specifies what the learners need to learn particularly. The aim of implicit instruction is to enable learners to infer rules without awareness, i.e. learners are focused on meaning instead (Ellis, 2009). Therefore, indirect intervention is implicit. Explicit instruction involves the fact that rules occur consciously during the learning process. Therefore, direct intervention is explicit.

7.4 Communicative language teaching

Language is very dynamic in its appearance. In section 2.5 the discussion focused on views of Nunan, who stated that language is not only a set of grammatical rules, but a dynamic resource for creating meaning. Therefore, learners, as well as the cognitive processes in which learners engage are important to the learning process. The challenge of a language is to

be able to distinguish between different grammatical rules and then to use this grammatical knowledge in order to communicate effectively. Language is very powerful in the sense that it can be seen as a tool of communication, rather than a set of grammatical rules and lexical items to be memorized. Different learning programs can be created accordingly in order to reflect different communicative needs of different people. There can be distinguished between the interactional function and the transactional function of communicative language. These two purposes were discussed in section 2.5. Furthermore, there can be distinguished between a weak and a strong version of communicative language teaching. Definitions were also provided in section 2.5. The aim of communicative language teaching is to use language in real communication.

7.5 Teaching for specific purposes

Section 2.6 discussed the matter of teaching for specific purposes (Hyland, 2009). The aim is to focus on the teaching of specific needs in order for learners to use these language skills in the contexts in which they will be working. The discussion focused on views of Hyland (2009), who argued that the focus must be on the needs analysis of learners, the analysis of contexts and the language use in these particular contexts. Therefore, when learning and teaching for specific purposes, structures, interaction and communication that specific contexts require must be considered. People have different perceptions and needs regarding tasks and situations. Section 2.6.1 explored the different types of specific purpose syllabi in terms of the different perceptions and needs of people.

When teaching for specific purposes, language systems should first be introduced (Basturkmen, 2006). Hopper (1987) defined language systems as „a set of abstract structures present for all speakers and hearers that is prerequisite for the use of language’. Furthermore, section 2.6.3 addressed two varieties of language, i.e. the common core plus and the „general purpose’ language. Grammatical structures, core vocabulary and patterns of text organization form part of language systems. These features were discussed in sections 2.6.3.1.

Language use is also an important aspect in teaching for specific purposes. The focus of language use is on the communicative purposes of the language. Therefore, speech acts, genres and social interaction form part of language use in specific purposes. Speech acts and genres were discussed in sections 2.6.4.

Attention was given in the discussion to the views of Basturkmen (2006), who distinguished between five objectives which play a role in language teaching for specific purposes. These five objectives were defined in section 2.6.5.

7.6 Complexity analysis in task-based language teaching

Chapter three is divided into six subsections. Each of these sections formed part of the complexity analysis in Chapters four and five. Section 3.2 explored the proficiency level of participants. The ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable, 2010) and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001) presented different skill level descriptions that could be used in order to determine the level of language proficiency. The skill level descriptions are used in reading, writing, listening and speaking. In this study the skill level descriptions of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages were used and the focus was only on the proficiency levels of speaking and listening. The assumption have been made that the adult learners, for whom task-based syllabus design is investigated, are on an entry-level proficiency level. Therefore, entry-level descriptions were provided.

Section 3.3 contained a detailed discussion regarding research done by Pica et al (1993) concerning task types. Pica et al (1993) advanced the view that interaction is an important part of language learning, and therefore communicative tasks are very important. The aim is to orientate tasks toward goals, i.e. the successful negotiation of meaning must be possible and the outcomes of tasks must be met. The task relationships, requirements, goals and outcomes, which are important, were addressed. Pica et al (1993) formulated a table (Table 1) in terms of interactional activity and communication goals. The aim of this table was to assist learners in the comprehensibility of second language input and to receive feedback on their output. Furthermore, Pica et al (1993) presented a task typology (Table 2). The aim of this task typology was to identify the different type of tasks that can occur. Five different type tasks were identified and each of these type tasks were described and discussed in section 3.3.

A detailed discussion was provided in section 3.4 regarding Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis. Robinson (2005) addressed the matter of cognitive abilities in his research regarding the Cognition Hypothesis. It was found that some learners will fall behind because of their slowness in learning, while other learners will excel in learning because of their fast ability of learning. The aim is to develop pedagogic tasks and then sequence these tasks in

order to fulfill the demands that occur in real-world target tasks. Section 3.4.1 discussed the way in which performance and development of task-based language learning can be stimulated through task demands. In order to reach certain task demands, tasks must be designed in such a way for learners to reach the optimal use of task-based second language (discussed in section 3.4.2). Furthermore, a discussion is provided in terms of the increasing of complexity of tasks. The discussion contained certain elements which plays a role in the increasing or decreasing of complexity in terms of the cognitive complexity of communicative tasks (section 3.4.3). When tasks are created, certain task conditions need to be considered (discussed in section 3.4.4) and task-difficulties do occur (discussed in section 3.4.4). In the discussion regarding complexity of tasks, it was found that task complexity does have an effect on language production and language learning (section 3.4.6).

Communicative tasks can also be analysed in terms of language use. Section 3.5 consists of a detailed discussion regarding the analysis of spoken language. Cognitive complexity correlates with syntactic complexity. The discussion explored the view that if learners deliver tasks with a high cognitive complexity, the syntactic complexity will also be high, and vice versa. Attention was also given to the views of Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000) who addressed various language units in sections 3.5.1 – 3.5.3. These language units, as well as the speech units discussed in section 3.5.4, form part of syntactic complexity.

Various language functions can be identified in communicative tasks. Chapter three concluded with a description regarding language functions (section 3.7). It was discovered that language functions sometimes appear naturally, while others are important in order for tasks to be completed successfully. Therefore, language functions can be classified in terms of task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness. These three classifications were fully discussed in section 3.6.

7.7 Complexity analysis of communicative tasks: police-public communication and police-police communication

Chapters four and five consisted of the analysis of isiXhosa dialogues. The different incidents and types of communication that were investigated, was used to create communicative tasks accordingly which were appropriate for police officials on an intermediate level. Chapter four consisted of police-public communication dialogues, while chapter five consisted of police-

police communication dialogues. The dialogues in this task-based language teaching have a relationship to real-world activities. Furthermore, the setting stimulated a natural process of language acquisition.

Each of the dialogues in chapters four and five has been analysed in terms of the typology of Pica et al (1993). In the case of the police-public communication dialogues in chapter four, it was discovered that the dialogues are predominantly examples information gap tasks. In each of the dialogues information was requested and supplied in order to reach a convergent goal and single outcome. Therefore, interaction was required in these communicative tasks in order to complete the task. The police-police communication tasks in chapter five were also predominantly examples of information gap tasks. The other task types which occurred in the communicative tasks in chapters four and five were opinion-giving tasks, jigsaw tasks and decision-making tasks. In these tasks a high level of interaction is not necessarily needed in order to complete the task. The aim of this analysis was to show how these different task types contribute to language development, specifically in the context of police communication.

