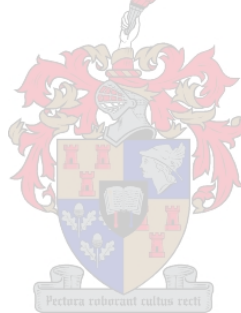


# **COMPLEXITY IN TASK-BASED COURSE DESIGN FOR SEPEDI IN POLICE INTERVIEWS**

**BY**

**PETRUS LODEWIKUS BERGH**



Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Masters of Arts at the University of Stellenbosch

**Study leader: Prof. M.W. Visser**

**DECEMBER 2007**

## DECLARATION

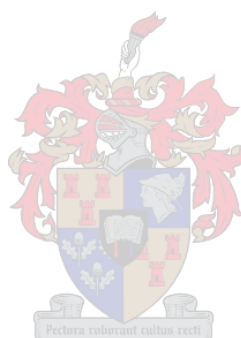
I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

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## SUMMARY

The purpose of this study is to apply existing theories with regard to second language acquisition in a South African context, in order to address specific needs of Sepedi second language learners in the South African Police Service, with specific focus on the Community Service Centre and within the guidelines of the Batho Pele principles.

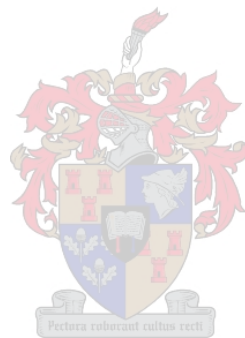
The study presents an overview on Universal Grammar and the roles it played within second language acquisition as well as the principles and parameters it presented for language development. It further analysed the acquisition processes of languages and the roles the learner plays as individual and part of a social interacting group.

Form-meaning connections utilised by learners is defined as a fundamental aspect for both first and second language acquisitions are discussed broadly in the study, inclusive of the psycholinguistic consequences as well as other input factors that may influence form-meaning connections. The specific role of language instruction is also reviewed in this study. Specific focus is placed on the roles of implicit and explicit instruction and the effectiveness thereof in second language acquisition and noticing.

Task-based theories were also evaluated, with the accent on the definition of tasks, task characteristics, task grading and other factors relating to tasks such as procedural factors. The role of tasks was further explored in second language acquisition, inclusive of the variables that need to be addressed. The definition of tasks into focussed and unfocused tasks are also scrutinized against the learner interaction in the acquisition process.

The implementation of tasks and the impact thereof on comprehension and language acquisition is also reviewed. Different models of methods to design a focussed task are discussed. The successful acquisition of a second language will also be based on the correct collation of data and the sequencing thereof in such manners to allow learners the opportunity to comprehend it as sufficiently as possible. The study further focuses on the methodology of task-based teaching and the use of communicative tasks in second language acquisition.

Finally the interviews between the community and the police officials are then analysed in respect of complexity models, against the cognitive and syntactic complexity for specific purposes as well against the genre-approach to second language teaching. The characterizing of such interviews will allow the defining and grading of tasks to ensure sound development of teaching models for second language learning.



## OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie studie is om bestaande teorieë met betrekking tot tweede taalverwerwing in 'n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks toe te pas, met die fokus om die spesifieke behoeftes van die Sepedi tweede taal sprekers in die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie te bevredig, met spesifieke aandag op die Gemeenskapdienssentrum en ook binne die riglyne van die Batho Pele beginsels.

Die studie stel 'n oorsig rondom Univerisiële Grammatika en die rol daarvan binne tweede taal verwerwing, asook die beginsels en begreping daarvan vir taalontwikkeling. Dit analyseer verder die verwerwingsproses van tale en die rol wat die leerders speel as individue en as deel van 'n sosiale interaktiewe groep.

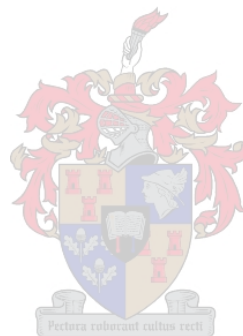
Vorm-betekenis samevoegings wat deur die leerders gebruik word, word as fundamentele aspek van beide eerste en tweede taal verwerwing beskou, en word breedvoerig in die studie beskryf, met inagneming van die psigolinguistiese gevolge asook die ander byvoegingsfaktore wat vorm-betekenis kan beïnvloed. Die spesifieke rol wat taalinstruksie vervul, word ook oorweeg in die studie. Spesifieke fokus word geplaas op die rol van implisiete en eksplisiete instruksies en die effektiwiteit daarvan in tweede taal verwerwing en kennisname.

Taak-gebaseerde teorieë is ook ge-evalueer, met die fokus op die definisie van take, taakeienskappe, taakgradering en ander faktore verwant aan take soos prosedurele faktore. Die rol van take word verder ondersoek in tweede taal verwerwing, insluitende die veranderlikes wat aangespreek moet word. Die definiëring van take in gefokusde en ongefokusde take word ook onder die vergrootglas geplaas teenoor die leerder se interaksie in die verwerwingsproses.

Die implementering van take en die impak daarvan op begrip en taal verwerwing word hersien. Verskillende modelle van metodes om gefokusde take te ontwikkel word bespreek. Die suksesvolle verwerwing van 'n tweede taal sal ook gebaseer word op die korrekte versameling van data en die plasing daarvan in sodanige volgorde dat dit die leerders die geleentheid bied om dit so suksesvol moontlik te begryp. Die studie fokus verder op die metodologie van taak-gebaseerde onderrig en

die gebruik van kommunikatiewe take in tweede taal verwerwing.

Laastens word die onderhoude tussen die gemeenskap en die polisiebeamptes analiseer aan die hand van kompleksiteitsmodelle, teen die kognitiewe en sintaktiese kompleksiteit vir spesifieke doelwitte en teenoor die genre- benadering van tweede taal onderrig. Die karakterisering van hierdie onderhoude sal toelaat vir die definiëring en gradering van take vir die effektiewe ontwikkeling van onderrigmodelle vir tweede taal studie.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 PURPOSE AND AIMS OF THIS STUDY

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa presents all its inhabitants with the right to be addressed in their mother tongue and to be served in the language of their choice. After the approval of eleven official languages within South Africa, inclusive of Sepedi, the need to address people in their own languages has become more and more of a pressing issue in the last few years.

With the first democratic election in South Africa, the South African Police Service underwent various organizational changes to ensure that the needs of all the communities it serves, are satisfied. Within the South African Police Service there is a direct interaction with the different communities serviced in the country, and one of the focus areas is to also address these needs according to the Batho Pele principles as acknowledged by the Government, and which specifically states the following:

In order to present the communities with a professional service, it is necessary to develop multilingualism within the organization. This needs to develop multilingualism has not been addressed adequately. There are very little resources of language development available to police officials to address the lack of professional conduct via utilization of different languages according to the geographic location of the communities within the primary interactional environment where the complainant and police official may meet, namely the Community Service Centre.

The aim of this study is to analyze those needs as regarded the basic Sepedi communication between the police official in the Community Service Centre and the complainants, in order to develop and provide a framework for beginners' Sepedi language programs for the specific use in this discourse environment.

### 1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As this study presents a task-based second language learning and teaching process with a specific focus on Sepedi, the theoretical approaches in this study include the following relevant issues, namely the developmental processes of Universal

Grammar, the cognitive approaches to second language learning and teaching, sociocultural aspects of second language learning and tasks within second language learning and teaching.

The first issue relates to Universal Grammar. According to Chomsky as discussed in Mitchell and Miles (1998), the principles defined in his theory with regard to the existence of Universal Grammar, are unvarying and apply to all natural languages whilst the parameters possess a limited number of open values which characterize the differences between languages. One of the main purposes of this approach is to allow the second language teachers and researchers the opportunity to formulate well-defined hypotheses on the tasks that face the learners and to allow a focused manner in which it is presented.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) further points out that research with regard to the full excess of Universal Grammar, proposed that there is no critical period for language acquisition. In this hypothesis the second language learners can reset the head-direction of parameters which differ from their first language. Indirect access to Universal Grammar via the mother tongue, is done where the second language development is based on the set principles and parameters of the first language. As stipulated by Mitchell and Miles (1998) researchers in this hypothesis also refer to second language learners using other mechanisms to acquire the target language if the principles and parameters differ from their set principles and parameters. The other mechanisms to acquire a second language, will be problem solving approaches based on the linear ordering of words. This allows for the teaching of adult police officials in the utilization of the targeted second language.

The second issue that will be dealt within the research is the different cognitive approaches to second language learning and teaching. According to Macaro (2003) there is something different about language learning. Prior to Krashen's acquisition hypotheses the language learning process was seen within the nativist paradigm. The challenge of this paradigm only commenced during the late 1980's which launched the research into the cognitive processes.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) discussed the perceptual saliency approach which is largely based on the research done by Slobin in the 1970 and 1980's. Slobin argued

that the similarity in linguistic development across children and languages itself, is because humans are programmed to perceive and organize information in certain ways. It is then this perceptual saliency which drives the learning process and not an innate language specific module.

Mitchell and Myles (1998) further state that the Operational Principles for first language acquisition are based on the claim that certain linguistic forms are more accessible than others. They continue that the Operational Principles for second language acquisition were mainly researched by Andersen during the 1980 and 1990's. These are based on the research done by Slobin but were adapted to the learning of a targeted language. They continued their research which also noted that learnability arises from second language learners to use very rigid routes in their acquisition of certain grammatical structures. Learners have to follow a developmental route associated with the specific structure prior to acquiring it. The pedagogical implications of the learnability model, namely the teachability dimension, draw precise conclusions on how certain structures should be taught.

Connectionism or parallel distributed processing compares the brain to a computer which would consist of neural network, with links between various clusters. The strength or the weakness of these connections is dependant on the activity frequency of such connections. The more active the stronger the connection. In language acquisition the learners become more sensitive to regularities and repeats in the input. Mitchell and Myles (1998) stipulate that learning becomes more successful in the repeated activation of these patterns and structures. In further research in second language learning researchers found that learning takes place as the strength of given interconnections between nodes increased as the associative patterns are repeated over time periods.

Automatization as defined by Mc Laughlin in Mitchell and Myles (1998) is where the learners of second languages process information through automatic processing. The learner will initially resort to controlled processing. Through this repeated processing, the controlled processing becomes automatic. Another information processing model is Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought model also known as Anderson's ACT model as discussed by Mitchell and Myles (1998). Research in this model also declares that practice leads to automatization. It moves declarative



knowledge to procedural knowledge. One of the definite characteristics of this model, are the three different types of memory it defines namely a working memory, a declarative long-term memory and also a procedural long-term memory. Mitchell and Miles (1998) explain that the movement from a declarative long term memory to a procedural long term memory takes place in three stages namely the cognitive stage where the description of the specific procedure is learned, the associative stage where the method for performing the skill is worked out and then finally the autonomous stage where the skilled already worked out becomes more and more rapid and then finally automatized.

With regard to the issue on sociocultural aspect within second language acquisition, Mitchell and Miles (1998) claim that researchers in this field focus the language learning within the social terms, inclusive of the interaction between the different individuals. One of the major contributors to the new focus on sociocultural perspective on language learning was the Soviet developmental psychologist, Vygotsky, who produced his research in the 1920 and 1930's. According to Mitchell and Miles (1998), Vygotsky had certain key ideas that were utilized within his research. Some of these are mediation which irrespectively of whether it is physical or symbolic, is understood as the introduction of an auxiliary device into an activity that then links the human to the world of objects or mental behavior.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) argue that information processing models were developed by cognitive psychologists which were then adapted to language processing. In this approach McLaughlin developed an information processing model. The main characteristics of this model are that humans are autonomous and active. The mind is perceived as a general-purpose and symbol-processing system. Complex behavior is seen as a composition of simpler processes and that these processes are modular. Mitchell and Miles (1998) continue that from this approach second language learning is seen as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. It will require the automatization of specific sub skills with the understanding that restructuring will take place as performance is increased.

Researchers such as VanPatten (2004) have been interested in the field of second language learning with a specific focus on form-meaning connection for many years. In order to understand the process, form is defined as a surface feature of language



such as lexemes, verbal inflections, nominal inflections, adjective inflections, functors and nominal derivational inflections. Meaning on the other hand within the context of surface features is defined as concrete semantic referential meaning, displaced or abstract semantic meaning, sociolinguistic meaning and pragmatic meaning. According to VanPatten (2004) form-meaning connections then is therefore a situation in which form reflects a type of semantic referential meaning. This however does not only reflect the simplistic definition as the form can also encode more than one meaning in the same or different contexts, and different forms can encode the same semantic meaning. The form-meaning connections can be defined as the connections between second language form and its second language meaning.

Regarding the issue on tasks itself within the second language acquisition and teaching, the following was analyzed. Nunan (2003) examined task-based language teaching, arguing that the notion 'task' has become a very important element in language acquisition. According to Nunan (2003) the definition on pedagogical tasks entails that it forms a part of the classroom work that involves the 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 rather than manipulating form. Nunan (2003) suggests that one of the more important conceptual focuses of task-based language is the utilization of experiential learning. This process takes the learners own experiences as the point of the departure in the learning process and is further developed through engagement in a sequence of tasks.

In order to allow the second language learners the opportunity to achieve fluency in the target language, it will be necessary to transform real world tasks into pedagogical tasks, and place it either as rehearsal or activation tasks. Nunan (2003) further claims that the successful development of task-based learning will involve the defining of the specific task components. He states that the three minimum specifications are the goals, the input and the procedure.

Other factors that need to be addressed are the procedural factors, namely the operations the learners need to perform on input data. Some of these factors are the relevance to the learner, the complexity of the instructions, the amount of context provided prior to the task, the processibility of language of the task to the learner, the

amount of help available to the learner, the degree of grammatical complexity required, the time available to the learner to perform the task and the follow-up on the performed task.

Another factor that required attention is, according to Ellis (2003) the perspective from which the task is viewed is dependant from where the task is perceived, namely the designer (teacher or researcher) or the participant's point of view. The perspective has an influence of the attention given too either focus-on-meaning or focus-on-form usage of the language. From the perspective of the teacher a task is a work plan that is intended to engage the learner in meaning-focused language use, as stated by Ellis (2003). The authenticity of a task is based on whether such a task corresponds to a real world activity which occurs in our daily lives. Although some methods are used in second language learning that cannot relate directly to real world activities such as telling a story from a set of pictures, it does relate in a partial relationship to the real world.

Ellis (2003) determined that the inclusion of focus on form into a task-based syllabus can be achieved in two ways, either by means of tasks designed to focus attention on specific properties of the code, or by incorporating a focus on form methodology into the performance of linguistically unfocused tasks. The incorporation of a linguistic focus into a task-based syllabus raises once more the issue with regard to selection and sequencing. Ellis (2003) also argues that in order to be successful the focus needs to be compatible to interlanguage development. The designing of a task-based syllabus with the goal to enable learners to develop implicit knowledge of a targeted feature may seem pointless, but can still be effective if it focuses on a cluster of features as determined by Skehan and as discussed in Ellis (2003). One method utilized to this extent is the checklist of items.

Taking tasks into the teaching processes of the targeted language VanPatten (2002) points out that there is one common characteristic in language teaching and that is grammar instruction. This grammar instruction tends to follow a scheme where materials first present explicit information to learners about how a structure or set of forms work in the second language, also defined as the explanation phase. Hereafter follow certain mechanical activities or practice such as substitution, transformation or "fill-in-the blanks" exercises. Following these activities, allow

practices where learners may use the new structures or forms to express meaning. A new approach to grammar instruction called Processing Instruction was developed by VanPatten, where he stated that the first step to acquire a new language is the processing of input.

Lastly tasks are utilized within the genre-based teaching, where according to Basturkman the great concern is to identify the genres that students will use in the target situation and then assist learners to deconstruct them in order to understand how they are structured and how the structure relates to the objectives of the target group, what content the genres contain and what linguistic devices and language use are typical in them. Genres as previously indicated are specific to the communities in which they occur. Dependent on the group, the function and purpose in society will differ with the direct implication on the genres that arise in the group. Genre-based teaching is therefore best suited for learners with very similar needs who are all targeting similar workplaces or the same profession.

### **1.3 ORGANIZATION OF STUDY**

Chapter Two provides a thorough review of the theoretical issues that were raised in section 1.2. Chapter Three also provides a thorough analysis of the different dialogues (interviews) conducted in this research, measured against certain principles and features.

Provided in Chapter Two, is a review of the major theoretical issues regarding Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Section 2.2 reflects on the development and history of Universal Grammar as well as the role that it played within language acquisition. In section 2.3 the cognitive approaches to second language learning and teaching are further discussed with the focus on previous research and the developed operational principles for second language learning.

In section 2.4 the role of sociocultural perspectives on language acquisition is reviewed, taking into account the research of Vygotsky. The contextualizing of the learning process of the individual learners is evaluated. Form-meaning connections and the psycho-linguistic influences in second language acquisition is debated in section 2.5. As VanPatten indicated that the establishment of form-meaning

connections is a fundamental aspect of both first and second language acquisition.

In section 2.6 language instruction is evaluated with a specific focus on the effects of instruction and the role of implicit and explicit instruction to that account. The theories of Doughty, Krashen and Long, are further reviewed with regard to instruction. The importance of these theories is the overall effectiveness of instruction in comparison with exposure, relative effectiveness of implicit and explicit types of instructions and the relative effectiveness of attention to forms, meaning and form-meaning connections.

Section 2.7 focuses on task-based theory. The research of Nunan is utilized as basis for the analysis, with a specific focus on the characteristics of tasks, the grading of tasks as well as additional factors that can affect language acquisition. Section 2.8 reflects on tasks in second language acquisition with a specific focus on focused and unfocused tasks as well as the learner interaction in second language acquisition.