In the next section, the dialogues in chapters four and five were analysed in terms of cognitive complexity (Robinson, 2005). The dialogues in chapter four were divided into three phases, i.e. the introductory phase, the questioning and narrating phase and the questioning phase. Each of these phases was analysed in terms of cognitive complexity. According to Robinson's Triadic componential framework based on his Cognition Hypothesis it was found that the communicative tasks predominantly illustrated a high performative and low developmental complexity. Complexity along the developmental dimension will increase the complexity and accuracy of language production, but there will be less fluency in language production. In the same way, the dialogues in chapter five were divided into three phases, i.e. introductory phase, the information and consultation phase and the instruction and decision-making phase. Each of these phases was also analysed in terms of cognitive complexity. It could be concluded that the dialogues predominantly demonstrated examples of a high performative and low developmental complexity. The aim of the cognitive complexity analysis was to develop the ability of learners to use language in order to reach the resource-directing (developmental) demands of tasks, i.e. the here-and-now, the reasoning and the few element features which tasks provide.

Each of the dialogues was also analysed in terms of syntactic complexity. The dialogues in chapters four and five predominantly illustrated a low level of syntactic complexity. Therefore, it can be concluded that these dialogues are rather simple communicative tasks. The purpose was that learners would understand how basic grammatical structures are formed in order for them to be able to produce their own sentences after the performance of these tasks. Thus, these communicative tasks are appropriate for learners on an intermediate level.

7.8 Focus-on-form instruction: task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness

Various language functions were identified in the dialogues in chapters four and five. In chapter six in sections 6.2 and 6.3, these language functions were classified in terms of task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness. The aim of this study was to teach learners how to use grammar strategically. Furthermore, learners should be able to determine when particular language structures are important and essential in its usage and when it is not necessary in order to complete tasks successfully.

Tasks can be scaled in terms of their complexity. The complexity can either be increased or decreased depending on the proficiency level of learners. The complexity of tasks can also be increased or decreased depending on the complexity of the content, i.e. it can be increased or decreased in terms of cognitive or syntactic complexity. In section 6.4 the complexity of dialogues 1, 2, 4, 7, and 9 of police-public and police-police communication was increased. The content was made more complex in terms of cognitive, as well as syntactic complexity. In this study it was discovered that the moment cognitive complexity increases, syntactic complexity automatically increases.

After the complexity of the tasks was increased in terms of cognitive and syntactic complexity, they were analysed in terms of the task typology of Pica et al (1993). The police-public communicative tasks predominantly illustrated examples of information gap tasks, while the police-police communicative tasks predominantly illustrated examples of opinion-giving tasks.

Examples of task descriptions were provided. The aim was to create tasks that are orally more interactive for the performance of more complex tasks. In these tasks, the focus was more on form, rather than on meaning. Therefore, the focus on form helped learners to notice the

input that is necessary in complex tasks, because the complex tasks required more communicative and mental effort. The performance of these complex tasks should also have encouraged learners to use a richer vocabulary, to widen their repertoire of conversational strategies and to be more accurate and fluent in their language production.

7.9 Concluding perspectives on the design and implementation of task-based language teaching of isiXhosa as second language for specific purposes

A task-based approach of syllabus design is a rather complex approach. In order to present a task-based syllabus, various characteristics need to be researched. In the discussion that follows, the matter of needs analysis, proficiency levels, task sequencing, scaling and complexity, explicit and implicit instruction, crosslinguistic similarities and advice for learning a language will be addressed.

For teachers to use a task-based syllabus, it is necessary to have knowledge regarding task-based language teaching. Teachers must be able to formalize all the content that must be learned. They must have the ability to create natural contexts in which learners can perform communicative tasks. The reason for this is that learners must be able to use the language taught in the communicative tasks in order to communicate in the real world outside the classroom. This implicates that tasks must be created on a high interactive level in order for interaction to occur. Teachers must be attentive on the fact they do not have full control in a task-based situation. Learners must be provided the opportunity to have some control over their own language learning and acquisition.

It is important to determine the proficiency level of learners in order to create communicative tasks accordingly. Once the proficiency level is established it is necessary to know exactly what it is that want to be learned and achieved. Therefore, a needs analysis need to be done, i.e. the needs and objectives of the learners. Tasks must be created according to the needs and objectives of learners. Only then will language successfully be learned and acquired.

In a task-based approach, communicative tasks are graded and sequenced in terms of their complexity. It can either be in terms of cognitive or syntactic complexity, i.e. the content of the tasks. When sequencing of tasks occurs, code complexity (knowledge about language), cognitive complexity (familiarity of a task, genre or topic, information type) and

communicative stress (opportunities to control interaction in a language) must be considered. The task sequence should start with tasks containing a low level of complexity. The tasks that are chosen to be taught first should be easy enough for beginner learners to perform. Tasks should gradually be made more complex. As learners work through the sequence of tasks, teachers must stay attentive on the development of the proficiency levels. A task can only be completed once the expected proficiency level of the previous task has been reached. Therefore, it is also important that teachers should stay aware of the needs of learners throughout the task sequence.

Focus on form is a useful strategy in task-based language teaching. It helps with the development of grammatical features in task-based language tasks. Focus on form is a source of motivation and therefore it is best to teach grammar at the end of task sequence. Teachers should rather focus on the negotiation of meaning. At first, learners will struggle with the correct use of language in order to express different meanings, but at least they will have experience in working with meaning. Learners will be more receptive by the time focus on form is implemented into the following task-sequence.

Normally, learners will draw on all their existing knowledge concerning a language in the attempt to learn and acquire a second language. Therefore, it is important to make learners aware of the crosslinguistic similarities between the first language and the second language. Learners tend to be more positive and efficient in the acquiring of a second language if they are aware of the existing similarities between their L1 and L2. Furthermore, learners tend to transfer their first language knowledge to the learning of a second language. Therefore, if learners know what the similarities are, appropriate transfer will occur without any misinterpretations.

In the case of teaching for specific purposes, teachers must know exactly what the needs of the learners are; what it is that they want to learn and achieve. It is important to know what learners need in order to communicate in a specific context. When teaching for specific purposes, teachers only have limited time. Therefore, only the most important needs can be fulfilled and only the key features of a language can be taught. This implies the fact that learners will not reach full accuracy and fluency in a second language. It is thus important for learners to learn from extra material beyond the classroom. Learners need to do more than is expected in the classroom, because it is not easy to learn and acquire a second language.

A language can be acquired by using opportunities outside the classroom to speak the language. By speaking the language over and over again, will improve learners' confidence in the particular language. Learners must not be discouraged when they struggle at first. One learns by making mistakes. Reading is also a very helpful source. Learners must read a lot of extra material. By reading, learners will learn how to focus on form.

Furthermore, computer assisted learning is very helpful in teaching a second language. Therefore, it should be researched in order to be implemented into task-based syllabus design. These computer lessons must be interactive. Learners must be able to communicate during computer lessons. It will be ideal if the computer lessons contain repetitions of tasks. By hearing the language over and over again, will help with language learning. Learners must also be able to receive feedback. For example, when they speak, their own voice could be played back. In this way they will learn whether pronunciation is appropriate. When feedback is given, it should be specific. By knowing exactly where they went wrong, learners can improve their language use much quicker.

Learners who want to learn isiXhosa must use every opportunity coming their way. They should never hesitate to speak the language. They must be encouraged to learn something about the culture of isiXhosa. By understanding the culture, they will understand something about the value of the language.

APPENDIX A
SCENARIOS

Scenario 1 / Umboniso 1

You are working in the police office and you are responsible for the complaints of the community. You are on duty when a person comes into the police office to lay charge. The two of you are having a conversation in which you greet, asking how you may help, asking whether the person wants to broach the matter etc. / *Usebenza kwisikhululo samapolisa kwaye unoxanduva lokujongana nezikhalazo zoluntu. Usemsebenzini xa kungena umntu kwisikhululo samapolise eze kukwenza isimangalo. Wena naye niyancokola apho ubulisa Khona, umbuze ukuba ungamnceda njani, kwaye ubuza nokuba ingaba lo mntu ufuna ukuvula ingxoxo ngalo mba, njalo njalo.*

Housebreaking

Scenario 2 / Umboniso 2

You are on duty in the police office when a person comes in and lay charge against housebreaking that took place. You are having a discourse in which you are asking the person's details, the time of housebreaking, the place, the date, etc. / *Usemsebenzini kwisikhululo samapolisa xa kungena umntu aze afake isimangalo ngoqhekezo lwendlu olwenzekileyo. Uncokola nalo mntu ubuze iinkcukacha zakhe, ixesha loqhekezo, indawo, umhla, njalo njalo.*

Scenario 3 / Umboniso 3

You are on duty today. Housebreaking is taking place and you are called out to investigate the case on the scene. Conversations are taking place about decisions to be made with regards to the number of police men that has to go with, the choice of who is going with, how many police vehicles etc. / *Usemsebenzini namhlanje. Kuqhekezwa indlu kwaye kubizwa wena ukuba uye kuphanda ngeli tyala kwindawo yowhekezo. Incok iyenzeka malunga nezigqibo emazenziwe malunga nenani lamapolisa ekumele abekho, indlela yokuchonga abo kufuneka babe kho, nokuba kufuneka izithuthi zamapolisa ezingaphi, njalo njalo.*

Scenario 4 / Umboniso 4

Housebreaking took place and you are on the scene busy investigating the case. The suspect is not present. / *Uqhekezo lwendlu luqhubekile kwaye ukwindawo olwenzeke kuyo uxakekile uphanda ityala. Umrhanelwa akakho.*

Scenario 5 / Umboniso 5

Housebreaking is busy taking place. The suspect is still present when you arrive on the scene. You and three other police men are giving each other instructions on how to approach the house. / *Uqhekezo luyenzeka ngalo mzuzu. Umrhanelwa usekho ngeli lixa ufikayo kwindawo yoqhekezo. Wena namanye amapolisa amathathu ninikana imiyalelo malunga nendlela yokungena kule ndlu.*

Scenario 6 / Umboniso 6

Housebreaking took place. You have already investigated the case. Discussions about the housebreak are now taking place. / *Uqhekezo lwendlu lwenzekile. Sele ulwenzile uphando lweli tyala. Iingxoxo malunga nokuqhekezwa kwendlu ziyaqhubeka.*

Scenario 7 / Umboniso 7

Housebreaking is taking place. The suspect is still on the scene. The moment you arrive on the scene and reveal yourself, the suspect flees. You contact the radio monitor room and arrange for the chopper to come out. / *Uqhekezo lwendlu luyaqhubeka. Umrhanelwa usekho kwindawo yoqhekezo. Uthi xa ufika kwindawo yoqhekezo uziveze , umrhanelwa abaleke. Uqhakamshelana negumbi likanomathotholo wonxibelelwano uze wenze amalungiselelo okukhupha inqwelomoya.*

Scenario 8 / Umboniso 8

Housebreak took place and the suspect escaped while the police were on the scene. You contact the radio monitor room. The chopper is out and is busy to help seek the suspect. You and the chopper are constantly busy keeping each other up to date of what is happening. / *Uqhekezo lwendlu lwenzekile kwaye umrhanelwa usabile ngeli lixa amapolisa ekwindawo yoqhekezo. Uqhakamshelana negumbi likanomathotholo wonxibelelwano. Inqwelontaka sele ikhutshiwe ukuze incedisa ekukhangeleni umrhanelwa. Wena nenqwelontaka nincokola njalo ukuze nihlale nisazi okwenzekayo.*

Scenario 9 / Umboniso 9

Housebreak took place and you are called out. You and another police man are on your way to the scene in one police car. You, the passenger, are giving the driver directions of how to get to the scene. / *Uqhekezo lwendlu lwenzekile kwaye ubiziwe. Wena namanye amapolisa nikhwele isithuthi samapolisa esinye kwaye nisindleleni eya kwindawo yoqhekezo. Wena, lowo ukhwele nani, ninika umqhubi indlela yokuya kufikelela kwindawo yoqhekezo.*

Scenario 10 / Umboniso 10

You are called out to the scene where housebreak took place. You have investigated the case and are now on your way back to the police station. While you are in your car, you contact the radio monitor room to give report concerning the situation. You are stating whether the case is positive or negative. / *Uyabizwa ukuba uye kwindawo apho uqhekezo lwenzekile khona. Sele niliphandile ityala kwaye ngoku nisindleleni ebuyela kwisikhululo samapolisa. Ngeli lixa nisesithuthini, ninxibelelana negumbi likanomathotholo wonxibelelwano ukuze ninike ingxelo malunga nale meko. Niyachaza ukuba ingaba ityala lihle okanye libi.*

Scenario 11 / Umboniso 11

Housebreaking took place. A white gholf that travels around in the areas is linked to this case. You have to investigate the case. / *Kuqhekezwe indlu. Imoto emhlophe yakwaGolf ethanda ukuhamba kule mimandla yiyo eyayanyaniswa neli tyala. Kufuneka uphande eli tyala.*

Armed robbery

Scenario 12 / Umboniso 12

Armed robbery took place at a bank. You are called out. The suspect is still present when you arrive on the scene. / *Ukuqhekezwa ngezikhali kwenzekile ebhankini. Uyabizwa ukuba uze. Umrhanelwa usekho ngeli lixa ufikayo.*

Scenario 13 / Umboniso 13

Armed robbery took place at a bank. While you are on your way to the bank, the suspect flees. Instructions are now given in the police vehicle on what to do. / *Ukuqhekezwa ngezikhali kwenzekile ebhankini. Ngeli lixa uya ebhankini, umrhanelwa uyabaleka. Imiyalelo inikezwa kwisithuthi samapolisa malunga noko kufuneka kwenzekile.*