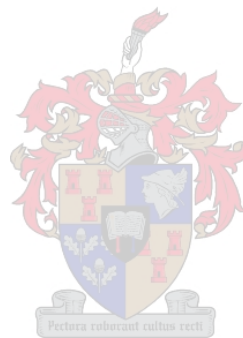
Section 2.9 reflects on the method of implementation of tasks, the task design, the task-based language course design as well as the methodology used in task-based teaching. The research done on pedagogical tasks is reviewed as well as the use of chunks of language within SLA.

Section 2.10 refers to studies within language classrooms, whilst section 2.11 entails the pedagogical norms needed and utilized within second language acquisition and teaching. The research into genres as debated by Basturkman as well as Henry and Roseberry with regard to SLA is stipulated in section 2.12.

In Chapter 3, the specific dialogues utilized for the analysis are evaluated against the cognitive complexity as determined through the Dimensions of Complexity Model developed by Robinson, to clearly indicate in which dimension of the model the specific segment of the dialogue is placed when measured against the resource-dispersing or resource-directing complexity characteristics.

A further analysis is also done in Chapter 3 utilizing the same dialogues but evaluated against the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit, to indicate whether specific segments of the dialogues are characterized by simple or complex clauses.

There exists a dire need to develop purposefully focused course models for teaching second languages in specific environments. The acquisition of a second language that forms the native language of the majority of the people in the communities served will lead to an enhanced service delivery, enhanced communicative interaction, trust and the support of the Batho Pele principles. It is therefore imperative that the learners needs' are identified and addressed through the design of an effective course syllabus.



## CHAPTER 2

### THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The interest in the processes involved in the acquisition of second languages (L2) was initiated during the 1970's. The basis of the research is formed around the Universal Grammar and its role in second language acquisition (SLA). Through this study further focus will be placed on the claims regarding the universal set of principles and parameters that all languages have and which may have an effect on the development of language and ultimately also on the second language learner.

There is a focused move from research on the nature of language itself, to the learning processes involved in second language acquisition (SLA), inclusive of the operational principles that affect the second language (L2) learners. This was due to the greater learning abilities of the second language (L2) learners. The acquisition processes are further defined by various researchers such as Mitchell and Miles, which include specific learning strategies and the acquisition and development of interlanguage (IL). An important aspect that researchers determined was that language is acquired in a socially interactive environment, and specific perspectives within this field were further developed. Psycholinguistic consequences were also evaluated against the acquisition process where the learner interaction may determine the extent of SLA.

Other researchers studied the field of second language acquisition (SLA) with a specific focus on form-meaning connections, as well as focus on form, which was motivated by Long's Interaction hypothesis. VanPatten defined form-meaning connections as the fundamental aspect of both first and second language acquisition.

Following research on the broad regarding the acquisition of a second language, further studies were initiated to evaluate the importance of the task itself as well as task-based language teaching and task-based instructions. Additional to this research and of importance to the teachers of second languages are the task design and task-based language course design to ensure success as well as the role it plays

within specific environments such as the classroom and other genres.

The aim of this chapter is to provide a broad perspective on the major issues in theoretical and cognitive approaches to second language acquisition and teaching. This perspective serves as a sound theoretical foundation, and a point of departure for exploring specific purpose course design for Sepedi second language teaching in Chapter 3 of this study.

## **2.2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR**

### **2.2.1 Development of Universal Grammar Theory**

Within the research of Second language acquisition (SLA) the focus is on the characterization of what the language looks like, and then present reasons for the way it looks. The basis of this research is initiated from Universal Grammar as it was formulated by Noam Chomsky. Mitchell and Miles (1998) point out that Universal Grammar composes out of knowledge of language and is the mental representation of language as it is stored in the users' minds, and although many languages have certain common grounds there are also vast differences between languages. The Universal Grammar approach claims that all languages have a universal set of principles and parameters which determine the development of language. According to Chomsky, as discussed in Mitchell and Miles (1998), the principles defined in his theory are unvarying and apply to all natural languages whilst the parameters possess a limited number of open values which characterize the differences between languages. One of the main purposes of this approach is to allow the second language teachers and researchers the opportunity to formulate well-defined hypotheses on the tasks that face the learner and to allow a focused manner in which it is presented.

According to Mitchell and Miles (1998), Chomsky determined that first language learners, namely children, would not be in a position to acquire the ability to use the language if they do not have access to an innate language faculty. In the approach to second language learning the same argument can be utilized, although their needs differ from that of a first language learner. Mitchell and Miles (1998) state that different theoretical points of view exist with regard to the utilization of Universal



Grammar by second language learners. These points entail that (i) second language (L2) learners use Universal Grammar in the same way as children do; (ii) they use it via their first language; (iii) no use of the Universal Grammar but only through general problem solving activities; and (iv) only access to part of the Universal Grammar.

Research supporting the view that there is no access to Universal Grammar, clearly supports the view that there is a critical period of language acquisition and that second language learners have exceeded that period and have to make use of other learning mechanisms to acquire the language as stipulated by Mitchell and Miles (1998). One of the most common observations of this hypothesis is that immigrant children acquire the second language (new country language) with much more ease than the adults.

### **2.2.2 The role of Universal Grammar**

Mitchell and Miles (1998) point out that research with regard to the full access to Universal Grammar proposed that there is no critical period for language acquisition. In this hypothesis the second language learners can reset the head-direction of parameters which differ from their first language. Indirect access to Universal Grammar via the mother tongue is done where the second language development is done on the set principles and parameters of the first language. Mitchell and Miles (1998) posit that researchers in this hypothesis also refer to second language learners using other mechanisms to acquire the target language if the principles and parameters differ from their set principles and parameters. The other mechanisms to acquire the second language will be problem-solving approaches based on the linear ordering of words.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) further propose that researchers supporting the partial access to Universal Grammar attempted to merge contradicting factors about SLA. According to these research second language learners do not develop “wild” grammar, but rather a grammar supported through Universal Grammar. Furthermore learners seem to reset certain principles and parameters without difficulty, whilst others are done with more effort and some are not even successfully.

Another factor that has played an important role in second language learning and



within the framework of Universal Grammar are functional categories, as stated by Mitchell and Miles (1998). Functional categories are those “function” words such as determiners, complementizers or grammatical morphemes. Claims indicate that the function words also have phrases attached to them, with the functional word as the head of the phrase. The structure of these functional phrases is similar to that of lexical phrases.

### **2.2.3 Principles and parameters of Universal Grammar**

As discussed above, Mitchell and Miles (1998) state that Universal Grammar exists out of principles and parameters, which results in the fact that second language learning is highly constrained. An example is the principle that language is organized in a specific manner and that it depends on the structural relationships between the different elements in the sentence, therefore it is structure-dependant. All languages are structure dependant to the extent that it consists out of a Noun and Verb phrase as a minimum requirement.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) hold the view that parameters, on the other hand, determine the ways in which languages will differ. The head parameters specify where the head of the sentence is in relation to the rest of the sentence or phrase. Second language learners will understand all phrases within the specific language that they are busy learning, consist of specific parameters and that they will be consistently ordered in relation to the head of the specific phrase. Further research into Universal Grammar lead to the Minimalist Programme where Chomsky as discussed in Mitchell and Miles (1998) has proposed principles that are more powerful and abstract in their effects on language knowledge. Parameters will any not be linked to structural parts of the grammar but rather to the lexicon itself. The abstract principles of second language learning have already been specified and the task of the learner will be to acquire the vocabulary of the language around them.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) state that Universal Grammar research crucially relates to questions about first language acquisition of children. Complicating the possibility of the utilization of Universal Grammar in SLA, is the fact that the learners are cognitively matured; the learners already mastered one language and they have different motivations for learning the second language. The presence of a mother

tongue language or first language has a direct influence on the second language learning process. If the same argument is followed in terms of structure dependant language principle for second language acquisition (SLA) and the head parameter, research has indicated that second language learners have access to universal Grammar in the same way as children in first language learning do.

## **2.3 THE RESEARCH ON COGNITIVE APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING**

### **2.3.1 Approaches to Universal Grammar**

According to Macaro (2003) there is something different about language learning than for instance learning how to drive a vehicle. Prior to Krashen's acquisition hypotheses the language learning process was seen within the nativist paradigm. The challenge of this paradigm only commenced during the late 1980's which launched the research into the cognitive processes.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) argue that in the Universal Grammar approach above researchers focused their research on the language itself while in the cognitive research the focus remains on the learning process. Their focus is on the processes that the brain follows in learning anything new. Cognitive researchers are not only interested in the competence but also the performance of second language learners. Within this body of research different approaches to cognitive development emerged.

According to Mitchell and Miles (1998) the perceptual saliency approach is largely based on the research done by Slobin in the 1970 and 1980's. He argued that the similarity in linguistic development across children and languages is because humans are programmed to perceive and organize information in certain ways. It is then rather the perceptual saliency which drives the learning process and not an innate language specific module. From this research he has developed certain principles which guide second language learners in processing the target language.

### **2.3.2 Operational principles for language acquisition**

Mitchell and Miles (1998) state that the Operational Principles for first language acquisition are based on the claim that certain linguistic forms are more accessible

than others. The initial principles for this development were the following:

- Principle A Pay attention to the ends of words
- Principle B There are linguistic elements which encode relations between words
- Principle C Avoid exceptions
- Principle D Underlying semantic relations should be marked overtly and clearly
- Principle E The use of grammatical markers should make semantic sense

From this set of principles a further five language acquisition universals were predicted. The research in this field however led to further development of additional principles.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) point out that the Operational Principles for second language acquisition were mainly researched by Andersen during the 1980 and 1990's. These are based on the research done by Slobin but were adapted to the learning of a targeted language. The principles developed are the following:

- 1 The one-to-one principle which posits that an interlanguage system should be constructed in such a way that an intended underlying meaning is expressed with one clear invariant surface form.
- 2 The multi-functionality principle, which, if there is clear evidence in the input that more than one form marks the meaning conveyed by only one form in the interlanguage, is necessary to discover the distribution and additional meaning of the new form.
- 3 The principle of formal determinism relates to the view that the form-meaning relationship is clearly and uniformly encoded in the input leading to the earlier discovery by the learner than other form-meaning relationships, and that the learner will incorporate it more constantly within the interlanguage system.
- 4 The principle of distributional bias, meaning that dependant on the bias of the distribution of certain factors leading to the perception that it only appears in specific environments, will lead to the restricted utilization of such factors in the same environment when acquired.
- 5 The relevance principle posits that if two or more functors apply to a content word, the learner places them so that the more relevant meaning the functor is to the meaning of the content word, the closer it is placed to the content word.

- 6 The transfer too somewhere principles state that a grammatical form or structure will occur consistently and to a significant extent in the interlanguage as a result of transfer if natural acquisitional principles are consistent with the first language structure or if there already exists the potential for generalization from the input to produce the same form or structure in the second language.
- 7 The relexification principle relates to the use of the learners' native language structure with lexical items from the second language if they cannot perceive the structural patterns used by the language they are trying to acquire.

### **2.3.3 Acquisition processes of languages**

Mitchell and Miles (1998) maintain that further research also noted that learnability arises from second language learners to use very rigid routes in their acquisition of certain grammatical structures. Learners have to follow a developmental route associated with the specific structure prior to acquiring it. The pedagogical implications of the learnability model, namely the teachability dimension, draw precise conclusions on how certain structures should be taught. Teachers need to determine the specific stages of development to ensure successful acquisition by learners.

According to Mitchell and Miles, Connectionism or parallel distributed processing compares the brain to a computer which would consist of neural network, with links between various clusters. The strength or the weakness of these connections is dependant on the activity frequency of such connections. The more active the stronger the connection. In language acquisition the learners become more sensitive to regularities and repeats in the input. Mitchell and Miles (1998) stipulate that learning becomes more successful in the repeated activation of these patterns and structures. In further research in second language learning researchers found that learning takes place as the strength of given interconnections between nodes increased as the associative patterns are repeated over time periods.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) argue that information processing models were developed by cognitive psychologists which were then adapted to language processing. They refer to McLaughlin, who developed an information processing model. The main characteristics of this model are that humans are autonomous and active. The mind

is perceived as a general-purpose and symbol-processing system. Complex behavior is seen as a composition of simpler processes and that these processes are modular. Mitchell and Miles (1998) continue that from this approach second language learning is seen as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. It will require the automatization of specific sub skills with the understanding that restructuring will take place as performance is increased.

Automatization as defined by Mc Laughlin in Mitchell and Miles, is where the learner of second languages process information through automatic processing. The learner will initially resort to controlled processing. Through this repeated processing, the controlled processing becomes automatic. Learning can then be defined as the movement from controlled to automatic processing through repetition. This continuous movement from controlled processing to automatic processing then further leads to the restructuring of the linguistic system of the second language learners.

Another information processing model is Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought model also known as Anderson's ACT model as discussed by Mitchell and Miles. Research in this model also declares that practice leads to automatization. It moves declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge. One of the definite characteristics of this model, are the three different types of memory it defines, namely a working memory, a declarative long-term memory and lastly a procedural long-term memory. Mitchell and Miles (1998) explain that the movement from a declarative long term memory to a procedural long term memory takes place in three stages namely the cognitive stage where the description of the specific procedure is learned, the associative stage where the method for performing the skill is worked out, and then finally the autonomous stage where the skilled already worked out becomes more and more rapid and then finally automatized.

#### **2.3.4 Development of learning strategies**

From the different information processing models specific learning strategies were developed in order to make the language learning process as effective as possible as depicted by Mitchell and Miles. These strategies have to be learned in a similar fashion than that of complex cognitive skills. If learning strategies are seen as skills it

can be learned and if it is automatized it will take up less working-memory space which can be utilized by other aspects of learning. Learning strategies must be seen as active and dynamic processes in which learners make use of different methods of processing.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) refer to Towell and Hawkins (1994), who utilized Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought model in their overall model of second language learning with specific reference to fluency development. They used the model to indicate the use of grammatical knowledge which transform into fluent performance in second language through repetition. Mitchell and Miles (1998) further state that this research has derived to certain focus areas namely that internally-derived hypotheses about second language structure will give rise to production stored in the procedural memory, utilized initially in associative form but later automatically. Form-function pairs which have been learned as routines can be stored in the procedural memory at associative level, and can finally be stored as automatic processes when all stages of analysis and re-analysis have been completed.

According to Mitchell and Miles communication strategies in second language learning are those strategies utilized by second language learners who are not fluent to overcome specific communicative problems. Initial research in this field was focused on descriptive issues and problem solving. Later research in this field led researchers to believe that communication strategies are more than problem solving by negotiation meaning but also includes conversational analysis or sociolinguistic. The identification of communication strategies depends on two different approaches' namely explicit strategy markers such as increased hesitation or meta linguist comments and then complemented by retrospective protocols.

### **2.3.5 Functional perspectives on second language learning**

Mitchell and Miles (1998) state that within the native language, the researchers were very interested in determining the meaning which the children wanted to convey and the possible relationship between development in the children's messages and the developments in the formal systems by which they are expressed. In the research of Budwig (1995), as discussed by Mitchell and Miles (1998), four main orientations

between form and function in child language were defined. These orientations are the cognitive orientation, which supports the existence of a basic child grammar. The textual orientation focuses on the issue of the central importance to which particular linguistic devices are deployed. The social orientation is interested in relationships between the development of the child's formal language system and aspects of their social world. The final orientation is the multi-functional orientation where the focus is on the integrated study of the different influences on the child and the language development.

Some of the earlier research to focus on second language learning, such as Givón (1979), as discussed by Mitchell and Miles (1998), identified differences between pragmatic and syntactic modes of expression. Givón stated that both informal and learner speeches convey meaning through relative high reliance on context, while formal language relies on explicit language coding with less dependence on contextual meaning. Givón argued that the two different types are part of the continuum, rather than definite categories.

Mitchell and Miles argue that other researchers took different approaches, such as Huebner (1983) who took the longitudinal approach to form-to-function analysis, which provided evidence that early learner utterances may be characterized by topic-comments organization. Further findings in this research led to the apparent variability due to gradual systematic shifts in function for particular forms.

Mitchell and Miles point out that whereas previous researchers that focused on form-to-function did it in small scale, but the European Science Foundation Project initiated a study on Second language acquisition (SLA) by adult migrants. The aim of this research was to produce a longitudinal account of the rate and route of naturalistic interlanguage development among adult second language learners. Mitchell and Miles (1998) maintain that from the research three developmental levels in the basic organization of learners' utterances could be identified namely nominal utterance organization; infinite utterance organization; and finally finite utterance organization. Another result from the research was that irrespective of the language background, all second language learners developed a basic variety of structuring their utterances. Some learners at this point entered into fossilization whilst others progressed beyond the basic variety to the finite utterances with the inclusion of verb



inflections

Mitchell and Miles conclude that all functional researchers insist on the gradual nature of interlanguage development, where learners are actively involved in one part of the process at any given time. The treatment of input and interaction in functional research remain inconsistent.

### **2.3.6 Input and Interaction in second language learning**

Mitchell and Miles (1998) state that within this research field the language learner is seen in a more social context and the specific interactions in which the learner is engaged. These interactions should not be seen as a prime source of target language input but also the negotiation of meaning.

According to Mitchell and Miles, input and interaction in first language learning is defined by various characteristics such as “baby talk” or where special speech styles are utilized in different environments. Child directed speech facilitated language acquisition through various different ways such as managing attention; improving intelligibility; providing feedback and encouraging conversational participation.

Research into the input in second language learning was led by Krashen, as discussed by Mitchell and Miles (1998), who developed the Input Hypothesis, which claims that exposure to comprehensible input is both necessary and sufficient for second language learning to take place. Krashen stated that input can be transformed to intake in three stages, namely understanding the higher level of second language form ( $L2 + I$ ) resulting in the fact that the meaning thereof is understood; noticing the gap between the current interlanguage (IL) position and the desired second language form ( $L2 + I$ ); and then the reappearance with minimal frequency of the desired second language form ( $L2 + I$ ).