Scenario 14 / Umboniso 14

Armed robbery took place at a bank. You arrested the suspect and you are taking the suspect to the police cells. / *Ukuqhekezwa ngezikhali kwenzeke ebhankini. Umbambile umrhanelwa kwaye umsa eziseleni zamapolisa.*

Raping

Scenario 15 / Umboniso 15

You are on duty today. A girl comes in and lays charge against rape that took place the previous day. The two of you are having a discourse in which you are asking questions, for example where it took place, when, at what time etc. / *Usemebenzini namhlanje. Kungena intombazana ize kumangala ngenxa yokudlwengulwa okwenzeke ngezolo. Wena naye ninencoko apho ubuza le mibuzo: Umzekelo: Kwenzeke phi, ngabani ixesha, njalo njalo.*

Scenario 16 / Umboniso 16

A girl is busy being raped. An eyewitness sees it and immediately phones the police. You receive the call and gets information about the happenings. / *Intombazana iyadlwengulwa ngalo mzuzu. Oku kubonwa lingqina ngeliso lenyama lize lifonele amapolisa ngoko nangoko. Nguwe ophendula le foni uze ufumani ulwazi ngoko kwenzekileyo.*

Hi-jacking

Scenario 17 / Umboniso 17

A hi-jack took place. You and another police man are being informed about this hi-jack. / *Kuphangwe imoto. Wena nelinye ipolisa naziswa ngolu phango lwemoto.*

Scenario 18 / Umboniso 18

A hi-jack took place. You are being informed. You and another police man are on your way to the scene. On your way to the scene, the suspect flees with the stolen car. You chase the suspect. / *Kuphangwe imoto. Waziswa ngoku. Wena nelinye ipolisa nisendleleni eya apho. Kwindlela eya apho, umrhanelwa ubaleka nemoto ebiweyo. Uleqa umrhanelwa.*

Scenario 19 / Umboniso 19

Hi-jacking takes place. On your way to the scene, the suspect flees. You follow the suspect. You contact the radio monitor room and the chopper is taken out. / *Uphango lwemoto luyenzeka. Endleleni eya apho, umrhanelwa uyabaleka. Ulandela umrhanelwa. Uqhakamshelana negumbi likanomathotholo wonxibelelwano kwaye kukhutshwa inqwelontaka.*

Car accidents

Scenario 20 / Umboniso 20

An accident took place. You are being called out to the scene where the accident took place. You are still in the police office giving instructions. / *Kwenzeke ingozi. Uyabizwa ukuba uye kwindawo apho kwenzeke khona ingozi. Usekwisikhululo samapolisa unika imiyalelo.*

Scenario 21 / Umboniso 21

An accident took place. You and a colleague are called out to the scene. You are the one giving the instructions on the scene while the investigation takes place. / *Kwenzeke ingozi. Wena nogxa wakho niyabizwa ukuba nize kwindawo yentlekele. Nguwe onika imiyalelo kule ndawo yentlekele ngeli lixa uphando luqhubekayo.*

Scenario 22 / Umboniso 22

An accident took place. You and another police man have been on the scene and investigated the case. You are now on your way back to the police station and are busy discussing the case. / *Kwenzeke ingozi. Wena nelinye ipolisa sele nikwindawo yengozi kwaye ityala niliphandile. Ngoku nibuyela kwisikhululo samapolisa kwaye nixoxa ngeli tyala.*

Scenario 23 / Umboniso 23

An accident took place. You have investigated the case and you feel that it is necessary to call in another police man. You phone the police station and gives order to send out another police man. You also give them the route description. / *Kwenzeke ingozi. Niliphandile ityala kwaye nibona kufanelekile ukuba nibize elinye ipolisa. Nifonela isikhululo samapolisa ninika umyalelo wokuba kuthunyelwe elinye ipolisa. Nikwabanika inkcazo yendlela eza kule ndawo nikuyo.*

Domestic Violence

Scenario 24 / *Umboniso 24*

You are on duty when a woman comes in and lay charge against domestic violence. Her husband abuses her and the family. You ask her a few questions concerning this situation on which she answers. / *Usemsebenzini ngeli lixa kufika umfazi afake isimangalo ngenxa yempatho mbi ekhaya. Umyeni wakhe umphatha gadalala yena nosapho lwakhe. Umbuza imibuzo embalwa ngale meko, mibuzo leyo ayiphendulayo.*

Scenario 25 / *Umboniso 25*

You are on duty when a woman phones and reports domestic violence. You go out to the house and investigate the situation. You arrest the man. / *Usemsebenzini ngeli lixa kufona inkosikazi ize inike ingxelo ngampatho mbi ekhaya. Uya kweli khaya uze wenze uphando ngale meko. Ubamba indoda.*

Drug trading

Scenario 26 / *Umboniso 26*

You suspect that a gang is busy with the trading of drugs. You are having a discussion with one of your colleagues. / *Unorhano lokuba imigulukudu ixakekile irhweba ngeziyobisi. Uxoxa kunye nomnye woogxa bakho.*

Scenario 27 / *Umboniso 27*

You are suspecting that a gang is busy with the trading of drugs. You know where they are likely to be because you have watched them a couple of days. You are waiting for them on their usual spot. You take one of the members to the police station and question him. / *Unorhano lokuba imigulukudu ixakekile irhweba ngeziyobisi. Uyayazi ukuba bangafumaneka phi kuba sele kuntsuku ubajongile. Ubalindele kwindawo yabo yesiqhelo. Uthatha omnye wabo uya kumncina kwisikhululo samapolisa.*

Scenario 28 / *Umboniso 28*

You catch a guy red handed busy trading drugs. You arrest the guy and take him to the police station. / *Ubamba umntu kanye ngeli lixa arhweba ngeziyobisi. Uyambamba uze umse kwisikhululo samapolisa.*

Scenario 29 / Umboniso 29

A teacher suspects that one of the children has drugs with him. You are being called out to the school to investigate the case. / *Utitshala unamanakani okuba omnye wabafundi uneziyobisi aziphetheyo. Uyabizwa ukuba uze apha esikolweni uze kuphanda eli tyala.*

Scenario 30 / Umboniso 30

You suspect that a gang is busy trading drugs. You arrange for a meeting with two of your colleagues and you discuss the situation. You discuss how you feel the case should be handled and possible ways on how to catch the gang. / *Norhano lokuba imigulukudu ixakekile irhweba ngeziyobisi. Wenza amalungiselelo okuhlangana noogxa bakho ababini ukuze nixoxe ngale meko. Nixoxa ngendlela elinokusingathwa ngayo eli tyala kwakunye nangeendlela ekunokubanjwa ngayo le migulukudu.*

Scenario 31 / Umboniso 31

A police woman is a suspect of dagga trading. This case is connected to the disappearance of about R1 million of dagga out of the police store. You investigate the case. / *Kurhanelwa ukuba ipolisakazi liyabandakanyeka kurhwebo lwentsangu. Eli tyala layanyaniswa nokulahleka kwentsaku eqikelelwa kwisigidi seerandi kwindawo ebiginwe kuyo emapoliseni. Uphanda eli tyala.*

Robbery out of cars

Scenario 32 / Umboniso 32

You are on duty the evening when you receive a call. Someone broke into a car. You get the details, i.e. where it happened, when etc. You call another police man so that you are two to investigate the case. / *Usebenzini ngobusuku ofumana ngabo umnxeba. Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Ufumana iinkcukacha, umz. lwenzeke phi, nini njalo njalo. Ubiza elinye ipolisa ukuze nibe babini kuphando lweli tyala.*

Scenario 33 / Umboniso 33

Someone broke into a car. You were called out and you took another police man with. You and your colleague are now on the scene busy investigating the case. You question the person whose car it is. / *Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Ubiziwe waze wacela elinye ipolisa ukuba*

lihambe nawe. Wena nogxa wakho nikule ndawo yoqhekezo niphanda eli tyala. Nincina lo mntu wale moto.