In relation to the research completed on the input hypothesis, Mitchell and Miles (1998) discuss the research by Long, who proposed an extension on Krashen's theory and defined it as Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996). In this research it was clear that collaborative efforts were made between the fluent second language speakers and the less fluent speakers to maximize their comprehension and to negotiate their way through difficult positions. Further studies in this field have given



evidence of which type of tasks are likely to promote extensive negotiation of meaning.

Mitchell and Miles (1998) state that Pica was one of the first researchers to focus the link on interaction and comprehension. In the research done it was again clear that learners allowed to negotiate meaning were more successful in their tasks. Opportunities by the learners to interact with the teacher or interlocutor have greater success in achieving their tasks than learners not exposed to interaction.

According to Mitchell and Miles (1998), they refer to Braidı (1995), who in contrast to previous researchers, did not only focus research on analysis functional aspects of interaction but also balanced her research to grammatical aspects. Braidı's research also focused on the possibilities to via Universal Grammar, predicts the kind of utterance which may act as triggers for the setting of certain parameters. Mitchell and Miles (1998) further state that in this interactional research the focus is to be on the availability of such triggers within Universal Grammar in negotiated input. The focus should be on the accessibility of such triggers to the learner and also how the variability of interactional input may affect the acquisition of these trigger structures.

Mitchell and Miles argue that the existence and usability of negative evidence in child directed speech has become important on first language acquisition. The possible role of negative evidence in second language learning was derived from classroom situations. In this sense the provisioning of explicit negative evidence contributed to an increased accuracy in learners' language production, although other methods such as recasts done by teachers have less positive impact on the learners' attending to corrections.

Recent research in the interaction hypothesis field incorporated the idea that learners' processing capabilities and degree of attention to form, mediate the extent to which second language input in the form of environmental language actually becomes second language intake and part of the learners' developing second language system. Researchers such as Schmidt (1990), as discussed by Mitchell and Miles proposed that learners need to pay attention to language form to acquire it. The term utilized by the researcher to ensure that a learner is paying attention is noticing or registering a simple occurrence. Noticing is the necessary and sufficient

condition for the conversion of input to intake, with the view that more noticing leads to more intake.

## **2.4 SOCIOCULTURAL PERSPECTIVES ON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING**

### **2.4.1 Background to social interaction within language acquisition**

Mitchell and Myles (1998) claim that researchers in this field focus on the language learning within the social terms, inclusively of the interaction between the different individuals. One of the major contributors to the new focus on sociocultural perspective on language learning was the Soviet developmental psychologist, Vygotsky, who produced his research in the 1920 and 1930's.

According to Mitchell and Myles, Vygotsky had certain key ideas that were utilized within his research. Some of these are mediation which irrespectively of whether it is physical or symbolic, is understood as the introduction of an auxiliary device into an activity that then links the human to the world of objects or mental behavior. These devices allowed for paying attention, logical problem solving planning and evaluation as well as other actions. One of the major tools then to be utilized by humans will therefore be the language.

Mitchell and Myles hold the view that self-regulation will occur within mature, skilled individuals who are capable of autonomous functioning, but when functioning is dependant on the guidance of other more skilled individuals it is defined as other-regulation, which will mostly be mediated by language. The role of supportive dialogue by the more skilled individual to the lesser developed person to allow the growth to such an extent that the previously lesser skilled individual can act autonomously is defined as scaffolding. Mitchell and Myles maintain that the area where the most successful learning takes place is called the Zone of Proximal Development, this is the specific timing where the learner is not yet capable to function autonomously, but can achieve the desired outcome, given the relevant scaffolded assistance by the more skilled individual or teacher.

The learning processes of individuals are categorized in different processes, according to Mitchell and Myles (1998). The local contextualized learning process of an individual is defined as microgenesis. Young children also develop the function to

have private speech where the children will articulate specific situations. This private speech further develops in inner speech where the previous audible articulation is now done without any external or audible articulation. This process is where the novice learns new concepts through social interaction with an expert. The learning processes that the individual infant passes through are defined as ontogenesis and the learning process through which generations develop are called phylogenesis. Mitchell and Miles state that one of the further results from research in the sociocultural theory was the development of the activity theory, which comprises a series of proposals for conceptualizing the social context in which the learning takes place.

#### **2.4.2 Application of sociocultural theories on second language learning**

Mitchell and Miles proposed that within the various research done with regard to second language learning the utilization of private speech has been regularly noted. This private speech is reflected at different levels of proficiency, clearly indicating the systematic relationship between the use of private speech to regulate task performances and the degree of task difficulty. This is seen as an intra-personal process by learners to self-regulate their efforts to perform well. According to Mitchell and Miles it was defined within further studies that learners will use their language abilities and resources of first and second languages either privately or in collaboration with the group to solve the posed problems. Learners are therefore seen as instrumental in their own development within the second language learning process.

### **2.5 FORM-MEANING CONNECTIONS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION**

#### **2.5.1 Introduction into form-connection research**

Researchers such as VanPatten (2004) have been interested in the field of second language learning with specific emphasis on form-meaning connection. In order to understand the process, form is defined as a surface feature of language such as lexemes, verbal inflections, nominal inflections, adjective inflections, functors and nominal derivational inflections. Meaning on the other hand within the context of surface features is defined as concrete semantic referential meaning, displaced or

abstract semantic meaning, sociolinguistic meaning and pragmatic meaning. According to VanPatten form-meaning connections therefore relate to a situation in which form reflects a type of semantic referential meaning. This however does not only reflect the simplistic definition as the form can also encode more than one meaning in the same or different contexts, and different forms can encode the same semantic meaning. The form-meaning connections can be defined as the connections between second language form and its second language meaning.

VanPatten further argues that the establishment of form-meaning connections is a fundamental aspect of both first and second language acquisition. All second language learners strive for meaning first in an effort to communicate and interact socially. Therefore, lexical acquisition is preferred prior to grammatical acquisition. Form-meaning connection development goes beyond lexical learning as the acquisition of important subsystems in interlanguage grammar involves relationships between forms, their meanings and how the connection is established.

VanPatten argues that a form-meaning connection is established when a learner by some means cognitively registers a form, a meaning and the fact that the form in some manner encodes that meaning. The specific meaning will be accessed from either a semantic, conceptual or functional environment. This meaning will be received from existing knowledge to process a new form, or from the surrounding linguistic and social context utilized by the learner. It must be noted that the new initial form-meaning connections developed maybe located on any point of various continua and may be partial to complete. VanPatten holds the view that the complete connection is the result of the learner connecting the whole of a new form to its meaning or a new form to the whole of its meaning. Such connections may initially seem weak resulting in the fading of such connection if not strengthened. Should the connection be repeated it will be strengthened and can then be characterized as robust. There are also no guarantees that the form-meaning connection is target-like where the specific form result in a partial or imperfect meaning.

Larsen-Freeman (2004) holds the view that research into form-meaning connections is very broad but still reflects certain limitations. Language is a very complex system which will result in the fact that the learning process should be as complex as well. From the various researchers it is clear that the learning process of a second

language is done through various and different approaches. According to Larsen-Freeman the learner has to follow three stages within acquiring a form and that is, how it is formed, what it means and when or why to use the specific form. Form-meaning connection research focuses on the association between form and its meaning.

Larsen-Freeman further proposes that in order to understand how learners will associate meaning with form it is essential to understand what processes are followed to develop the form-meaning connections such as restructuring, input processing, strengthening, accommodation, associative mapping and also noticing. Understanding these processes will allow the researcher to facilitate learners to reach and understand the connections. An additional benefit of form-meaning connection and specific processes within it, is the Input Processing theory of VanPatten, which allows for the direction of the learners' attention to achieve the target.

According to Larsen-Freeman there are currently different views on the acquisition of mental competence, and they differ in nature. Should the nature of the enterprise (the linguistic grounds) shift it will result in the shifting of the theoretical parameters of such research. The learners' factors should also be taken into consideration in the form-meaning connections which are not only knowledge of the native and second language but also other factors such as the learners' agency.

### **2.5.2 Psycholinguistic influences in Second Language Acquisition**

VanPatten (2004) also maintains that there are always psycholinguistic consequences on an initial form-meaning connection and repeated exposure to the specific forms offer various possibilities with regard to robustness, completeness and target-likeness. If the initial form-meaning connection is incomplete subsequent encounters may lead to the filling in of the additional elements to reach a complete connection. Should there be multiple encounters it may lead to the expansion of the semantic boundaries of the word. It may also add to the strength of the connection increasing the long term retention of the connection or even becomes more complex. VanPatten (2004) further states that if the connection is in competition with existing form-meaning connections it may even lead to restructuring of existing connections. This restructuring may have a further impact on the lexical component of the

developing interlanguage. As soon as a connection is developed into the interlanguage, it is accessible by the learner for comprehension and output. Each time the connection is accessed it is strengthened.

VanPatten (2004) proposes that the acquisition of form-meaning connection can be affected by the learner as well as the input received. The learner factors involved will include the learner's individual knowledge or even the group knowledge. One of the most influential factors for learners is the influence of first language or other knowledge and how it affects the learning of the second language. Native language procedures may influence the processing of second language output, or even align the encoding of semantic components of events to the same system as for the native language. It is even determined that where the second language forms differ from the native language forms it may result in the inability to develop form-meaning connections.

Taking the above-mentioned into consideration, VanPatten argues that it is necessary to view what elements are available that are similar in the native and second language processes. These similarities are defined as universal processing mechanisms and can either support or fail the development of form-meaning connections. Some of the universal mechanisms relate to the forms themselves and that connections are rather developed for salient forms, their inherent characteristics, frequency or position, than for non salient forms. VanPatten further proposes that another universal is the one-to-one principle which indicates that one form is initially mapped to one single meaning. Therefore, additional meanings may be delayed till further development. The developmental stage of the second language learner also has a direct effect on the development of specific structures. Learners in the earlier stages of development, focus on forms and part of forms that are essential for communication, whilst skilled learners may make use of linguistic context to develop connections.

### **2.5.3 Influences of input and output factors**

According to VanPatten (2004) the influence of input factors also has a direct bearing on the development of form-meaning connections. The effect of input frequency has been researched to large extent and the focus with regard to the form-meaning

connection should be if frequency has an effect on the initial development of such connection. The increased frequency of a specific form may as stated by VanPatten however also fail should the learner not be acceptable to new forms, or if the form is not salient. It may also take either less or more repetitions of a specific form for a learner to significantly grasp such new form. Other elements also very important and inherent to the form itself may also affect form-meaning connections, such as the nature of the second language form with a specific focus on form complexity and form salience.

VanPatten argues that in order to clearly define input and output, it is also necessary to revisit the term acquisition. In terms of Second language acquisition (SLA) it means the development of some underlying competence on which skills in language use depend. Input processing however relates to the formation of initial form-meaning connections and parsing, the method how second language learners assign syntactic categories to words they comprehend and to what kind of syntactic representation they strive in comprehension. The two sub-processes regarding input must be evaluated as factors with the ability to influence each other, taking into consideration that both have to do with the ability of the learner to match form and meaning as stated by VanPatten. The result of input is the development of a linguistic data bank to be available for further processing by the learner.

VanPatten further stated that two other factors to be recognized, yet not inclusive to input, are accommodation and restructuring. The first aspect reflects on the partial or complete internalizing of a new schema by the learner into the conceptual system. Restructuring on the other hand refers to the possible effects that may occur after a new form has been accommodated. Consequences as a result of restructuring, can be found in either syntax or lexical aspects of language.

According to VanPatten input is the primary initial ingredient for the development of competence. VanPatten utilizes both the Universal Grammar and Connectionist theories to indicate that input has to play a significant role in the creation of a linguistic system, although their approach is completely different. Irrespective the different theories, it is a clear fact that the bulk of vocabulary that the learner has to acquire in second language learning is done through interaction with input such as reading and interacting with a teacher.



Larsen-Freeman and Long, as discussed in VanPatten, argue that there are no cases of successful learners who have not been exposed to extensive input, and a common factor is that unsuccessful learners are restricted to input. From the above-mentioned it is clear that Second language acquisition (SLA) is input dependant. VanPatten also states that in opposition to the role of input, there is also the specific role of output in SLA. Although it does have an effect on certain factors such as performance, fluency and accuracy or even vocabulary acquisition, it does not have a direct link to the theory that acquisition is output dependant.

## **2.6 LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION**

### **2.6.1 Effects of instruction on learning a second language**

Doughty (2004) claims that researchers in second language acquisition (SLA) are not in agreement on the benefits of instructional intervention in the learning processes of a second language. Different theories exist regarding SLA. These theories include the non-interventionist argument, where the focus is solely on the learner alone. In terms of this argument, it is posited that the only benefit of a classroom environment is to provide comprehensible input that might not have been available to the learner outside of the said environment. Doughty further states that the noninterference process is further supported by Krashen's Input Hypothesis Theory in that the potential relationship between learned and acquired knowledge is seen in the fact that only the acquired knowledge can be utilized in the spontaneous language use, and even that there is no interface between the two types of knowledge.

Long (1983), as discussed by Doughty (2004), raised the initial concern as to what role second language instruction has in acquisition. Although Long did conclude the research that second language instruction is needed for successful instruction, there were fundamental issues with the research. Doughty also argues that Long (1988) further researched the aspect but within the four operationalized domains of SLA, namely processes, sequences, rate and the level of attainment. Evidence in the four domains formed the basis of the assumption that the correct instruction for second language is effective. This led to further focus on what type of instruction is needed to ensure sound and effective SLA?



Doughty proposes that in the initial stages the overly general instruction models comparing the input, exposure and the instructional conditions of learners had no direct link to the learning outcomes and the specific instructional teaching was available. According to Doughty, Long identified three crucial elements of an experimental design that needed to be present in any effects-of-instruction research. These three elements were that a specific learning target must be identified for investigation; the instructional treatment must be psycholinguistically appropriate and specific gains in the second language must be evaluated with respect to the target of the instruction.

### **2.6.2 Implicit and explicit instruction**

Doughty (2004) further states that the most recent reviews of empirical studies of instructed second language learning examine both the overall effectiveness and the relative effectiveness of the specific instruction. In this research the focus is not on method but rather on the operationalization of instructional treatments, which is best analyzed psycholinguistically in terms of language processing that facilitates the second language learners extracting forms and connecting them to meaning and form. The general concern is whether an explicit or implicit approach to instruction should be followed and furthermore to what extent and how should learners' attention be directed to the elements of the language.

Doughty argues that explicit instruction includes all types in which rules are explained to learners or where the learners are directed to find rules by attending to forms, whilst implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules or forms, as it assumes the learners will abstract it from the information. During instruction the learners' attention may be directed to language forms, either in isolation, during the processing of meaning or none at all. In language teaching this type of attention can be defined as focus on forms; focus on meaning and focus on form. Focus on form will allow the learner to notice the linguistic elements as they appear incidentally. Focus-on-form instruction is done with the understanding that the learners know the meaning and use of the specific element at the time it is presented.

Of the many comparisons made by researchers in this regard the most important, as

stated by Doughty, is overall effectiveness of instruction in comparison with exposure, relative effectiveness of implicit and explicit types of instructions, and relative effectiveness of attention to forms, meaning and form-meaning connections. Furthermore the general finding concerning overall effectiveness of second language instruction is consistent with earlier comparisons of the effectiveness of second language instructions with simple exposure or with meaning-driven communication.

According to Doughty (2004) the future direction of instructed Second language acquisition (SLA) is depending on the resolving of certain concerns such as the increased instructional studies in Second language acquisition (SLA) that investigate the processes involved in making form-meaning connections, and the operationalization of processes must be systematic, and drawing on the theoretical constructs of second language learning. Doughty (2004) proposes that in order to assist researchers a framework of analysis was developed and further revised for the purposes of assessing instructed Second language acquisition (SLA) research protocols before it is implemented. The main purpose of the said framework is to examine the construct validity of the treatments in studies of instructed Second language acquisition (SLA) with special attention to the progress made by the learners.

Doughty further argues that implicit learning of form-meaning connections are according too many researchers seen as the representations of successive events which are superimposed on each other, and which can be operated unconsciously. Winter and Reber in Williams (2004), as discussed by Doughty, defined implicit learning as the human ability to derive information from the world in an unconscious and non-reflective way. Implicit learning does not necessitate the intention to learn, but it occurs whilst in process of other tasks. Although it is an unconscious process, researchers claim that learners need to be aware of stimuli that are necessary for the contribution to the learning process. This approach formed the basis for the noticing theory of Schmidt.

In relation to learning form-meaning connections, Doughty (2004) points out that form refers to the grammatical morphemes while meaning will refer to the conceptual features that determine their distribution. In the theory on noticing it is possible for a learner to when a person attends to two elements (one referring to grammar and the

other to conceptual features), the relationship between the two elements can be acquired implicitly. However, in the human utterances the possibility of various different potential conceptual features for one specific element is the general assumption and thus can influence the learner in various ways.

Doughty (2004) claims that some concerns are raised with regard to research in this environment, which includes the assurance or certification that implicit learning alone took place rather than any exposure to explicit learning. The possibility of learners entering into explicit learning procedures should be minimized or negated if possible. Another concern is the learner's prior knowledge to other languages and the fact that the relation between prior knowledge and the effect on implicit learning has not been addressed thoroughly. Various research products were completed without been able to prove the relation between implicit learning of forms and the implicit learning of meaning. According to Doughty (2004) this assumption should, however, be treated with care as further evaluation needs to be taken with regard to the influence of prior knowledge and also the size of the training sets. A specific size regarding tests needs to be reached prior to presenting linguistic generalizations.

## **2.7 RECENT RESEARCH ON TASK-BASED THEORY**

### **2.7.1 Task-based language teaching**

Nunan (2003) examined task-based language teaching, arguing that the notion 'task' has become a very important element in language acquisition. According to Nunan the definition on pedagogical tasks entails that it forms a part of the classroom work that involves the 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 rather to manipulating form. Nunan suggests that one of the more important conceptual focuses of task-based language is the utilization of experiential learning. This process takes the learners own experiences as the point of the departure in the learning process and is further developed through engagement in a sequence of tasks.

There is a general consensus as proposed by Nunan that task-based learning is divided in real world or target tasks. According to Halliday as discussed in Nunan

there are three general uses of language, namely to the service macrofunction (which is the exchange of goods and services), the social macrofunction (which is the socialization with others) and the aesthetic macrofunction (which is use for enjoyment). Within this discourse analysis the focus will be mainly on the service macrofunction, where services are exchanges between the service provider (South African Police Service) and the client (complainants).

In order to allow the second language learners the opportunity to achieve fluency in the target language, it will be necessary to transform real world tasks into pedagogical tasks, and place it either as rehearsal or activation tasks. Nunan (2003) further claims that the successful development of task-based learning will involve the defining of the specific task components. He states that the three minimum specifications are the goals, the input and the procedure. The goal is the general intention behind the learning process and relates to the outcome needed. Within this analysis the goal will be communicative. The learners' products such as the written and spoken data as well as many other materials used in language learning can be defined as input.

Nunan also holds the view that it is important to note that the successful utilization of the oral language by learners is dependant on the structured opportunities to utilize such material in the classroom setup. According to Nunan procedure defines precisely what learners will do with the input data that forms the point of departure for the second language learning process. Similar to input data authenticity, procedural authenticity is most important to ensure that learners achieve the most form the task-based learning. It is further stated that the procedures that attempt to replicate and rehearse what learners have to do outside, have procedural authenticity.

Hatch, as discussed in Nunan (2003), argues that learners acquire the target language by using such language through conversations. He further states that interaction should be utilized first and then grammatical knowledge will develop. Researchers have identified a four-stage process in negotiating meaning. The first stage is the "trigger" stage, the second phase the "signal," the third phase the "response" and lastly the "follow-up." Researchers also identified that sequences of tasks can be further defined as simple or complex, where the complex sequences required more skills from the second language learners.

### 2.7.2 Task characteristics

The issue of task difficulty is of great importance to all researchers and teachers in the field of second language learning and teaching. If no determination of the level of difficulty takes place, no sequencing is done and then tasks become mere intuition. Defining the difficulty of tasks is further influenced by the learner factors, and the task factors on hand and the input factors provided. According to Nunan (2003), one of the first investigations into task difficulty was executed by Brown, Anderson, Shillock and Yule in 1984, who proposed a two-dimensional framework. The first dimension related to the type of information that has to be conveyed and the second dimension related to the scale of the task and the interrelationships between the different elements involved. Within this research static tasks, where the elements remained the same were easier than dynamic tasks, where elements change relatively to one another.

Nunan (2003) refers to Skehan (1998), who developed a three-way distinction between code complexity, cognitive complexity and communicative stress. Within the distinction he further divided cognitive complexity into cognitive familiarity where learners had the ability to access packaged solutions to tasks, and cognitive processing where learners had to work out solutions as they proceeded. Nunan (2003) maintains that an important facet of this research is the system for measuring task complexity in performance. Task performance (therefore task complexity) is measured through accuracy where the number of correct clauses is divided into the total number of clauses produced; complexity where the total number of clauses is divided into the total number of C-units produced; and fluency is measured by the total number of seconds of silence and time spent using utterances such as “uhm” and “ah.”

According to Skehan and Foster, as discussed in Nunan, different kinds of tasks require different types of cognitive demands. Within their research they focused on three specific types of tasks namely personal, narration and decision-making. They further concluded that accuracy was measured higher in the personal and decision-making tasks than in the narrative. More complex language was required in the narrative and decision-making tasks than in the personal tasks, which resulted in less

fluency in the more complex tasks presented.

Nunan (2003) also points out that Robinson (2001), developed a cognitive complexity model with two main dimensions namely resource-directing and resource-depleting. The first dimension, resource-directing included the number of elements involved, the number of contextual support available and the reasoning demands made on the learner, while the resource-depleting dimension focused on the demands on attention and working memory.

Task difficulty and the definition thereof are very important to the Second language acquisition (SLA) process as the tasks with little cognitive demand will allow learners the opportunity to acquire the targeted language, whereas tasks with an increased cognitive demand may, where learners do not have the ability or proficiency, lead to fossilization.

### **2.7.3 Task grading**

Nunan (2003) defines tasks as the central curriculum planning tool for targeted language learning and it is also necessary to focus on the arrangement of the content of language input, and includes allowing the learners the best possible opportunity to acquire the targeted language. Therefore gradations would affect the manner and the order in which words, word meanings, tenses, amongst others, are presented in a curriculum. Nunan states that the grading, sequencing and integrating of content remain extremely difficult processes for any researcher.

Nunan (2003) points out that one of the reasons for the complexity of grading is the fact that language learning is not an isolated entity, mastered one level at a time, but rather an integrated process where various factors can play a role in the learning process. Within his research Nunan focuses on three different factors namely input, procedures and the learners themselves.

Within the process of grading input it is necessary, according to Nunan to place emphasis on the complexity of the input with consideration to grammatical factors, the length of the text, the propositional density, the amount of low-frequency vocabulary, the speed of the spoken text and the number of speakers involve, the explicitness of the information, the discourse structure and the clarity with which it is

signaled. Results also indicate that more complex input, if it is presented in the same chronological manner as in which it occurred, is easier processed than when it is presented out of the real life chronological sequence. The amount of additional support provided to the learner will also effect the textual difficulty.

Other factors enhancing comprehensibility of input, as advanced by Nunan, are to have an overall schematic knowledge of the specific input and the type of genre in which the input appears. Researchers found that narratives, recounts and descriptive texts are easier to process than argumentative texts. The types of topics will also have a direct effect on the ability of learners.

One of the most important notices in language learning is to remember the great effect of the learners themselves, or as Pearson and Johnson as discussed in Nunan described it as the “inside the head” factors. These factors include background knowledge, interest, motivation, confidence, prior learning experience, learning pace, observed ability in language skills, cultural knowledge or awareness, linguistic knowledge and others. Nunan explains that within the exposure to input the learners will call up their own mental map on the specific input to assist in the comprehension of the said input, and if the input differs from their own mental mapping it may be necessary to alter their own map or even create a new mental map of such input. In learning a second language, it will lead to the exposure to new or different cultural context, which will necessitate the learners to constantly adapt their existing mental maps on the inputs presented.

Nunan (2003) holds the view that it is clear from the above-mentioned that the input factors and the learner factors are integrated and interdependent. The challenge for second language researchers and teachers remain to determine what skills and prior knowledge each learner has on the targeted language.

#### **2.7.4 Additional factors with regard to tasks**

Other factors that need to be considered, according to Nunan (2003), are the procedural factors, namely the operations the learners need to perform on input data. Some of these factors are the relevance to the learner, the complexity of the instructions, the amount of context provided prior to the task, the processibility of



language of the task to the learner, the amount of help available to the learner, the degree of grammatical complexity required, the time available to the learner to perform the task and the follow-up on the performed task.

Nunan involves the determined procedural factors to develop a graded set of specifications for the learners. The set consists of the beginner level, pre-intermediate and high intermediate learner groups, and can be utilized in developing graded syllabus materials and units of work. The grading of activities can be further focused on the four macro skills of the learners, namely listening, oral interaction, reading and writing.

In summary, from the research done by the various linguists it is clear that task-based learning involves many different factors within the determination of the difficulty of the tasks and the grading thereof which conclusively will result in the ordering of the tasks to ensure the best possible syllabus for the second language learner. It was further established that although there are multiple factors involved they are all interrelated. The general consensus is that difficulty of a task, based on a relatively simple input text, can be increased by adjusting the procedural demands on the learners, and not necessarily changing the input.

## **2.8 TASKS IN SECOND LANGUAGE**

### **2.8.1 Task utilization in Second Language Acquisition**

According to Ellis (2003), researchers and second language teachers all attempt to elicit examples of language use from their specific students or learners. This process is required to determine how second language learning itself takes place and how the learners can be assisted too easier achieve their goal. The examples utilized is also dependant on the focus of the learners on their usage of the second language. In this sense it is important to elicit examples of language use that is representative of how learners act when not explicitly focusing on accuracy, but rather under normal circumstances. This allows for the evaluating of the structuring and restructuring of the learners' interlanguage.

Tasks in second language acquisition (SLA) as described by Ellis (2003) have specific variables that need to be addressed. One of these variables is the distinction



between required and optional information exchange. One of the common distinctions in language pedagogy is between information gap tasks and opinion gap tasks. In information gap tasks information exchange is required to allow the learners to complete the tasks. Ellis continues that many tasks however can be seen as initially a required information exchange task which later alter into an optional information exchange task. In the required informational exchange tasks it can be further divided into one-way and two-way tasks.

Ellis (2003) explains that the process through which these examples can be elicited is called tasks. In order to define a task in second language learning it will be necessary to evaluate the scope of the task, the perspective from which the specific task is viewed, the authenticity of the task, the linguistic skills required to execute the task, the psychological processes involved in performing the task as well as the outcome of the task itself. Tasks as defined by Ellis (2003) are activities that call primarily for meaning-focused language use, where learners function primarily as language users in the sense that they need to utilize the same communicative processes as reflected in real world activities, while exercises call for form-focused language use the learners act as participant learning something new, and here the learning itself is incidental. The overall goal of a task is to learn a specific language. Learners will, however, need to pay attention to both meaning-focused and form-focused language use to obtain the target language. While performing a task, the learners will primarily focus on meaning-focused language use with momentarily attention to form-focused language use.

According to Ellis (2003), the perspective from which the task is viewed is dependant from where the task is perceived, namely the designer (teacher or researcher) or the participant's point of view. The perspective has an influence of the attention given too either focus-on-meaning or focus-on-form usage of the language. From the perspective of the teacher a task is a work plan that is intended to engage the learner in meaning-focused language use, as stated by Ellis. The authenticity of a task is based on whether such a task corresponds to a real world activity which occurs in our daily lives. Although some methods are used in second language learning that cannot relate directly to real world activities such as telling a story from a set of pictures, it does relate in a partial relationship to the real world.

Ellis argues that tasks can involve oral and writing skills from the learners, dependant on the specific task at hand. Most of the researches in this field however focus their research on oral skills, and in particular speaking. The nature of the processes involved in task performance is connected to the cognitive processes followed. The process' learners engage will include processes such as selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing and then transforming information. Robinson as discussed in Ellis, claims that tasks may vary in complexity according to the cognitive demands placed on learners. In order for a task to be successful there needs to be a clear outcome achieved. The outcome of a task is where the learners arrived at after completion of a task, and it is important to note that this may not have been the aim of the task. Even if not achieving the aim, may still result in a successful outcome by learners.

### **2.8.2. Focused and Unfocused tasks**

Ellis (2003) states that tasks can be defined as unfocused or focused tasks. Unfocused tasks allow learners to choose from a variety of forms and there is no specific form in mind by the researcher or teacher, whilst with focused tasks aim to teach learners a specific linguistic feature in a specific form. Tasks can be designed as to guide learners to only use one specific features or by making language itself the content of the task. Whether a task is focused or unfocused it will reflect certain characteristics which will include the goal of the task, the input needed, the conditions in which it is presented, the procedures to be followed in performing the task and the predicted outcomes.

The use of tasks in second language acquisition (SLA) according to Ellis has been closely linked to the development within the research field itself, from the earlier descriptive to the theoretical period. The initial goal of task research was to determine how learners acquired a second language naturalistically. Further studies have identified that learners differ in their use of language and that it has an effect on the outcome of the task. In this research two major influences were the research done by Krashen resulting in the Input Hypothesis and that of Long which resulted in the Interaction Hypothesis. These researches led to further studies where the focus was placed on the task itself. Other more recent research was initiated by research

done by Vygotski, with the focus on social interaction.

Ellis claims that language teachers use tasks in two manners namely as task-supported language teaching where tasks have been incorporated into traditionally based approaches to language teaching, and also as task-based language teaching, where tasks are seen as learning units, and where courses are designed within it. Tasks can therefore be acknowledged as a very important unit in communicative language teaching, which focuses on developing the learners' ability to use the language in real world situations. The aim, therefore, is to enable learners to perform interactionally and transactionally.

Task-supported language teaching as defined by Ellis (2003) is focused on linguistic content, and utilized a methodological procedure consisting of present-practice-produce. Here language items are presented to learners by means of examples and practiced by means of exercises. This method focuses on the acquisition of second language as a sequential process which was proven wrong by recent research in this field.

Task-based language teaching as defined by Ellis is seen as providing the basis of its own language curriculum. The primary focus here lies within fluency and not necessarily in accuracy. Different approaches to task-based teaching exist, namely the humanistic language teaching where learners are encouraged to recognize their feeling and to use it by caring and sharing with others. According to Ellis, another approach is the procedural syllabus approach defined by Prabhu in 1987. This involved the development of a task-based method which consisted of a pre-task and then the task itself, which is more cognitive in nature. Ellis discusses another procedural syllabus approach developed by Breen and Candlin, reflected on the negotiation between the teacher and the learners with no priority syllabus. Tasks can also be designed with a metacognitive focus. In this approach tasks assist learners to become aware of, reflect on and evaluate their own learning styles and the strategies they use to learn.

### **2.8.3 Learner interaction in second language acquisition**

Ellis (2003) argues that it is difficult to maintain conversations by learners, and for

this reason they may use certain devices to assist them to negotiate meaning. In order to enhance conversation it may happen that native speakers use one of two strategies in their interaction. The one strategy is to avoid conversational trouble, and within this strategy the speaker will allow the learner to control the topic, utilize salient topics, ensure that the learner understands the meaning of the conversation and touch on topics briefly. The second strategy is to address problems as they occur, which may include the confirmation of comprehension, tolerating ambiguity and requesting clarification.

Ellis (2003) holds the view that communication strategies are in contrast to discourse strategies and that it is not listener-orientated but speaker- orientated. Various speaker strategies have been identified in the approach to negotiate meaning. The strategies can be defined into two major focus areas namely reduction strategies where the learner abandons a specific task, and achievement strategies where the learner attempts to achieve the task provided through various process such as approximation, paraphrasing, word coinage, mime and conscious transfers. According to Poulisse, as discussed in Ellis, the main objective of communication strategies for the learner is either the principle of clarity or the principle of economy. Whether the negotiation is informative and clear, and if it is brief and economical. Learners may however sacrifice economy for clarity. Communicative strategies do form an integral part of strategic competence which results in the optimal utilization of the speakers linguistic and pragmatic resources.

The extend to which a learner is engaged in the negotiation of meaning, as determined by Ellis (2003) will have a direct impact on communication effectiveness. Yule as discussed in Ellis identified a communication effectiveness model that incorporated two broad dimensions. The first is the identification-of-referent dimension, which allows the speaker to be able to identify and encode the referents that will be communicated about. In order to achieve this dimension, the learner needs the perceptual ability to notice specific attributes of a referent, and the comparison ability to distinguish one referent from another and the linguistic ability to encode the referent. Ellis further states that the role taking dimension developed around the learners ability to take account of their communicative partners in order to achieve intersubjectivity. In this dimension the learner needs the ability to recognize

the importance of the other speaker's perspective, the ability to make inferences about the other speaker's perspective, the ability to take these inferences into account when encoding a message and the ability to attend to feedback from the other speaker.

Interactionist theories, as discussed by Ellis (2003), view language acquisition as an outcome of participating in discourse. Long's Interaction Hypothesis focused on the comprehensible input that assists the learner in the acquisition. In further and extended studies by Long the focus was also placed on learner production and input in the achievement of SLA. The opportunity to negotiate meaning allows learners to obtain comprehensible input, but also provides learners with feedback on their own use and furthermore, it allows learners to adjust and modify their own output. It will therefore result in the argument that the more opportunity there is for negotiation the better chance for acquisition. Ellis maintains that although there are strong arguments for the usefulness of negotiation to acquire second language use, there is uncertainty with regard to the role of communication strategies. Communication strategies are seen as important in understanding second language communication rather than explaining the acquisition thereof. These strategies however are important and do play a role in the acquisition of a second language even if it only contributes to the development of strategic competence.

#### **2.8.4 Additional factors relating to tasks**

Another dimension of tasks that need an additional focus is the open and closed task definitions. Ellis (2003) defines open tasks to have no predetermined solution and learners are free to make their own decisions on the solution. Closed tasks on the other hand will allow learners to reach only one solution, and an example of such closed tasks are the information gap tasks. Various researchers have found that the closed tasks allow more negotiation form learners and taking the Interaction Hypothesis into consideration it will more likely promote language acquisition.

Other factors that need to be considered, as identified by Ellis (2003) is the topic of a specific task, and with specific attention to topic familiarity and importance. If a topic is more familiar, the learner will engage in more negotiation. The discourse mode will also have an effect on the linguistic form the learner will use in negotiation and will

also affect the extent to which the learner will participate and modify their input and output as well as the communication strategies to be utilized. Cognitive complexity also plays a major role in negotiating meaning and may influence the difficulty of a task. The more cognitively demanding a task will be will ensure more meaning negotiation as the learner will have to engage discourse management and repair strategies more frequently to prevent or cope with non-understanding of the difficult task at hand.