Scenario 34 / Umboniso 34

Someone broke into a car. You and your colleague have been on the scene and already investigated the case. You are back at the police station. You are discussing all of the information you have at your disposal. / ***Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Wena nogxa wakho sele nikwindawo yoqhekezo kwaye sele niliphandile ityala. Nibuyele kwisikhululo samapolisa. Nixoxa ngalo lonke ulwazi enilufumeneyo.***

Scenario 35 / Umboniso 35

Someone broke into a car. You were called out to investigate the case. You investigated the case and you suspect it is the same person you were looking for the past few weeks but can't seem to catch. You and your colleague discuss the situation. / ***Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Ubiziwe ukuba uze kuphanda eli tyala. Uliphandile ityala kwaye unamanakani okuba ikwangulo mntu ubumfuna kwezi veki zimbawo zidlulileyo kodwa ungakwazi kumbamba. Wena nogxa wakho nixoxa ngale meko.***

Scenario 36 / Umboniso 36

Someone is busy breaking into a car. You are being contact and you go out to the scene. Immediately, when you arrive on the scene, the woman says that she has seen the suspect flee just before you arrived on the scene. You search for the suspect. / ***Kukho umntu oqhekeza imoto ngalo mzuzu. Kuqhakamshelwana nawe kwaye uya kule ndawo yoqhekezo. Kwangko, ufika nje kule ndawo, kukho umfazi othi ubone umranelwa ebaleka phambi kokuba ufike kule ndawo yoqhekezo. Ukhangelala lo mranelwa.***

Scenario 37 / Umboniso 37

Someone broke into a car. You were called out and you searched for the suspect, because the suspect has escaped. You can't find the suspect. You phone the radio monitor room and the chopper comes out. / ***Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Ubiziwe kwaye umkhangele umranelwa, kuba umranelwa lowo usable. Akumfumani lo mranelwa. Ufonela igumbi likanomathotholo wonxibelelwano kukhutshwe inqwelontaka.***

Scenario 38 / Umboniso 38

Someone broke into a car. You were called out and you searched for the suspect, because the suspect has escaped. You can't find the suspect. You phone the radio monitor room and the chopper comes out. You and the copper keep each other up to date of what is happening, i.e. directions etc. / *Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Ubiziwe kwaye umkhangele umrhanelwa, kuba umrhanelwa lowo usabile. Akumfumani lo mrhanelwa. Ufonela igumbi likanomathotholo wonxibelelwano kukhutshwe inqwelontaka. Wena nenqwelontaka nihlala nisazisana malunga nook kwenzekayo, umz. ngamacala okanye indawo enikuyo nalo njalo.*

Scenario 39 / Umboniso 39

Someone broke into a car. You went out to search for the suspect. After the chopper came out, the suspect was caught. You take him to the police station where you ask him a few questions. / *Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Uphumile ukuya kukhangela umrhanelwa. Emva kokupha inqwelontaka iphumile, umrhanelwa uye wabanjwa. Uyamtatha umse kwisikhululo samapolisa apho umbuza Khona imibuzo embalwa.*

Robbery

Scenario 40 / Umboniso 40

You are on duty when a person comes in to make a statement. The person's car has been stolen and you are questioning the person to get as much information as possible. / *Usembenzini ngeli lixa kufika umntu umntu eze kwenza isimangalo. Imoto yalo mntu ibiwe kwaye uncina lo mntu ukuze ufumane ulwazi kangangoko.*

Scenario 41 / Umboniso 41

You are walking in the shopping centre. You catch a child red handed where he is busy taking something from the shelf and putting it in his pocket. You take the child to the police station and phone the parents to come in. / *Uhamba-hamba kudederhu lweevenkile. Ubamba umntwana kanye ngeli lixa akhupha into eshelufini eyifaka empokothweni yakhe. Uthatha lo mntwana umse kwisikhululo samapolisa uze ufonele abazali bakhe uba beze.*

Scenario 42 / Umboniso 42

You are on duty when a man comes in and tells that his phone was stolen while he was on his way to the shopping centre. You question the man. You ask for his personal details, exactly where it happened, what the suspects look like, how many of them were part of it, what race they are, what exactly happened, etc. / *Usemsebenzini ngeli lixa kufika indoda ichaza ukuba ifoni yayo ibiwe ngeli lixa isendleleni eya kudederhu lweevenkile. Uyayincina le ndoda. Ubuza ngeenkukacha zayo, apho yenzeke khona le nto, inkangeleko yoabarhanelwa, bangaphi ababe yinxalenye yesi senzo, uhlanga lwabo, kwenzeka ntoni kanye-kanye, njalo njalo.*

Scenario 43 / Umboniso 43

You are on duty when a boy comes in and lay charge against his bicycle that was stolen while he was in class. You ask the boy a few questions, i.e. where it happened, more or less when, when last he saw his bike, whether he might suspect somebody etc. / *Usemsebenzini xa kufika inkwenkwe ize ifake isimangalo ngenxa yokubiwa kwebhayisekile yayo ngeli lixa ikwigumbi lokufundela. Ubuza le nkwenkwe imibuzo embalwa, umz. kwenzeka phi oku, malunga naxesha liphi, igqibele nini ukuyibona ibhayisekile yayo, nokuba ingaba ukho na umntu emrhanelayo njalo njalo.*

Scenario 44 / Umboniso 44

You are on duty when a woman comes in and gives a statement about a handbag that got stolen out of her office. You ask her a few questions, i.e. her personal details, when it happened, where she was at that time, whether she suspect someone etc. / *Usemsebenzini xa kufika umfazi efaka isimangalo sokubiwa kwetyesana yakhe yesandla eofisini yakhe. Umbuza imibuzo embalwa, umz. iinkukacha zakhe, yenzeke nini le nto, ebephi ngeli xesha yenzekayo, nokuba ingaba ukho na umntu amrhanelayo njalo njalo.*

Scenario 45 / Umboniso 45

A laptop was stolen. You are the one receiving the call and you have to go out to investigate the case. / *Kubiwe ilaptop. Umnxeba weli tyala ufikela kuwe kwaye kufuneka uhambe uye kuphanda eli tyala.*