## **2.9 THE METHOD OF IMPLEMENTATION OF TASKS**

### **2.9.1 The impact of tasks on language acquisition**

Ellis (2003) states that the way in which tasks are implemented may have an impact on the interaction that occurs with further affects on comprehension and language acquisition. Certain task procedures have been identified that may influence the negotiation of meaning, the use of communication strategies and communicative effectiveness. The role the participant plays, is very important, especially in one way tasks, where the learner is asked to perform it interactively or non-interactively. The communicative skills and styles of the participants in the interactive condition also play a role.

Other procedures on influence of negotiating meaning, according to Ellis (2003) is the repetition of tasks has a marked interactive effect if the same task is repeated. It will also improve communicative efficiency. The effect of interlocutor familiarity needs to be taken into consideration as well. Research done in this area showed that in a more familiar situation there seems to be more clarification requests and confirmation checks. Zuengler, as discussed in Ellis (2003), proposed that it is not topic knowledge per se that is important but rather how it is interactionally determined according to comparisons the interlocutors make of each other. Ellis (2003) further claims that the variable that received most notice is the specific type of feedback. Feedback varies according to indicators used to respond to the activation in negotiation sequence. Research was also done on the effects of feedback on the output learners produce in their response move and the subsequent acquisition that followed. Although feedback in the form of clarification requests promotes modified output there is no clear evidence that it impacts on language acquisition.

## 2.9.2 Task design in general

Ellis (2003) states that tasks that elicit the use of specific linguistic features, either by design or by the use of methodological procedures that focus attention on form will be defined as focused tasks. It is also important to note that the difference between a focused task and a situational grammar exercise depends on how it is implemented and not how it is designed. Focused communicative tasks are of importance to researchers and teachers alike as it allows for the measurement of what learners have acquired and also allows for the determination of implicit knowledge of the learners.

Two psycholinguistic bases for focused communicative tasks were researched by Ellis. The first base is the skill-building and automatic processing theory. Skill-building processing involves attentional control and occurs more slowly and in series. Automatic processing is easy and rapid and takes up very little processing capacity. Automatization is more than speeding up language processing, it also includes restructuring, with the reorganizing of new knowledge into new forms. According to Ellis communicative language use depends on rapid online processing, therefore there is a dire need for learners to develop automatic procedural knowledge. Learning involves the transfer from short-term to long-term memory and this transfer is regulated by controlled processes.

In order for controlled procedures to develop into automatic processes, Ellis (2003) argues that learners need to practice the skill. Practice is also seen as important for restructuring as it provides the means of which learners reorganize their own implicit knowledge. Practice can only be successful however, if it is utilized in the context of communicative activity. The role of tasks is then to provide opportunities for the learners to practice forms that have first been presented declaratively and to receive feedback on their mistakes under genuine operating conditions.

Implicit learning reflects two key aspects namely it occurs unconsciously and it is automatic. Ellis (2003) further defines implicit learning as associative learning which is based on memory of particular instances. In contrast to implicit learning, explicit learning involves a conscious search for structure and it is highly selective also



defined as non-interface position, whilst implicit learning holds the interface position.

To design a focused task, researchers such as Ellis (2003) have developed three different sets of methods to design focused tasks. In the structure-based production tasks the researchers included three ways of developing it, namely task-naturalness, where it arises naturally and frequently in performing the task, although it may not be necessary for the completion of the task. The other method is task-utility, once again not necessary to complete the task but very useful. The last way is the task-essentialness, which results in the need of the learner to utilize it to complete the task at hand. Ellis points out that if the learner fails to use this method the outcome will not be successful. The challenge for researchers will be to develop structure-based communication tasks that are natural, useful and essential.

According to Ellis (2003), comprehension-based tasks may seem to be more effective in eliciting attention to a targeted feature than production-based tasks because learners cannot avoid processing it. These tasks are also known as interpretation tasks or structured-input tasks. It is based on the assumption that acquisition is the result of input-processing. This occurs through input enrichment where the targeted feature is repeated frequently or is salient in the input provided. Input processing on the other hand as Ellis defines it, has its goal as the alteration of the processing strategies that the learners follow to the task of comprehension and to encourage them to make better form-meaning connections. This process can occur either through an explanation of a form-meaning relationship, or information about processing strategies or structured input. Focused tasks are mainly involved in the last form of input-processing (structured input) where focused tasks are utilized to its full extent.

Ellis further argues that consciousness-raising tasks differ from the other two forms of focused tasks in the sense that it primarily caters for explicit learning, meaning the learner develops awareness at the level of understanding rather than noticing a specific targeted language feature. A further characteristic of these tasks is that the language itself is the content of the learning process. According to Ellis, such a task consists of data containing exemplars of the targeted feature and instructions requiring the learner to operate on the data, i.e., identification, judgement and sorting. The success of consciousness-raising tasks lies within the role it plays in effectively



developing explicit knowledge and the promoting of noticing as well as the encouragement of learners to communicate.

With the three different task forms available, Ellis maintains that it is necessary to evaluate the possible manner in which to implement focused tasks in SLA, as it may even resolve some of the difficulties in achieving the targeted language feature. Implicit methodological techniques involve providing feedback on learners' output of the targeted language in a manner that maintains the meaning-centeredness of the task. The feedback, as stipulated by Ellis (2003), needs to be directed at solving the problem created by the output of the learner in the task. One such method is to recast on the output provided. Recast occurs frequently in naturally-occurring meaning -focused communication and can be used to give a focus to a task if directed at a specific targeted feature that is utilized incorrectly by the learner. Ellis proposes that explicit methodological techniques focus on the targeted feature of the language during the performance of the task. Such a focus can be provided preemptively, where the teacher may ask a question or making a metalingual remark on the feature, or responsively where negative feedback is presented involving explicit attention to the targeted feature.

### **2.9.3 The designing of a task-based language course**

In order to achieve success in learning others a second language it is imperative to select the correct data and to sequence it in such a manner that it allows the learners the opportunity to achieve it without unnecessary problems as proposed by Ellis (2003). The key elements in the construction of a task-based course require the specific tasks to be included, and the specification on the features of the language itself. Task-based courses need to be compatible with the cognitive processes involved in second language learning and learners need to be involved in the process.

Traditionally the linguistic syllabus focused on what is to be learned and consisted of a list of grammatical structures. Learners however seemed not to be achieving as much in the way to communicate in the second language, despite instructions through this syllabus. Prabhu, as discussed in Ellis (2003), argued that it was necessary to abandon the preselection of linguistic items in any form and instead

specify the content of teaching in terms of holistic units of communication, namely tasks. Prabhu's procedural syllabus was then the first attempt to develop a task-based language course. Long developed this research further with the hypothesis that learners needed to focus on form consciously while they are communicating. Tasks had to be developed to ensure not only a primary focus on meaning but also an incidental focus on form. Long also developed target tasks and pedagogic tasks.

According to Ellis, it is important to classify tasks in the design of a task-based course. This will allow the development of a basis for ensuring variety, where researchers and developers can refer to the classification. If a classification exists, it can be used to identify task types to match needs, and allowed the possibility to experiment with different task types. Ellis states that there are four approaches to classifying tasks. The pedagogical classification has the advantage of being readily applicable to the design of course books and supplementary text books. The theoretical classification of tasks draws on the theories that distinguish different discourse domains in terms of their structure and linguistic properties such as narrative, instruction and more. Another method of classifying tasks rhetorically is the concept of genre, where certain tasks share some set of communicative purpose. A third method is the cognitive classification, which is based on the different cognitive operations needed for the tasks involved including information gap activity, reasoning-gap activity and opinion-gap activity tasks. The last category is the psycholinguistic classification, which sets out to establish a typology of tasks in relation to their potential for language learning. Ellis (2003) argues that this classification is based on the interactional categories that have been shown to affect the opportunities learners have to comprehend input, to obtain feedback and to modify their own output. The categories within this classification are interactant relationships, interaction requirement, goal orientation and outcome options. As it is clear that there is no specific classification acceptable to all, it is important to develop a general framework based on a number of key dimensions of tasks, where it draws on all typologies determined previously.

Irrespective of the type of task to be included in a syllabus, Ellis (2003) further maintains that it is also important to focus on the theme of such tasks. The thematic scheme will be dependant on the purpose of the course, whether it is a general

proficiency course or some specific second language feature. The guiding principles in the general proficiency course will be topic familiarity, intrinsic interest and even topic relevancy. In the case of specific purpose courses the topic selection will be determined mainly by an analysis of the target tasks that the learner will need to perform.

Ellis maintains that, in order to facilitate maximum opportunity and exposure to learn and achieve the targeted language, it will be necessary to sequence the tasks. This can be done if the complexity of the individual tasks is determined as to allow the placement of the tasks in such a manner that it matches the learners' level of development. One of the concerns in sequencing tasks is the grading thereof, but it is not necessary to grade tasks with the same level of precision as linguistic content. Task complexity is determined from the following criteria namely input, which includes factors such as input medium, code complexity, cognitive complexity, context dependency, and familiarity of information. The second criterion is condition, which include factors such as conditions influencing the negotiation of meaning, task demands, and discourse mode. The third criterion relates to the process of performing a task and includes the following factor, namely reasoning needed. The final criterion relates to task outcomes and includes factors such as the medium of the outcome, the scope of the outcome, the discourse domain of the outcome and the complexity of the outcome.

According to Ellis (2003), the planning of the development of a task-based syllabus construction will include the determination of the purpose of the specific course in terms of its pedagogical focus, skill focus and language focus. Then the broad choice of types of tasks is to be conducted and also the determination of specific themes that the tasks will deal with. The developer will now have a list of tasks organized by specific themes and also specified in terms of general activity that the learners will be required to undertake. Thereafter the nature of the tasks is to be defined in detail that will be utilized, and this selection will be motivated by consideration of the psycholinguistic and practical value to the specific discourse target. Ellis claims that the final detail will be the sequencing of the tasks itself.

Ellis argues that the inclusion of focus on form into a task-based syllabus can be achieved in two ways, either by means of tasks designed to focus attention on

specific properties of the code, or by incorporating a focus on form methodology into the performance of linguistically unfocused tasks. The incorporation of a linguistic focus into a task-based syllabus raises once more the issue on selection and sequencing. Ellis also argues that in order to be successful it needs to be compatible to interlanguage development. The designing of a task-based syllabus with the goal to enable learners to develop implicit knowledge of a targeted feature may seem pointless, but can still be effective if it focuses on a cluster of features as determined by Skehan, as discussed in Ellis (2003). One method utilized to this extent is the checklist of items. Such checklists can assist in determining what the learners have achieved and what not.

In the case of explicit knowledge, Ellis (2003) states that development consciousness-raising tasks are needed. The determination of such tasks and the selection of linguistic content will be similar to that of implicit knowledge development, which is an analysis of the kinds of linguistic problems learners face in acquiring a second language. Here it is proposed to develop a graded syllabus and not only a check list. Linguistic features constitute the topics of consciousness-raising tasks, and the design of such syllabuses is therefore initiated by the linguistic content.

In order to incorporate the focus on form into a task-based syllabus different approaches can be followed as proposed by Ellis. The content-based instruction relies on the belief that learners will best learn language while they are engaged in learning subject content. With the less successful achievement of this approach, researched determined that learners need to be exposed to both a linguistic and content syllabus. This led to two focus areas within the integrated approach defined by Ellis as content-obligatory language which is the language that is required to learn a particular content, and content-compatible language, which is the language that can be usefully taught within a specific content domain, but not necessarily needed for the successful mastery of the content itself.

Within the modular approach proposed by Ellis no attempts were made to integrate form and content, but rather dealt with as two separate modules. These modules are the communicative module, which is the main component of the syllabus and consists out of unfocused tasks while the code-based module forms the secondary

component of the syllabus and consists out of a checklist of linguistic features. Within a syllabus as this with two unique and differentiated modules Ellis (2003) claims that it will be needed to stagger the modules, where the syllabus is initiated by the communicative module and the code-based module will only be exposed to the learners in the intermediate phase and onwards.

#### **2.9.4 Methodology of task-based teaching**

Ellis (2003) states that, although tasks are defined and sequenced according to the target of the researchers, and specific work plans are determined, it will still be necessary to develop procedural methods for executing all the plans. Within the methodological processing of second language learning, two categories were established. He further states that the categories are lesson design and participatory structures.

Ellis proposes that the lesson design reflects on the different stages of a lesson that has a task as its principal component. Various researches have dealt with the designs but it resulted in three basic phases, namely pre-task, during-task and post-task phases. He explains that during the pre-task the preparation is made so that learners will perform the tasks in such a way that it will promote acquisition. This may include presenting the tasks in such a manner that it motivates the learners, and part of this motivation might lie in explaining the purpose and utility of the task. Skehan, as discussed in Ellis, further identified four ways in which the teacher can achieve the goal of developing an urge to learn within the learners' themselves, and that is by performing a similar task, providing a model, engage learners in a non-task preparation activity and the strategic planning of the main task.

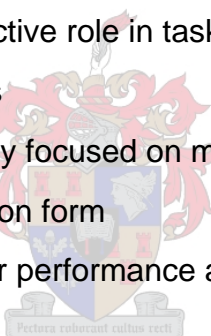
According to Ellis the during-task can be based on two methodological options which is the task performance option such as time pressure, determining access to input and introducing surprise elements into the task. The other method is the process option method that differs from the task performing option because it is concerned with the manner in which the discourse arising from the task is enacted. This method can however not be preplanned and had to be taken during the task itself.

The post-task phase has specific purposes and that is to provide an opportunity for a

repeat performance of the task by the learner, or to encourage the learners to reflect on how the task was performed and finally to encourage learners to pay attention to form, especially where difficulty was experienced. In order to allow the learner to pay attention to form the errors that occurred during the task can be reviewed, consciousness-raising tasks can be utilized as main tasks in the lesson, production-practice activities can be initiated or noticing activities can be developed as a follow-up on task performances.

In order to design a framework for a lesson, the planning and process decisions of the researchers or teacher need to be guided by clear principles. These principles, as defined in Ellis (2003), are as follows:

- 1 ensure an appropriate level of task difficulty
- 2 establish clear goals for each task-based lesson
- 3 develop an appropriate orientation to performing the tasks in the students
- 4 ensure that students adopt an active role in task-based lessons
- 5 encourage students to take risks
- 6 ensure that students are primarily focused on meaning when performing a task
- 7 provide opportunity for focusing on form
- 8 require students to evaluate their performance and progress



Ellis (2003) proposed that there are two major contributors to designing a lesson, the second major contributor is the participatory structure of the lesson. This is the procedure involved in the interactivity within the lesson and task performance by the teacher and the learners. The most basic distinction within participation is whether it is an individual or social interaction. It must be borne in mind that tasks can utilize various possibilities of participatory structures. All the different structures whether individual, pairs, group or class room has its advantages and disadvantages, therefore careful consideration must be given to the planning of a task-based lesson.

### **2.9.5 Researching pedagogic tasks**

According to Bygate et al (2001), pedagogy is the intervention into thought and behaviors which is concerned to promote learning processes for intended outcomes. A task on the other hand is the activity which requires learners to use language, with

emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective, and which is chosen so that it is most likely to provide information for learners which will help them evaluate their own learning.

Bygate et al (2001) suggested that there are a number of potential problems in the relationship between pedagogy and research that need to be addressed. This includes the focus of the research and whether it reaches the teacher's goal; the way in which research is conceptualized as to assist the teachers; and the applicability of the research relating to the usability thereof by the teachers.

Foster (2001) claimed that, although language is largely generated by a system of rules, there is a shift in emphasis in some linguistic quarters that there are more to language than only the grammatical knowledge. Further studies in the utilization of words in fixed or semi-fixed combinations have suggested a processing strategy in second language usage.

Chomsky, in Foster (2001), posited a clear distinction between competence (the knowledge of the language) and performance (the use of the language). Competence will therefore indicate that the learners have knowledge of the rules which enable them to tell which combination of words is grammatical. This knowledge is derived from the universal grammar in existence within the learner. This does not result in learners using specific groups or combinations of words only, with the necessary knowledge of grammar learners can combine familiar sequences of words or construct new ones. Learners can construct language in two ways, either by syntactic rules for the comprehension and/or production of novel or complex structures, or by instantly accessing their memory for fixed or partially fixed and formed phrases.

### **2.9.6 Chunks of language and second language acquisition**

Second language learners can, according to Foster (2001), not be compared to children learning their native language, due to the fact that their exposure to the target language is restricted, and due to the lack of exposure over a longer period of time, their memory store of fixed or partially fixed and formed phrases are not as huge as for their native language. Furthermore second language learners have



some degree of explicit grammar knowledge. Taking this into account and their memory store for the second language forms they may utilize rules when composing language.

In the comparison done by Foster (2001) between the native and second language users with regard to the use of memory in processing language, an analysis was done of corpora of native and nonnative speakers for the evidence of prefabricated sequences. In such analysis it was necessary to define what was to be researched, then the identification thereof. It is also necessary to eliminate dubious or borderline examples from such analysis.

Foster concluded that nonnative speakers utilize rules to construct the greatest portion of their language and less from lexicalized routines. In order to allow learners not to be exposed to inappropriate word sequences to memory, it will be necessary to reflect on their own language use and to compare it to native usage norms. In this sense, it will allow the learners to experience what language choices' native speakers would have made in certain situations.

## **2.10 STUDIES OF TASKS IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS**

### **2.10.1 The use of communicative tasks in Second Language Acquisition**

Swain and Lapkin (2001) state that the use of communicative tasks in language teaching is that Second language acquisition (SLA) is enhanced through the negotiation of meaning and that it is assisted through the social interaction between learners and teachers. Communicative tasks emphasize the importance of focus on meaning. Nunan, in Swain and Lapkin (2001), defined communicative tasks 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.

In their studies of French students, Swain and Lapkin focused on pedagogical ways to allow the learners to focus on accuracy and accentuated content, and in order to ensure this there was some formal teaching of grammar in the tasks presented to the two groups. The one group was exposed to a jigsaw task where students had to construct a story based on a series of pictures (thus a visual stimulus), while the



other group did some dictogloss task where the learners had to listen to a passage read twice as fast as normal, after which they were to construct the passage (thus an auditory stimulus).

After completion of the tests the researchers analyzed the tests for language-related episodes, where students talk about language itself, their production thereof, where they question their use of it, or self-correct or other-correct the production thereof. This result then in discussion of meaning (also defined as lexis-based language-related episodes) and form (defined as form-based language-related episodes). The fact that students were given a specific linguistic text in the dictogloss activity, led to the determination that it placed more constraint on the learners' responses as to the jigsaw group who had no limitations to linguistic text. Swain and Lapkin argue that the dictogloss task placed more constraint on the learners' time on the task.

Swain and Lapkin (2001) also claim that from their tests the task differences were not reflected in the degree of attention to form. Within the dictogloss learners questioned each other about the form, they were active in discussion of their own use of the language, and attention was placed on gaps in their own knowledge. Both tasks however generated similar and substantial proportion of form-focused language-related episodes, where the dictogloss placed attention on accuracy the jigsaw task led to a greater range of vocabulary.

### **2.10.2 Interaction within Second Language Acquisition**

Tasks are not performed in a vacuum, and if such tasks are studied in isolation, the effect of pedagogic choices cannot be derived accurately. In order to ensure sound second language development, it is necessary to focus on the specific role that the teacher as mediating factor plays as raised by Samuda (2001).

Samuda (2001) stipulates that the role between task and teacher is initiated in the task design. Here the question arises as to what the general purpose of the task is? The general pedagogic purpose of a task should be the provisioning of oral communicative practice, through which language-processing capacities may be developed. Another factor that needs to be scrutinized is the management of attentional focus across a task. According to Samuda (2001), the task design exists

out of three basic components, the input data, operations on the data and outcomes, which required the management of attentional focus on the progression as the task unfolds. Finally the last factor is the framing of task input data, where learners are guided by operations carried out on the task input data to notice gaps in their current interlanguage resources and to develop new form-meaning language features.

Samuda (2001) states that an important role for a task may be to attract initial attention to designated areas of meaning and through task operations create a need to mean, while the importance of the teacher is to complement the task by guiding attention toward form-meaning relationships. Teachers need to lead from behind to support the learning process across a task context.

## **2.11 PEDAGOGICAL NORMS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING**

### **2.11.1 Definition of pedagogical norms**

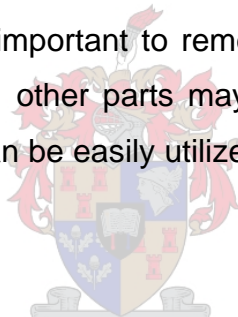
VanPatten (2002) points out that Valdman defined pedagogical norms as artificial construct, reflecting the special conditions of classroom foreign language learning and also identified four principles for such norms, which are the following:

- 1 It should reflect the actual behavior of target language speakers in communicative context
- 2 It should conform to native speakers' idealized views of their linguistic behavior
- 3 It should match both target language speakers' views on what is appropriate for educated nonnative speakers and the perspectives of learners themselves
- 4 It should take into account processing and learning factors

According to Gass et al (2002), languages have geographic variants which make it more difficult for teachers to learn the language and a specific linguistic standard to the learners. In the African Languages it is also reflected in the various dialects developed by certain groups of the same language users, but with slight variations on linguistic features. Valdman introduced the pedagogical norms to language learning where a series of progressive steps serves as intermediate goals for language acquisition.

Spolsky (2002) stated that formal language learning originates from the teaching of the sacred text. This was further followed by the teaching of Latin in the western Christian religion. Western secular educational systems ensured that the process was continued where the best written literature for the time period provided the model and the norm. The methods utilized was only challenged during the 1970's, where the question arises about the standard language and other possible social and local dialects. The question of a norm became critical within the teaching of languages in schools.

Spolsky (2002) further argues that the issue of norms also occurred with reversing language shift activities. These activities were defined by Fishman in 1991, where he grouped together the activities of supporters of a minority, previously powerless, or endangered languages to slow down or reverse a process by which their speakers move to a more powerful or attractive standard language. To understand why this issue is taken so seriously, it is important to remember that communication is only one part of the role of language, other parts may involve the marking of religious, political or national identity and can be easily utilized and associated with movements to restore a group identity.



### **2.11.2 Communicative classrooms and pedagogical norms**

VanPatten (2002) states that all the different methods of language teaching reflect certain common major tenets that are most relevant in grammar instruction and which include that meaning should also be a focus, learners should be at the center of the curriculum, communication is not only oral but written and gestural as well, samples of authentic language used among native speakers should be available from the beginning of instruction, and communicative events in class should be purposeful.

VanPatten (2002) points out that there is one common characteristic in language teaching and that is grammar instruction. This grammar instruction tends to follow a scheme where materials first present explicit information to learners about how a structure or set of forms work in the second language, also defined as the explanation phase. Hereafter follow certain mechanical activities or practices such

as substitution, transformation or fill-in-the blank exercises. Following these activities ensure practices where learners may use the new structures or forms to express meaning.

A new approach to grammar instruction called Processing Instruction was developed by VanPatten, where he stated that the first step to acquire a new language is the processing of input. He further constructed a set of principles that describe second language input processing. These principles are the following:

- 1 Learners process input for meaning before they process it for form. In this principle they first process content words, then lexical items prior to grammatical items and lastly they prefer processing more meaningful morphology than those less meaningful.
- 2 To process form that is not meaningful, learners have to be able to process informational or communicative content at little or no cost to attention.
- 3 They process a default strategy that assigns the role of agent to the first noun in the sentence (also known as first noun strategy). This strategy can be overridden by lexical semantics and event probabilities, and they can adopt other strategies for grammatical role assignment.

The research and theories of Processing Instruction are encouraging because it is meaning-based and falls directly within the realm of communicative and proficiency-based approaches to grammar instruction. It is compatible with the current theories on Second language acquisition (SLA) as it is input-based and motivated by research on psycholinguistics. It further assists the researchers and teachers of second language to understand how the target language is internalized and how instruction may intervene during internalization, and it supports the fourth principle of Valdman on pedagogical norms.

Structuration theory according to Basturkman (2006) the approach to language description for academic purposes, and in this case English, has an evolving theory of language use in discourse communities such as specific academic or professional groups, and views language as genres characterized by communicative purposes and distinct patterns of moves in them. Through the targeting of genres in specific discourse communities researchers have tried to provide valid language description

for learners. This focus on how genres emerge and develop, demands a vision not just of language and texts but also of society and how it functions.

The structuration theory is a theory on action and addresses the question on how it is that all competent members of society are able to act, interact and understand the meaning of what they do as defined by Cohen in Basturkman (2006). It addresses the subject of enduring practices in social life and argues that the things that happen or exist in social life are produced through enacted forms of conduct. This occurs because members of a society have two types of knowledge, namely practical consciousness and discursive consciousness. The theory can be utilized to explain a genre-based approach in teaching a language for specific purposes and it offers a useful perspective for the analysis of options and ideas.

Language systems are proposed by Basturkman (2006) as text can be seen as a stretch of language. A further distinction is made that such text is characterized by an external ambiguity, which relates to the contexts in which meaning is to be interpreted and internal ambiguity which relates to the ways parts of the text relates to each other. Further studies reflect on existing sets of patterns of text organization and the positive effects thereof on performance by learners due to the learners' conscious knowledge of patterns. Learners usually interpret text presented to them in the top-down approach, where it encourages learners to use their background knowledge to understand a text, where background knowledge can be knowledge of the topic, the situation or the script, or knowledge of patterns of text organization.

Basturkman (2006) argues that the origin of the term genre can be traced to Tarone et al in 1981, who concluded a study in the use of active and passive forms in journal articles in astrophysics. Allison in Basturkman defined a genre as follows:

*a class of language use and communication that occurs in particular communities*

The community in which the genre is arises provides a label for it. The communicative purpose of the genre is seen as its defining features which differentiate it from other genres and which explains its form and features of language usage. Genres are seen as collective and socially internal drive of a specific community.

Basturkman states that genre theory seeks to explain the texts used by groups and communities by reference to the functions of those groups or communities and their outlook on the world which are highly specified. The Structuration theory also claims that in recurring practices such as genres, the community that participates in the practices becomes increasingly familiar with the cognitive perspective of the community. To participate in the recurring of the practices of a community, learners draw on the rules of play for those practices which may be tacit or codified into standards.

Basturkman (2006) further points out that genre do not only result from the contexts in which they occur, but they also help constitute and shape those contexts, and therefore there is interplay between the genre and the context. They further evolve and change in response to changes in the need of the community. Therefore a genre-based perspective on language does not mean that genres are seen as fixed and static. Basturkman also reflects on the principles for genre as developed by Berkenkotter and Huckin in 1993, which being: dynamism, situatedness, form and content, duality of structure and community ownership.

## **2.12 RESEARCH WITH REGARD TO GENRES**

Much research was focused on genres in the recent past, as it is seen as consistent forms of communication and established practices in groups and communities. Instruction in the genres used in the target communities can also be seen as a method to assist learners to gain acceptance into those communities. Genre-based studies are focused on determining the structures and patterns that underlie such genres.

Basturkman proposes that research into genres may include some or all of the following procedures:

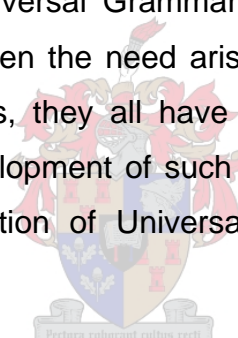
- 1 the identification of genres used by a specific community.
- 2 the development of a corpus of authentic samples of genres to be studied
- 3 the analysis of the recurrent patterns, constituting the structure of the genre.

According to Basturkman the great concern in genre-based teaching is to identify the genres that students will use in the targeted situation and then assist learners to

deconstruct them in order to understand how they are structured and how the structure relates to the objectives of the target group, what content the genres contain and what linguistic devices and language use are typical in them. Genres as previously indicated are specific to the communities in which they occur. Dependant on the group, the function and purpose in society will differ with the direct implication on the genres that arise in the group. Genre-based teaching is therefor best suited for learners with very similar needs who are all targeting similar workplaces or the same profession.

### **2.13 CONCLUSION**

This Chapter reviewed a range of influential theories and notions with regard to language and language acquisition. The basis of all research in this environment emanated from Universal Grammar as it was formulated by Chomsky. Other researchers determined that Universal Grammar is stored in the language user's minds, and can be accessed when the need arises. It further posits that although languages may have differences, they all have a universal set of principles and parameters assisting in the development of such language. Researchers also have different opinions on the utilization of Universal Grammar by second language learners.



Researchers also studied the influence of the social interaction of learners within the second language acquisition, inclusive of the interaction between learners and teachers and other learners.

Further research followed in second language learning with a specific focus on form-meaning connection. VanPatten indicated that all second language learners strive for meaning first in an effort to communicate and to interact socially. There were also indications of the influence of psycholinguistic consequences on the form-meaning connections.

The effects of language instruction in the second language acquisition process were analyzed by various researchers, with a focus on implicit and explicit instructions. Task-based language teaching was further examined by Nunan, who argued that the task has become a very important element in language acquisition. The task-based



learning can be divided into real world and target tasks to ensure service macrofunctions, social macrofunctions and aesthetic macrofunctions take place. Tasks are therefore further characterized by grading, focused and unfocused tasks and other factors.

The method of implementing tasks was discussed, including the impact of tasks on language acquisition. Certain tasks were identified to influence the negotiation of meaning, the use of communication strategies and communicative effectiveness. It was determined that for controlled procedures to develop into automatic processes, learners need to practice the skill.

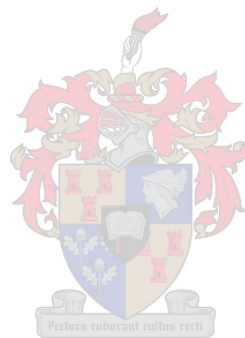
In order for teachers to achieve success in learning others a second language, it is imperative to select the correct data and to sequence it in such a manner that it allows the learners the opportunity to achieve it without unnecessary problems. Therefore it is important to classify tasks in the design of a task-based language course, but also to focus on the theme of such tasks. The determination of the purpose of such courses will also have a direct influence on the design. Lesson design and participatory structures are the two categories established within the methodological processing of second language learning.

Researchers also claimed that the use of communicative tasks in second language teaching, enhances the negotiation of meaning and further assist in the social interaction between teachers and learners. Nunan defined communicative tasks 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.

VanPatten then points out that there is one common characteristic in language teaching and that is grammar instruction. The grammar instruction tends to follow a scheme where materials first present explicit information to learners, followed by mechanical activities, and then finally where learners may use new structures of forms to express meaning. Language systems can be seen as a stretch of language or a genre, which is defined as a class of language use and communication that occur in a particular community. Much research was focused on genres in the recent past. The great concern in this field is to identify the genres that students will use inside



the target situation and then assist learners to deconstruct them in order to understand how they are structured and how the structure relates to the objectives of the target groups.



## CHAPTER THREE

### A TASK COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS OF COMPLAINT INTERVIEWS IN SEPEDI

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter a series of communication tasks is analyzed within the framework of Robinson's (2005) cognitive complexity theory for specific purposes second language course design, invoking the context of the interviews held with complainants at the Community Service Centre of the South African Police Service. The complexities of the specific interviews are analyzed, invoking the generic structures, exemplified by the communicative phrases and the specific generic moves in dialogues on police complaint interviews.

Robinson (2005) developed a framework which posits that pedagogic tasks can be sequenced for learners on the basis of increases in complexity. This model is known as the *Resource-directing (developmental) and Resource-dispersing (performative) dimensions of complexity and it posit implications for task sequencing*. In this chapter it will be referred to as Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM).

Henry and Roseberry (1998) focused their study on the genre-approach to second language teaching and learning. They describe genre as a text that serves a particular purpose and is composed of a series of segments called communicative or rhetorical moves. Some of the moves are obligatory, in that they are necessary to achieve the communication purpose, while other moves are optional. Optional moves are not necessary to complete the communicative process.

Basturkman (2006: page 51) describes a genre as a class of language use and communication that occurs in particular communities. The communicative purpose of a genre is seen as its defining feature that sets it apart from other genres. The purpose can further be explained with respect to the form and feature of the language use of the particular genre.

All the Sepedi dialogues analyzed in this chapter can be characterized into the following three broad phases of macro generic moves:

**i) The Initial Phase (Introductory phase)**

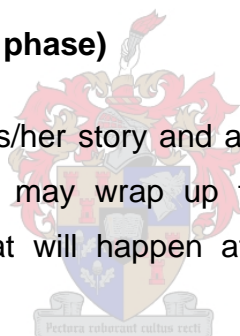
The communication content of this phase or segment constitutes the segment where the complainant and the police official meet. They exchange certain detail as required by police statement procedures. The police official guides and directs the discourse.

**ii) The Narrative Phase**

The Narrative Phase comprises of the complaint “story,” i.e. the narration of the events of the specific complainant where he or she plays the primary role. The story is initiated and guided by the complainant him-/ herself and the police official may intervene with additional questions or for requesting clarification or for confirmation checks.

**iii) The Final Phase (closure phase)**

After the complainant has told his/her story and all additional questions were asked by the police official, the latter may wrap up the situation and provide a final explanation as regards to what will happen after the complainant leaves. The interview ends with the greeting.



It is important to note that due to privileged information, the specific names and other personal detail of the complainants within the specific cases were changed. In the analysis of the different complainants (cases) the specific and different categories of complaints are reflected in the paragraphs below.

### **3.2 ANALYSIS OF SPEECH UNIT [ASU]**

Foster et al (2000) argues that the analysis of the spoken language requires a principled way of dividing transcribed data into units in order to assess features such as accuracy and complexity. In order to utilize such units, it must be necessary to apply such predetermined units to a variety of speech data. Foster et al (2000) point out that researchers utilizing such units often attempt to measure the frequency of certain discourse features, or the frequency of grammatical features, or lastly to measure quantitatively such dimensions as the relative grammatical accuracy,

fluency of language in their data and syntactic complexity. They further argue that in order to determine syntactic complexity, the researchers need to segment the existing or available data into units of which frequencies can be calculated. Therefore, they state, that such a unit is an essential tool in applied linguistics through which quantitative analysis of the spoken language is possible. In the assessment of the spoken language, this view resulted in the assumption that the more language and segments are available in a discourse, the better it is to divide it into units. This assumption of more language led to the characterizing of productivity and complexity.

## **ANALYSIS OF SEPEDI DIALOGUES OF POLICE STATEMENTS TAKEN IN THE COMMUNITY SERVICE CENTER IN TERMS OF COGNITIVE AND SYNTACTIC COMPLEXITY**

### **3.3 DIALOGUE 1 [page 152 of the Appendix]**

#### **3.1.1 Analysis of dialogue 1 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)**

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category assault with the attention to present grievous bodily harm.

#### **Sentences 1 to 24 of dialogue 1, presented, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's DCM the segment comprising sentences 1 to 24, characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official asks the relevant questions to the complainant in order to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's DCM there are relatively few elements present, and no casual reasoning is needed. The communication happens in the present tense that is, the "here and now". Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specified in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

PO: [1] Tsena [Invitation to enter the office]  
Come in

PO: [2] Ee, dumela mme [Greeting]  
Ee Hello Mrs

C: [3] Dumela ntate lepodisa [Response to greeting]  
Hello Mr Police Man

PO: [4] O kae? [Enquiry about well being]  
How are you?

C: [5] Ke gona ntate [Response]  
We are fine sir.