Scenario 46 / Umboniso 46

Electronic equipment worth millions of rand is stolen in Eikestad shopping centre. You are called out to investigate the case. / *Kubiwe izixhobo zombane eziqikelelwa kwizigidi zeerandi kwisenta yodederhu lweevenkile iEikestad. Ubiziwe ukuba uze kuphanda eli tyala.*

Deliberate damaging

Scenario 47 / Umboniso 47

Two men are busy arguing on a parking area about deliberate damage of possession. Apparently one of the guys deliberately scratched the other guy's car. The argument gets out of hand and they start hitting each other. A lady walks by, sees it and immediately phones the police. You are at the receiving end and she explains everything to you. / *Amadoda amabini ahlisana esenyusana kwindawo yokumisa iimoto ngomonakaliso wangabom kwimoto yomnye. Kufumaniseka ukuba enye yala madoda ikrwele imoto yomnye ngamabom . Olu xambuliswano lunyukela kwelinye iqondo kuba bade baqalise ukulwa ngezigalo. Inenekazi elizihambelayo libona oku lize lifonele amapolisa ngoko nangoko. Olu daba lufikela kuwe kwaye eli nenekazi likucacisela yonke into.*

Scenario 48 / Umboniso 48

Two men are busy arguing on a parking area about deliberate damage of possession. Apparently one of the guys deliberately scratched the other guy's car. The argument gets out of hand and they start hitting each other. A woman saw it and phone the police. You are called out to the scene. You question the two guys. / *Amadoda amabini ahlisana esenyusana kwindawo yokumisa iimoto ngomonakaliso wangabom kwimoto yomnye. Kufumaniseka ukuba enye yala madoda ikrwele imoto yomnye ngamabom. Olu xambuliswano lunyukela kwelinye iqondo kuba bade baqalise ukulwa ngezigalo. Kukho umfazi oyibonayo le nto aze afonele amapolisa. Kubizwa wena ukuba uye kule ndawo. Uncina la madoda mabini.*

Scenario 49 / Umboniso 49

You are on duty when a boy comes in and lay charge against deliberate damage of possession. He tells about the fight between him and his friend on the school grounds. His friend deliberately damaged his bicycle. / *Usemsebenzini ngeli lixa kufikwa inkwenkwe eze kumangala ngenxa yokonakaliswa ngamabom kwento yayo. Ubalisa ngomlo phakathi*

kwakhe nomhlobo wakhe kumabala esikolo. Umhlobo wakho uye wonakalisa ngamabom ibhayisekile yakhe.

Scenario 50 / Umboniso 50

A boy came into the police station a laid charge against the deliberate damage of his bicycle. You call in the boy's friend and you question the friend. / *Inkwenkwe ifike kwisikhululo samapolisa yaze yafaka isimangalo sokonakaliswa ngamabom kwebhayisekile yayo. Ubiza umhlobo wale nkwenkwe uze umncine.*

Kidnapping

Scenario 51 / Umboniso 51

You are on duty when a woman comes in and tells that her child is probably kidnapped. The child never came home after school and it's almost dark. You ask the lady a few questions. / *Usemsebenzini kanye xa kufika umfazi eze kuchaza ngoloyiko lokubiwa komntwana wakhe. Umntwana akakhange afike ekhaya emva kokuphuma kwesikolo kwaye sekuburhatyela ngoku. Ubuza eli nenekazi imibuzo embalwa.*

Scenario 52 / Umboniso 52

A woman reported the kidnapping of her child. You call several police men and gives instructions of what to do. / *Umfazi unike ingxelo ngokubiwa komntwana wakhe. Ubiza iqela lamapolisa uze unike imiyalelo ngokumele kwenziwe.*

Scenario 53 / Umboniso 53

A child has been kidnapped. You and a few police man discuss the situation and also the information which the woman gave. / *Umntwana ubiwe. Wena namapolisa ambalwa nixoxa ngale meko nangenkcazo ethe yanikwa ngumfazi.*

Fraud

Scenario 54 / Umboniso 54

You are on duty when a man comes in and lay charge against his boss. He suspects that his boss is busy with fraud (cheque). You question the man. / *Usemsebenzini kanye xa kufika*

indoda ize kumangalela umqeshi wayo. Irhanela ukuba umqeshi wayo uyarhwaphiliza (itsheki). Ubiza lo mqeshi uze umncine.

Scenario 55 / Umboniso 55

A person came into the police office and laid charge against his boss. He suspects that his boss is busy with fraud (cheque). You call the boss and you question him. / *Umntu ungene kwi-ofisi yamapolisa wamangalela umqeshi wakhe. Urhanela ukuba umqeshi wakhe uyarhwaphiliza (itsheki). Ubiza lo mqeshi uze umncine.*

Scenario 56 / Umboniso 56

A person came in and laid charge against his boss for fraud. You have already questioned this person, as well as his boss. You and your colleague are discussing the situation with all the information at hand. / *Umntu ungenile waze wamangalela umqeshi wakhe ngenxa yorhwaphilizo. Sele umncinile lo mntu kunye nomqeshi wakhe. Wena nogxa wakho nixoxa ngale meko nolwazi eninalo ezandleni zenu.*

Scenario 57 / Umboniso 57

You are on duty when a man comes in and lay charge against fraud. The cashier sold something this man wanted to buy after he gave a deposit. You ask him a few questions about the situation. / *Usemsebenzini kanye ngeli xesha kungena indoda ize ifake isimangalo sorhwaphilizo. Umthengisi uthengise into ebifunwa yile ndoda emva kokuba sele iyibhatele nedipozithi. Ubuze le ndoda imibuzo embalwa ngale meko.*

Scenario 58 / Umboniso 58

Three police women forwarded a manipulated email with the faces of Jacob Zuma and Mr Julius Malema. You investigate the case and the three police women get suspended. / *Kukho amapolisakazi amathathu athumele imbalelwano yomnathazwe enamantyontyelo angengawo anobuso bukaJaco Zuma noJulius Malema. Uphanda eli tyala kuze kumiswe okwethutyana emsebenzini la mapolisakazi mathathu.*

Attackings

Scenario 59 / Umboniso 59

One morning, a woman is on her way to work. On her way to the bus stop, somebody attacks her. You are on duty when she comes into the police station to lay charge. You question her and ask her to tell everything that has happened. / *Ngentsasa ethile, umfazi usendleleni eya emsebenzini. Kwindlela eya kwindawo ekukhwelelwa kuyo ibhasi, uhlaselwa ngumntu. Usemsebenzini xa efika kwisikhululo samapolisa eze kumangala. Uyamncina umcele ukuba athethe ngako konke okwenzekileyo.*

Scenario 60 / Umboniso 60

A woman is at home busy looking after a child. A man came into the house and attacked her. You are on duty when you receive a call. You try to get as many information as possible. / *Umfazi usekhaya ugcina umntwana. Kungena indoda kule ndlu ize imhlasele. Usemsebenzini xa kungena umnxeba. Uzama ukufumana ulwazi oluninzi ngokwaneleyo.*