PO: [6] Ee, dulang. [Invitation to sit down]  
Yes, you can take a seat.

C: [7] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]  
Thank you sir.

PO: [8] Molato ke eng? [Enquiry about problem]What is the problem.

CO: [9] Ke sa nyaka go bega taba. [Statement of intent to lay charge]  
I want to lay a complaint.

PO: [10] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo.  
[Requests to ask personal questions]  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.

C: [11] Ee, le amogelebile. [Agreement]  
Yes, you are welcome.

The police official subsequently proceeds with the completion of a case docket SAP 3. The following questions, in sentences 12 to 21, are sequenced according to the

specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

PO: [12] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago. [Requests for name]

Yes, you can give us your name.

C: [13] Leina la ka ke nna Noko. [Presents her name]

My name is Noko.

PO: [14] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang? [Requests for surname]

What is your surname.

C: [15] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka. [Presents her surname]

My surname is Manaka.

PO: [16] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at home]

What is your phone number at home?

C: [17] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065. [Provides the number]

The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [18] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong? [Requests for telephone number at work]The telephone number of yours at work?

C: [19] Ya mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides this number]

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [20] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks the residential address]

Yes what is your home address.

C: [21] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street,Central Town, Cape Town. [Presents physical street address]

My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [22] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information and invites brief of incident]

Thank you, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [23] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate. [Agreement to narrate the events]

I can explain it sir.

PO: [24] Agee, tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]

All right continue.

Dialogue 1 continues:

**Sentences 25 to 32 of dialogue 1, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

The discourse part can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue, in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not in the present tense, that is the "here and now", but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a description by the complainant of actions and counteractions in the specific sequence that the events relating to the assault took place.

C: [25] Mošupologo, ka iri ya monyanya, ke be ke ile kua Silver Coffee Shop mo setarata sa Adderley. [Indicates specific date, time and place where incident happened]

Monday at four o'clock I went to the Silver Coffee Shop in Adderley Street.

[26] Gona bjale, monna yo mosweu o sa nbatametše, ke a mo tseba, ba mmitša ka leina la Michael. [Identifies known person who was involved]

There a white man approached me, I know him, they call him Michael.



[27] Bjale Michael o a mpoša gore o sa nyaka diranta tše lešome mo nna.

[Indicates what other person wanted]

Michael then wanted ten rand from me.

[28] Ke mmoditše gore ga ke ne tshelete. [Presents her response]

I told him that I do not have money.

[29] Gape yena o a thoma go ntšhošetša ka gore o tla ntlhaba ka thipha. [Relay the events after her response]

He then started to threaten me to stab me with a knife.

[30] Michael o ntlhabile ka thipha mo mpong ya ka. [Action that occurs between complainant and assailant]

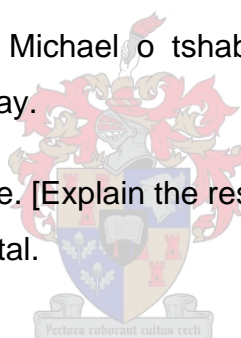
Michael then stabbed me in the stomach with the knife.

[31] Ke thome go lla mme Michael o tshabile. [Describes reaction of both] started to cry and he ran away.

[32] E be gona ke ile sepetlele. [Explain the result of action]

After that I went to the hospital.

Dialogue 1 continues:



### **Sentences 33 to 36 of dialogue 1, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure).**

The discourse segment in sentences 33 to 36 can be characterized as Dimension 1, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation of the process that will follow. The discourse comprises of exchanges performed in the present tense, hence the "here and now." This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity. As before, the generic micro move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

PO: [33] Re a leboga mme. [Expresses thanks]

Thank you madam.

[34] Re feditše.[Indication that discussion is completed]

We are finished.

[35]Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša

gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [ Explanation on process to be followed from here]

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [36] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse. [Expression of thanks and greeting]

Thank you sir, stay well.

### 3.3.2 Summary of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 1:

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from dimension 1 and 3, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the realization of the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that the reference of this discourse interaction is not in the present tense, but past tense.

### 3.3.3 Analysis of dialogue 1 within the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech unit (ASU)

The segment comprising of sentences 1-24, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-8, 12-21 and 23-24. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. In sentence [9], the main clause verb **nyaka** takes an infinitival clause complement verb. The complex clause in sentence [10] consists of a temporal adjunct clause, with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause with in sentence [22] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**,

which takes a indicative complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentences 25 -32, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment. With the exception of sentence [30], all the other sentences consist of complex clauses. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [25] consists of a complex clause containing the compound tense with **be**, taking a perfect tense form with **-ile**. Sentence [26] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of three indicative mood clauses, where the second and third clauses express elaboration of the information provided are preceded by a comma pause. The complex clause structure exemplified by sentence [27] consists of an indicative clause introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**. The complex clause in sentence [31] consists of a main clause with the verb **thome**, taking an infinitival complement containing the verb **lla**, followed by an indicative perfect tense clause, denoting a successive event. The complex clause structure exhibited by sentence [32] contains a clause with the copulative verb **be**, which takes an indicative perfect tense clause complement **-ile**.

The segment comprising of sentences 33-36, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentences [33] and [34] are simple clauses. Sentence [35] and [36] are complex clauses. Sentence [35] which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses including the infinitival complement clause. Sentence [36] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

### 3.3.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 1:

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex

clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

### **3.4 DIALOGUE 2 [page 154 of the Appendix]**

#### **3.4.1 Analysis of dialogue 2 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)**

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category on housebreaking.

**Sentences 1 to 23 of dialogue 2, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this discourse segment is characteristic of Dimension 1, as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official asks the relevant questions to the complainant to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) there are relatively few elements present, and no casual reasoning is needed. Few expressions on temporal and spatial phrases occur and there is no causality. The communication happens in the present tense, that is the "here and now." Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specified in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

- PO: [1] Ee, dumela ntate [Greeting]  
Ee Hello Mr
- C: [2] Dumela ntate lepodisa [Response to greeting] Hello Mr Police Man
- PO: [3] Le kae? [Enquiry about well being]  
How are you?
- C: [4] Re gona ntate [Response]  
We are fine sir.
- PO: [5] Ee, o ka tšea setulo. [Invitation to sit down]  
Yes, you can take a seat.
- C: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]  
Thank you sir.
- PO: [7] Molato ke eng? [Enquiry about problem]  
What is the problem.
- CO: [8] Ke sa nyaka go bega taba. [Statement of intent to lay charge]  
I want to lay a complaint.
- PO: [9] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo. [Requests to ask personal questions]  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.
- C: [10] Ee, le amogelebile. [Agreement]  
Yes, you are welcome.

The police official then proceeds with the completion of a case docket SAP 3. The following questions, in sentences 11 to 20 are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

- PO: [11] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago. [Requests for name] Yes, you can give us your name.

C: [12] Leina la ka ke nna Noko. [Presents name]My name is Noko.

PO: [13] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang? [Requests surname]

What is your surname.

C: [14] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka. [Presents surname]

My surname is Manaka.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at home]

What is your phone number at home?

C: [16] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065. [Provides number]

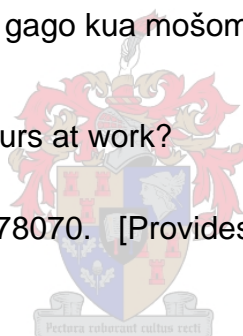
The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [17] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong? [Requests for telephone number at work]

The telephone number of yours at work?

C: [18] Ya mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides number]

At work it is 0214678070.



PO: [19] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks residential address]

Yes what is your home address.

C: [20] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

[Presents physical Street address]

My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [21] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information and invites brief of incident]

Thank you, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [22] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate. [Agreement to narrate events]

I can explain it sir.

PO: [23] Agee, tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]All right continue.

Dialogue 2 continues:

**Sentences 24 to 29 of dialogue 2, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

This discourse segment in sentences 24 to 29 can, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official makes requests to obtain the detail of the incident. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not performed in the present tense, that is the "here and now", but in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a description by the complainant of actions and counteractions, in the specific sequence that the events relating to the housebreaking took place.

C: [24] Ka Sontaga go 26, ke ile kua Bellville go reka dilo tša lebenkele la ka.

[Indicates specific date time and place where incident happened]

On Sunday the 26<sup>th</sup>, I went to Bellville to buy things for my shop.

[25] Ke na le khefi. [Acknowledges ownership]I have a restaurant.

[26] Ke ile ka iri ya half past four. [Indicate time of arrival at scene]

I went at half past four.

[27] Ge ke bua mo khefing ya ka ke bona gore lefasetere le butšwe. [Relay what happened on arrival]

When I returned to my restaurant I noticed the window is open.

[28] Ke ile kua lefasetere leo mme ke bona gore le robegile. [Reveal what was noticed] I went over to the window and noticed that it was broken.



[29] Bjale ke tsene khefing mme ke bona gore mapotlelo a mararo a seno sa JB, ga a kgone. [Identify what was taken]

I entered the shop and noticed that three bottles of liquor, JB, were gone.

Dialogue 2 continues:

**Sentences 30 to 35 of dialogue 2, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

The discourse segment in sentences 30 to 35 can, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official makes requests to obtain the detail of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. It is performed in the present tense, the "here and now." This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer format in that the police official needs to determine the cost and enquire about possible suspects.

PO: [30] O kgopola gore tshenyegelo ya gago ke bokae? [Requests cost implication] What do you think is the damage?

C: [31] Bjale, lepotlelo la JB ke R100, bjale mapotlele a mararo ke diranta tša makgolo a moraro, le lefasetere ke diranta tše sekete. [Determine and present cost]

Well, a bottle of JB is R100, and three bottles will then be R300, and the window will cost R1000 to replace.

PO: [32] Ee, go na le motho yo o mokgopolela na? [Attempt to identify suspects]  
Yes, is there anybody that you suspect.

C: [33] Aowa kgoši, ga ke gopolele motho. [Response to question]  
No, sir I suspect no one.

PO: [34] Bjale mapotlelo ao, o sa kgona go a tlemoga ge o a bone gape. [Need to determine possibility to identify own property]

Now, will you be able to identify the bottles if you see it again.

CO: [35] Ee, ke ka kgona go le šupa mapotlelo ao ge a na le boitshwaro bja ka.  
[Acknowledgment]

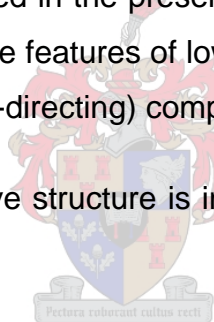
Yes I will be able to show you my bottles if it has my labels.

Dialogue 2 continues:

**Sentences 36 to 39 of dialogue 2, constitutes the Final Phase (Closure) .**

The discourse segment in sentences 36 to 39 can be characterized as Dimension 1, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation of the process that will follow . The discourse comprises of exchanges performed in the present tense, hence the " here and now." This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity.

As before, the generic micro move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.



PO: [36] Re a leboga tate. [Expresses thanks]

Thank you sir.

[37] Re feditše. [Indication that discussion is completed]

We are finished.

[38] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [39] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse. [ Expression of thanks and greeting]

Thank you sir, stay well.

### 3.4.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 2:

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to Dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, in terms of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflection on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that the reference of this discourse is not in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into content conveying the reflection on the specific incident, and content on specific interaction, in the present tense, on the incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### 3.4.3 Analysis of dialogue 2 within the framework of Foster et al' s Analysis of Speech Unit (ASU)

The segment comprising of sentences 1-23, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-7, 11-20 and 22-23. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. In sentences [8], the main clause verb **nyaka** takes an infinitival clause complement. The complex clause in sentence [9] consists of a temporal adjunct clause with **ka** with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause in sentence [21] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes an indicative complement clause, introduced by the complementizer **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentences 24 -35, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment. With the exception of sentence [25] and [31]

to[33], all the other sentences consist of complex clauses. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentences [24] and [26] consists of a complex clause containing the perfect tense form of the verb **-ya**, namely **-ile**. Sentence [27] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of three indicative mood clauses, where the second and third clauses express elaboration of the information provided. The complex clause structure exemplified by sentence [27] consists of an indicative clause introduced by the **complementizer clause with gore**, followed by the perfect tense, of the verb **butšwe**.

Sentence [28] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of three indicative mood clauses, where the second and third clauses express elaboration of the information provided are preceded. The complex clause in sentence [28] includes the complementizer clause with **gore**, and also contains the perfect tense form **-ile**, of the verb **robega**. The complex clause in sentence [29] consists of a main clause with the verb, **tsene**, preceding the complementizer clause with **gore**. It further consist of three indicative mood clauses, where the second and third clause express elaboration of the information provided, and the third clause is preceded by a comma pause.

The complex clause in sentence [30] consists of an indicative clause followed by a complementizer clause with **gore** as well as the copulative clause with **ke bokae**. The complex clause in sentence [34] consists of a main clause with the verb **kgona**, preceded by the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [35] is also a complex clause preceded by the preposition **ka**.

The segment comprising of sentences 36-39, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentences [36] and [37] are simple clauses. Sentence [38] and [39] are complex clauses. Sentence [38] which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses including the infinitival complement clause. Sentence [39] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

### **3.4.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 2:**

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

### **3.5 DIALOGUE 3 [page 157 of the Appendix]**

#### **3.5.1 Analysis of dialogue 3 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)**

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category theft out of a motor vehicle.

**Sentences 1 to 23 of dialogue 3, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official is asking the relevant questions to obtain the necessary information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) these are few elements present, in that no reasoning is needed and it happens in the "here and now." Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

- PO: [1] Ee, dumela ntate [Greeting]  
Ee Hello Mr
- C: [2] Dumela ntate lepodisa [Response to greeting]  
Hello Mr Police Man
- PO: [3] Le kae? [Enquiry about well being]  
How are you?
- C: [4] Re gona ntate [Response]We are fine sir.
- PO: [5] Ee, o ka tšea setulo. [Invitation to sit down]Yes, you can take a seat.
- C: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]  
Thank you sir.
- PO: [7] Molato ke eng? [Enquiry about problem]  
What is the problem.
- CO: [8] Ke sa nyaka go bega taba. [Statement of intent to lay charge]  
I want to lay a complaint.
- PO: [9] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo. [Requests to ask personal questions]  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.
- C: [10] Ee, le amogelebile. [Agreement]  
Yes, you are welcome.

The police official will now proceed with the completion of a case docket SAP 3. The following questions, in sentences 11 to 20 are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

- PO: [11] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago. [Requests for name]  
Yes, you can give us your name.

C: [12] Leina la ka ke nna Noko. [Present name]  
My name is Noko.

PO: [13] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang? [Requests for surname]  
What is your surname.

C: [14] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka. [Present surname]  
My surname is Manaka.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at home]  
What is your phone number at home?

C: [16] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065. [Provides the number]  
The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [17] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong? [Requests for telephone number at work]  
The telephone number of yours at work?

C: [18] Ga ke na mošomo. [Indicate that has no number]  
I do not have a work.

PO: [19] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks the residential address]  
Yes what is your home address.

C: [20] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.  
[Presents physical street address]  
My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [21] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information and invites brief of accident]  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [22] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate. [Agreement to narrate the events]  
I can explain it sir.



PO: [23] Agee, tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]  
All right continue.

Dialogue 3 continues:

**Sentences 24 to 28 of dialogue 3, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

This part can according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue, in that more frequent expressions of spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not performed in the present tense, that is the "here and now", but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a description by the complainant of actions and counteractions in a specific sequence as to how the theft out of the motor vehicle happened.

C: [24] Ka Mokibelo ke ile go etela bagwera ba ka. [Indication of date and what action was performed]  
On Saturday I went to visit my friends.

[25] Ke ile ka mmotoro wa ka. [Indicate means of transport]  
I went with my motor.

[26] Kua ngwakong ya bagwera ke phaka mmotoro kua hukung. [Indicate location of vehicle]  
At the house of my friends I parked the car at the corner.

[27] Ge re bua kua mmotoro go ya toropong, re hwetša gore ba robegile lefasetere le senotlelo. [Indication of damage found]

When we returned to the vehicle to go to town, we found that the window and doorlock were broken.

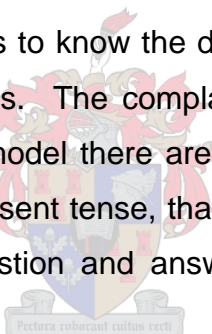
[28] Ba utšwitše radio le di-CD, le baki ya ka. [Describes what was lost]

They stole my radio, CD's and jacket.

Dialogue 3 continues:

**Sentences 29 to 34 of dialogue 3, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

This part can according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. It is performed in the present tense, that is the "here and now." This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer model to determine cost and where possible suspects.



PO: [29] Ee, go na le motho yo o mokgopolela na? [Determine possibility of suspects]  
Yes, is there anybody that you suspect.

C: [30] Ee, ntate ke gopolela bafana ba be ba sa dule kua khefing [Acknowledge possibilities]  
Yes, sir I suspect the young men that sat at the café.

PO: [31] O sa kgona go le bontsha bafana bao? [Attempt to identify if found]  
Will you be able to identify those men.

C: [32] Ee, ba be ba apere dijeans le dihempe tša Kaizer Chiefs, mme ba be ba na le dipaesekele tše khubedu. [Explains their clothing for easier reference] Yes, they wore jeans and shirts of Kaizer Chiefs and they had red bicycles.

PO: [33] Bjale dilo tša gago, o sa kgona go e tlemoga ge o e bone gape. [Determine if able to identify own property]

Now, will you be able to identify your stuff if you see it again.

CO: [34] Ee, ke ka kgona go le šupa baki le di CD tša ka, ka gore ke ngwaditše leina la ka ka gare ga tšona. [Agreement]

Yes I will be able to show you my jackets and CD's because I wrote my name in the inside of it.