Scenario 61 / Umboniso 61

A woman is alone at home. She goes out in her back yard to hang up her washing. Somebody jumps over the wall and attacks her. She succeeded to escape and to call the police. You are on duty and receive the call. You immediately get more police men and give them instructions. / *Umfazi uhleli yedwa ekhaya. Uyaphuma endliwini aye kuxhoma impahla emva kwendlu. Kutsiba umntu udonga aze amhlasele. Uyaphumelela ekusabeni aze afonele amapolisa. Usemsebenzini uze ufumane le foni. Ngoko nangoko ufumana amapolisa amaninzi uze uwanike imiyalelo.*

Scenario 62 / Umboniso 62

A woman was attacked in her house. You and another police man go out to the woman's house and you question the woman. / *Kuhlaselwe umfazi endlwini yakhe. Wena nelinye ipolisa niyaphuma niye kule ndlu yakhe uze incine lo mfazi.*

Scenario 63 / Umboniso 63

A woman was attacked in her house. You and another police man went out to the woman's house and you have investigated the case. You are back at the police station and are busy discussing the situation. / *Kuhlaselwe umfazi endlwini yakhe. Wena nelinye ipolisa niye*

kule ndlu yalo mfazi kwaye niliphandile eli tyala. Ubuyele kwisikhululo samapolisa uxoxa ngale meko.

Scenario 64 / Umboniso 64

A businessman is accused of the immoral attack of under aged boys. You question this man. / *Uso mashishini utyholwa ngokuhlasela ngokungamkelekanga amakhwenkwnana amancinci. Uncina le ndoda.*

Scenario 65 / Umboniso 65

A girl is attacked and raped between bushes. You are called out to investigate the case. / *Kuhlaselwe intombazana yaze yadlwengulwa etyholweni. Ubiziwe ukuba uze kuphanda eli tyala.*

Murder

Scenario 66 / Umboniso 66

A man murdered a family member with a knife on a train in traffic. You are called out to investigate the case. / *Kukho indoda ebulele ilungu losapho lwayo ngemela kuloliwe ohambayo. Ubiziwe ukuba uze kuphanda elityala.*

Scenario 67 / Umboniso 67

A student at the University of Stellenbosch was murdered. You have to investigate the case. / *Kugetyengwe umfundi kwiDyunivesithi yaseStellenbosch. Kufuneka uphanda eli tyala.*

Scenario 68 / Umboniso 68

A young girl was murdered. Her boyfriend is being accused for the murder. You question this guy. / *Kugetyengwe intombazanana. Kutyholwa inkwenkwe ancuma nayo ngesi senzo. Uncina lo mfana.*

Scenario 69 / Umboniso 69

A young girl was murdered. You are on duty when you are called out to investigate the scene. / *Kugetyengwe intombazanana. Usemsebenzini xa ubizwa ukuba uze kuphanda kwindawo yesi sehlo.*

Scenario 70 / **Umboniso 70**

A young girl was murdered. You are called out to investigate the case. You realise that somebody fumbled with the evidence. / *Kugetyengwe intombazanana. Uyabizwa ukuba uze kuphanda eli tyala. Ufumanisa ukuba kukho umntu owonakalise ubungqina.*

Scenario 71 / **Umboniso 71**

A young girl was murdered. That same day, somebody broke into two other houses. The finger prints of the person were also found on the scene where the girl was murdered. You investigate the case. /

Scenario 72 / **Umboniso 72**

A young girl was murdered. An eyewitness states that she was killed when she met her murderers halfway. You question the eyewitness. / *Kugetyengwe intombazanana. Inggina elibona esi senzo lithi ubulewe emva kokudibana nababulali bakhe embindini wendlela abebeyihamba. Uncina eli ngqina libona oku.*

Scenario 73 / **Umboniso 73**

A mom murdered her child who was addicted to drugs. You have to investigate the case. You question the mom. / *Kukho umama obulele umntwana wakhe obeyingedle yeziyobisi. Kufuneka uphanda eli tyala. Uncina lo mama.*

Scenario 74 / **Umboniso 74**

A young girl was murdered. The detective that investigated the case kept information from the court. You investigate the case. / *Kugetyengwe intombazanana. Umcuphi obe phanda eli tyal kukho ulwazi alufihlele inkundla. Uphanda eli tyala.*

Scenario 75 / **Umboniso 75**

Two Christian farmers are murdered. You go out to the farm and you investigate the case. / *Kugetyengwe amafama amabini angamaKristu. Uya kule fama ukuze uphanda eli tyala.*

Scenario 76 / **Umboniso 76**

Two Somalian immigrants are murdered in Dispatch. You are sent out to investigate the case. / *Kugetyengwe abangeneleli ababini baseSomalia eDispatch. Uthunyiwe ukuba uye kuphanda eli tyala.*

Administrative offices

Scenario 77 / Umboniso 77

You are in charge of the Human Resource Management. One of the police officers comes to your office and asks you whether it is possible to get leave. You and the officer discuss the matter. The two of you agree on a certain time when he can go on leave. / *Ujongene neofisi yoLawulo lwaBasebenzi. Elinye lamapolisa lingena kwi-ofisi yakho likubuze ukuba linganakho kusini na ukwenza isicelo sekhefu. Wena nomnye umsebenzi nixoxa ngalo mba. Nobabini niyavumelana ukuba angathatha iintsuku zekefu kwixesha elithile.*

Scenario 78 / Umboniso 78

You are working in the Human Resource Management office. A person comes into your office and wants to apply for police training. You ask him a few questions, for example what his highest qualification is etc. You give him an application form to complete. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yoLawulo lwaBasebenzi. Kungena umntu kwi-ofisi yakho acele ukubhalisela ukuya kuqeqesho lwamapolisa. Umbuza imibuzo embalwa, umzekelo, Elona nqanaba liphezulu lemfundo analo, njalo njalo. Umnika ifomu yesicelo somsebenzi ukuba ayigcwalise.*

Scenario 79 / Umboniso 79

You are in charge of the Financial Administration. You feel that everyone on the staff needs to get a raise. You call in your colleague and you discuss the matter. / *Ujongene noLawulo lweziMali. Unovakalelo lokuba wonke umsebenzi kumele afumane uchatha. Ubiza ugxa wakho nize nixoxa ngalo mba.*

Scenario 80 / Umboniso 80

You are working in the administrative office. You are working in the financial department. The police building needs repairing, but you don't have the finances. You call your colleague to your office. The two of you discuss possible solutions. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Usebenza kwisebe lezimali. Isakhiwo samapolisa sifuna ukulungiswa, kodwa akunayo imali. Ubizela ugxa wakho eofisini yakho. Nobabini nixoxa ngezisombululo ezinokufumaneka kule meko.*

Scenario 81 / Umboniso 81

You are working in the administrative office. You are working in the Designated Police Officer department. A laptop was stolen. A person comes to you and ask about insurance and how it works. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Usebenza kwisebe leCandelo elithile eliMiselweyo laMapolisa. Kubiwe ilaptop. Kufika umntu kuwe akubuze nge-inshorensi nendlela esebenza ngayo.*

Scenario 82 / Umboniso 82

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the DPO section. There was an accident. You are responsible for the insurance forms. Someone comes to you and ask for your help. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicandelo iDPO. Bekukho ingozi. Nguwe ojongene neefomu ze-inshorensi. Kuza umntu kuwe acele uncedo.*

Scenario 83 / Umboniso 83

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the SAP 13 department. An accident took place and a car is towed in. You give instructions on what to do. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwisebe elibizwa ngokuba yiSAP 13. Kukho ingozi ethe yenzeka kwaye kurhuqwa imoto ingeniswa kwisikhululo senu. Unika imiyalelo malunga noko kumele kwenziwe.*

Scenario 84 / Umboniso 84

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the SAP 13 department. Armed robbery took place and a weapon stayed behind on the scene. This is used as evidence. You are in charge of the arrangements for the weapon. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwisebe elibizwa ngokuba yiSAP 13. Kuqhubeke uphango kusetyenziswa izikhali kwaye esinye sezo zikhali sisale kuloo ndawo yophango. Sisetyenziswa njengobungqina. Nguwe ojongene noko makwenziwe ngokuphathelele kwesi sikhali.*

Scenario 85 / Umboniso 85

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the SAP 13 section. A person comes in and you have to take his finger prints. You explain to him how to complete the form. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwisebe elibizwa ngokuba yiSAP 13. Kungena umntu kwaye kufuneka uthathe izigqumathelo zomnye wakhe. Uyamcacisela ngendlela yokugcwalisa ifomu.*

Scenario 86 / Umboniso 86

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the SAP 13 section. A man is free to go after his arrest. He comes into your office and he wants his cell phone. You ask him a few questions. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwisebe elibizwa ngokuba yiSAP 13. Kukhululwe indoda elivalelweni. Iza kwi-ofisi yayo icele iselula-fowuni yayo. Uyibuza imibuzo embalwa.*

Scenario 87 / Umboniso 87

You are working on the administrative office. You are in the auxiliary department and are in charge of all the needs of the people at the station. Your colleague that is working in the Human Resource Management department, come to your office and ask for stationary. The two of you have a discussion about everything that is needed. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicandelo elincedisayo kwaye nguwe ojongene nazo zonke iimfuno zabantu apha kwisikhululo senu. Ugxa wakho osebenza kwicandelo loLawulo lwaBasebenzi, ungena kwi-ofisi yakho eze kucela izinto zokubhala. Wena naye nixoxa ngazo zonke izinto azifunayo.*

Scenario 88 / Umboniso 88

You are working on the administrative office. You are in the auxiliary department and are in charge of all the needs of the people at the station. The gymnasium needs new equipment. You are dealing with a company. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicandelo elincedisayo kwaye nguwe ojongene nazo zonke iimfuno zabantu apha kwisikhululo senu. Igumbi lokuzilolonga lifuna izixhobo ezitsha. Ubonisana nenkampani ethile.*

Scenario 89 / Umboniso 89

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the auxiliary section. A person comes into your office and offers his duties. You ask him a few questions. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicandelo elincedisayo. Kuza umntu kwi-ofisi yakho acele ukukuncedisa kwimisetyenzana ethile. Umbuza imibuzo embalwa.*

Scenario 90 / Umboniso 90

You are working in the administrative office. You are the communicative department. Someone famous was murdered. The media are having an interview with you. / *Usebenza*

kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicandelo lonxibelelwano. Kukho umntu ongusaziwayo oye wagetyengwa. Oonondaba banodliwano-ndlebe nawe.

Scenario 91 / Umboniso 91

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the communication department. Armed robbery took place and the media are having an interview with you. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicandelo lonxibelelwano. Kwenzeke uphango kusetyenziswa izikhali kwaye ngoku oonondaba badlana iindlebe nawe.*

Scenario 92 / Umboniso 92

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the communication department. There was an armed robbery, hi-jacking and eventually a car accident. You are having an interview with the media. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwicandelo lonxibelelwano. Bekukho uphango kusetyenziswa izikhali, uphango lwemoto kunye nengozi yemoto. Usingathe udliwano-ndlebe noonondaba.*

Scenario 93 / Umboniso 93

You are working in the administrative office. You are in the Social Crime Prevention department. A principal phones you and ask you to talk to the children. You ask the principal exactly what he has in mind and what he wants you to talk to the children about. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yolawulo. Ukwisebe lokuThintelwa koLwaphuo-mthetho eNtlalweni. Ufumana umnxeba kwinqununu ikucele ukuba uze kuthetha nabantwana. Ubuza inqunu ukuba ingaba yintoni kanye eyicingayo kwaye ingathanda ukuba uthethe ngantoni na naba bantwana.*

License

Scenario 94 / Umboniso 94

You are working in the firearm office. A person comes in and he wants to apply for a firearm license. You explain to him how to complete the application form and you ask him a few questions. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yemipu. Kungena umntu acele ukwenza isicelo samaphepha emvume okuba nompu. Uyamcacisela ngendlela yokugcwalisa ifomu yesicelo emva koko umbuze imibuzo embalwa.*

Scenario 95 / Umboniso 95

You are working in the firearm office. A person comes in. He already has a gun and just wants to renew his license. You explain to him how to complete the forms. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yemipu. Kungena umntu. Sele enawo umpu, uze nje ngeenjongo zokuhlaziya amaphepha okuba nompu. Uyamcacisela ngendlela yokugwalisa ifomu.*

Scenario 96 / Umboniso 96

You are working in the firearm office. A person comes in. He wants to apply for further competence. You explain to him how to complete the form. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yemipu. Kungena umntu. Kungena umntu. Ufuna ukufaka isicelo sokufundela izakhono ezingentla ekusebenziseni umpu. Uyamcacisela ngendlela yokugwalisa ifomu.*

Scenario 97 / Umboniso 97

You are working in the liquor office. A person comes in and he wants to apply for a liquor license. You help him. / *Usebenza kwi-ofisi yotwala. Kungena umntu ofuna ukwenza isicelo sokuba namaphepha-mvume okuthengisa utywala. Uyamnceda.*

Fingerprints

Scenario 98 / Umboniso 98

Housebreaking took place. They have already investigated the case. You are called out the following day to take finger prints. / *Kuqhekezwe indlu. Sele belwenzile uphando lweli tyala. Kusuku olulandelayo uyabizwa ukuze uthathe izigqumathelo zeminwe.*

Scenario 99 / Umboniso 99

Somebody broke into car. After the investigation you are called out to take the fingerprints. / *Kukho umntu oqhekeze imoto. Emva kophando uyabizwa ukuba uze kuthatha imiqukumbelo yeminwe.*

Fitness

Scenario 100 / Umboniso 100

You are in charge of the fitness of the police men. You and your police men are in the gymnasium and you are busy doing fitness with them. / *Ujongene nokuzilolonga nokuba*

segazini kwamapolisa. Wena namapolisa akho nikwindawo yokuzilolonga kwaye uxakekile wenza imithambo yokuzilolonga kunye nawo.

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