Dialogue 3 continues:

### **Sentences 35 to 38 of dialogue 3, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure).**

The discourse segment in sentences 35 to 38 can be characterized as Dimension 1, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation on the process that will follow. It is also performed in the present tense, hence the "here and now." This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The generic micro move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

PO: [35] Re a leboga tate. [Expresses thanks]

Thank you sir.

[36] Re feditše. [Indication that discussion is completed]We are finished.

[37] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [38] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse. [Expression of thanks and greetings]

Thank you sir, stay well.

### 3.5.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 3:

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3, of Robinson's Model, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to Dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflecting on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference will lie in the fact that this interaction is not dealt with in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into the reflecting on the specific incident as well as specific interaction, in the present tense, on the said incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### 3.5.3 Analysis of dialogue 3 from the respective of Fosters ASU

The segment comprising of sentences 1-23, namely the Introductory Phase, consist mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-7, 11-20 and 22-23. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. In sentence [8], the main clause verb **nyaka** takes an infinitival clause complement, preceding the main verb. The complex clause in sentence [9] consists of a temporal adjunct clause with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause in sentence [21] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes an indicative complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentences 24 -34, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment. With the exception of sentence [26] and [29], all the other sentences consist of complex clauses. This segment therefore

illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentences [24] and [25] consist of a complex clause where the verb **ya** took the perfect tense form **ile**. Sentence [27] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of three indicative mood clauses, where the second and third clauses express elaboration of the information provided, and preceded by a comma pause. It is further structured with the complementizer clause with **gore**, following the main clause.

Sentence [28] demonstrates the perfect tense form **-ile** of the verb **utšwa**. Sentence [30] consists of a complex clause containing a compound tense with **be** taking a perfect tense form as well as the infinitival complement clause. Sentence [31] also demonstrates the infinitival complement clause. Sentence [32] demonstrates the same complex clause characteristics as sentence [30]. Sentence [33] consists of three indicative mood clauses preceded by the infinitival complement clause.

Sentence [34] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of three indicative mood clauses, where the second and third clauses express elaboration of the information provided are preceded including the temporal adjunct clause. The complex clause in sentence [34] includes the complementizer clause with **gore**, and also containing the perfect tense form **-ile** of the verb **ngwadiša**, preceded by the complementizer clause with **gore**.

The segment comprising of sentences 35-38, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentences [35] and [36] are simple clauses. Sentence [37] and [38] are complex clauses. Sentence [37] which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses including the infinitival complement clause. Sentence [38] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

#### 3.5.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 3:

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by

Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

### **3.6 DIALOGUE 4 [page 160 of the Appendix]**

#### **3.6.1 Analysis of dialogue 4 from the respective of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)**

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category on theft.

**Sentences 1 to 21 of dialogue 4, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official is asking the relevant questions to obtain the necessary information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) these are few elements present, in that no reasoning is needed and it happens in the present tense. Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

PO: [1] Ee, dumela ntate [Greeting]

Ee Hello Mr

C: [2] Dumela ntate lepodisa [Greeting]

Hello mr Police Man

PO: [3] Le kae? [Enquiry about well being]  
How are you?

C: [4] Re gona ntate [Response]  
We are fine sir.

PO: [5] Ee, o ka tšea setulo. [Invitation to sit down]  
Yes, you can take a seat.

C: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]  
Thank you sir.

PO: [7] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo.  
[Requests to ask personal questions]  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.

C: [8] Ee, le amoglegile. [Agreement]  
Yes, you are welcome.

The police official will now proceed with the completion of a case docket [SAP 3] and the following questions, in sentences 9 to 21, are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are presented in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

PO: [9] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago. [Requests for name]  
Yes, you can give us your name.

C: [10] Leina la ka ke nna Noko. [Present name]  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang? [Requests for surname]  
What is your surname.

C: [12] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka. [Presents surname]  
My surname is Manaka.



PO: [13] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at home]

What is your phone number at home?

C: [14] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065. [Provides cell phone number]

The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong? [Requests for telephone number at work]

The telephone number of yours at work?

C: [16] Ya mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides number]

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks the residential address]

Yes what is your home address.

C: [18] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town. [Presents physical street address]

My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information and invites brief of incident]

Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [20] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate. [Agreement to narrate the events]

I can explain it sir.

PO: [21] Agee, tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]

All right continue.

Dialogue 4 continues:

### **Sentences 22 to 25 of dialogue 4, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

The discourse reference in sentence 22 to 25 can, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official makes requests to obtain detail of the incident. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue, in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phases occur. The discourse reference is not performed in the present tense, but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a description of actions and counteractions in a specific sequence as to how it happened.

C: [22] Mmh! Ntate ka naka yeo, ke ile ka tlogela kamora ya ka go Bontewiel Hotel, kua setarata sa Louis le Grange, Cape Town. [Indicates place where incident occurred]

Mmh! Sir at that time I left my room at Bontewiel Hotel, in Louis le Grange Street, Cape Town.



[23] Ka e be e le quarter to seven ka nako eo. [Indicates precise time]

It was quarter to seven.

[24] Ke ile ka bua kamora ya ka ka one o'clock ya bošego. [Demonstrates on when returned]

I came back to my room at one o'clock the night.

[25] Ke hwetša gore, khamera ya ka le ye e ka fihla diranta tše dikete tše tharo le makgolo a mane le fifty ranta ga e kgone. [Identifies what is stolen]

I then found out that my camera that costs three thousand five hundred and fifty rand was gone.

Dialogue 4 continues:

**Sentences 26 to 29 of dialogue 4, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

This part can according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. It is performed in the here and now. This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer model to determine cost and where possible suspects.

PO: [26] Ee, go na le motho yo o mokgopolela na? [Attempt to identify suspects] Yes, is there anybody that you suspect.

C: [27] Ee, ntate ke gopolela motho o sa na le kamora hleng ya ka.. [Acknowledgment] Yes, sir I suspect the person in the room next to mine.

PO: [28] Bjale khamera ya gago, o sa kgona go e tlemoga ge o e bone gape. [Need to determine possibility to identify own property] Now, will you be able to identify the camera if you see it again.

CO: [29] Ee, ke ka kgona go le šupa khamera ya ka. [Acknowledgment] Yes I will be able to show you my camera.

Dialogue 4 continues:

**Sentences 30 to 33 of dialogue 4, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure).**

The discourse segment in sentence 30 to 33, can be characterized as part of Dimension 1, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. From Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation on the process that will follow. It is also performed in the present tense, hence the " here and now." This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity.

PO: [30] Re a leboga tate. [Expresses thanks]

Thank you sir.

[31] Re feditše. [Indication that discussion is completed]

We are finished.

[32] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [33] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse. [Expression of thanks and greeting]

Thank you sir, stay well.

### **3.6.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 4:**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model [DCM] this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3, of Robinson's Model, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to Dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflecting on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference will lie in the fact that this interaction is not dealt with in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into the reflecting on the specific incident as well as specific interaction, in the present tense, on the said incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### **3.6.3 Analysis of dialogue 4 from the respective of Fosters ASU**

The segment comprising of sentences 1-21, namely the Introductory Phase, consist mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-6, 9-18 and 21. Only a few instances of

complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. In sentence [7], the main clause verb **tswela** is followed by an infinitival clause complement. The complex clause in sentence [19] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes the indicative complement clause, introduced by the complementizer **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**. The complex clause in sentence [20] also contains the temporal adjunct preposition **ka**.

The segment comprising of sentences 22 -29, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment. With the exception of sentence [26], all the other sentences consist of complex clauses. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [22] consists of a complex clause where the verb **ya** took the perfect tense form **ile**. Sentence [23] illustrates a complex clause containing a compound tense with **be** taking a perfect tense form. Sentence [24] also demonstrates the perfect tense form **ile**, as well as the temporal adjunct preposition **ka**. Sentence [25] has a complex clause with a complementizer clause with **gore** following after the verb **hwetša**.

Sentences [27] and [28] both are complex clauses that reflect the infinitival clause complement. In sentence [29] the complex clause verb **kgona** is preceded by the temporal adjunct preposition **ka**.

The segment comprising of sentences 30-33, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentences [30] and [31] are simple clauses. Sentence [32] and [33] are complex clauses. Sentence [32] which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses including the infinitival complement clause. Sentence [33] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

#### 3.6.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 4:

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by

Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

### **3.7 DIALOGUE 5 [page 163 of the Appendix]**

#### **3.7.1 Analysis of dialogue 5 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)**

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category attempted theft out of motor vehicle and damage to property.

**Sentences 1 to 21 of dialogue 5, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official is asking the relevant questions to the complainant to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) there are relatively few elements present and no casual reasoning is needed. The communication happens in the present tense. Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specified in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

PO: [1] Dumela ntate [Greeting]

Good day sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena lephodisa [Response to greeting]

Good day Mr Policeman

PO: [3] Le kae? [Enquiry about well being]

How are you.

CO: [4] Aowa re gona. [Response]

No it is well.

PO: [5] All right, anke o dula mo. [Invitation to sit down]

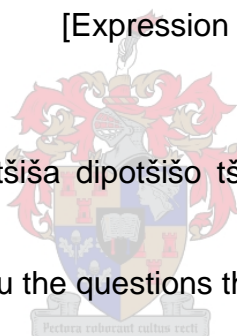
All right please sit here.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]

Thank you.

PO: [7] Ee, re tlo rata go go botšiša dipotšišo tše di sa latela. [Requests to ask personal questions]

Yes, we would like to ask you the questions that follows.



CO: [8] Ee, le amogegile. [Agreement]

Yes, you are welcome.

The police official subsequently proceeds with the completion of a case docket SAP 3. The following questions, in sentences 9 to 19 are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [9] Aha, le ka re botša leina. [Requests for name]

Aha, please tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina la ka ke Noko. [Presents name]

My name is Noko.



PO: [11] Sefana sa lena re eng? [Requests for surname]  
What is your surname?

CO: [12] Sefana sa ka ke Manaka. [Presents surname]  
My surname is Manaka.

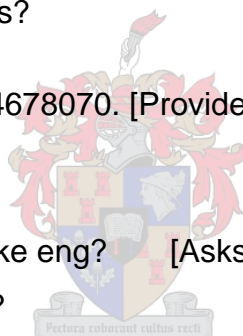
PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at home]  
The number of the phone at home is?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya ka ke 0722588065 [Provides number]  
My number is 0722588065.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya telephomo kua mmereko ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at work]  
The phone number at work is?

CO: [16] Kua mmerekong ke 0214678070. [Provides number]  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks residential address]  
What is your home address?



CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town. [Provides address]  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] O ka re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng? [Invites brief of incident]  
Can you explain to us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Aah, ke ka kgona. [Agreement]Aah, yes I can.

PO: [21] Ee, re ka tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]  
Yes, we can continue.

Dialogue 5 continues:

**Sentences 22 to 31 of dialogue 5, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

The discourse can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not performed in the present tense, but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a description by the complainant of actions and counteractions in the specific sequence that the events relating to the crime took place.

CO: [22] Ka nako yeo, ke be ke le mmerekong, ke šoma mo Coin Security. [Indicate own position]

At that stage I was on duty, I work at Coin Security.

[23] Ke ile kua Parkley Bay, mo Bumpy Road. [Identify location]

I was in Parkley Bay in Bumpy Road.

[24] Kgona mo ke bone monna yo mosotho, eeh, mme ke bona monna o mongwe wammala, monna wo o apere borokgo bjo bontsha. [Saw suspects]  
There I saw a black man and another man, a colored, this man wore a black trousers.

[25] Ke ile ka bona monna yo mosotho o ile kgauswi ga koloi ye nngwe ya 4x4.

[Describe what suspect did]

I then saw this man approaching a 4x4 vehicle.

PO: [26] Mme. [Urge to continue]

And

CO: [27] Monna yo o ile kgauswi o tswere setena o betha lefasetere la ka morago la koloi. [Describe how vehicle was damaged]

The man who went closer had a brick and hit the back window of the bakkie.

[28] Ke be ke ba batamela ge ke bona o thuba kolozi ya batho. [Explains own reaction]

I went towards him when he started to break the vehicle.

[29] So, ge ke ye go yena, a leka go tšhaba, ka be ke mo kitimiša mme ka kgona go mo swara. [What the suspect did]

So when I went towards him, he started to run away, and I followed him as to catch him.

[30] Ge ke fihla go yena, o a mphetha ka setena mo sefahlogong. [How complainant got injured]

When I closed in on him he hit me with the brick in the face.

[31] Ke be ke ntšha tonkipili ya ka ke mmetha ka yona, ka lebaka leo ka kgona go mo swara mme go mo tliša mo mapodiseng. [Explain reaction after assault] I then took out my baton and hit him and that is how I managed to catch him and bring him to the station.

Dialogue 5 continues:

**Sentences 32 to 35 of dialogue 11, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

The discourse segment in sentences 32 to 35 can, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events that occurred. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. The discourse is performed in the present tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer format in that the police official needs to enquire about the possibility whether the complainant will testify in court..

PO: [32] Ahaa, e ka ba o tseba gore o utswitšwego selo se sengwe se se sengwe kua koloi na? [Enquiry on property stolen]

Ahaa, do you know of anything that he stole from the vehicle.

CO: [33] Aowa o utswitše selo ntate, ke ile ka mmona ge o betha lefasetere la koloi. [Confirmation on question]

He stole nothing sir, as I saw him when he hit the window.

PO: [34] Bjale, o ka kgona go ya kgorong go fa bohlatse ge le ka kgopelwa go dira bjalo? [Request if complainant will testify]

Will you be able to appear before court to testify, if you are requested to.

CO: [35] Ee, ke ka kgona. [Agreement]

Yes I can.

Dialogue 5 continues:

### **Sentence 36 of dialogue 5, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure).**

This segment of the dialogue can be characterized as part of Dimension 1, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge concerning police procedure is required of the official to explain the way forward in dealing with the case. In terms of Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation on the process that will follow. It is also performed in the present tense, hence the "here and now." This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity.

PO: [36] Re a leboga Ntate. [Expression of appreciation]

Thank you sir.-----

### **3.7.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 5:**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model [DCM] this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3, of Robinson's Model, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are

required. The flow to Dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflecting on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that this interaction is not dealt with in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into content conveying the reflection on the specific incident, and content on specific interaction, in the present tense, on the incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### 3.7.3 Analysis of dialogue 5 within the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit (ASU)

The segment comprising of sentences 1-21, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-6, 9-19 and 21. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. In sentence [7], the main clause verb **tswela** is followed by an infinitival clause complement, **tlo**. The complex clause in sentence [19] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes a complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**. The complex clause in sentence [20] also contains the temporal adjunct preposition **ka**.

The segment comprising of sentences 22 -35, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment. With the exception of sentence [26], all the other sentences consist of complex clauses. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [22] consists of a complex clause containing a compound tense with **be** taking a perfect tense form with the verb **ile**. Sentence [23] and [24] illustrate a perfect tense form of the verb **ya**, reflected as **ile**, as well as the perfect tense **apere**. Sentence [25] illustrates two indicative mood clauses, where the second is preceded

by a comma pause, and the verb **ya**, is reflected as the perfect tense form **ile**. Sentence [27] illustrates three indicative mood clauses, with the verb **ya**, again reflected as the perfect tense form **ile**.

Sentence [28] also demonstrates two indicative mood clauses, the first clause containing the compound tense with **be**, and where the second clause is introduced by the situative clause conjunction **ge**. Sentence [29] is preceded by the situative clause conjunction **ge**, and contains four complex clauses, with the verb **kitima**, exhibiting the affix **iša**. Sentence [30] is also introduced by the situative clause conjunction **ge**. Sentence [31] demonstrates the complex clause containing a compound tense with **be** and the temporal adjunct clause with **ka**. Sentence [32] demonstrates two complex clauses, with the temporal adjunct clause preceding the verb **utswa** in the perfect tense form as well as the complementizer clause with **gore**. Sentence [33] demonstrates three clauses, with verbs reflected in the perfect tense form. Sentence [34] also demonstrates more than one complex clause in the sentence, with the temporal adjunct clause with **ka**, preceding all other clauses. Sentence [35] also demonstrates the same temporal adjunct clause with **ka**.

The segment comprising of sentence 36, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies no degree of syntactic complexity, and is a simple clause.

#### 3.7.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 5:

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

### 3.8 DIALOGUE 6 [page 166 of the Appendix]

#### 3.8.1 Analysis of dialogue 6 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category on robbery.

**Sentences 1 to 21 of dialogue 6, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official asks the relevant questions to the complainant in order to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) there are relatively few elements present, and no casual reasoning is needed. The discourse happens in the present tense. Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specific in parenthesis next to each respective sentence.

PO: [1] Dumela ntate                      [Greeting]  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena                      [Response to greeting]  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?                              [Enquiry about well being]  
How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.                      [Response]  
No, everything is All right.



PO: [5] Le ka dula fase. [Invitation to sit down]

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo. [Requests to ask personal questions]

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelelegile. [Agreement]

Yes, you are welcome.

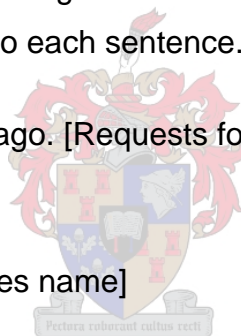
The police official subsequently proceeds with the completion of a case docket [SAP 3] and the following questions , in sentences 9 to 21, are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago. [Requests for name]

Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko. [Provides name]

My name is Noko.



PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng? [Requests for surname]

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka. [Provides surname]

It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at home]

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065. [Provides number]

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng? [Requests number at work]At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides number] At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Requests residential address]  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town. [Provides physical address]  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information and invites brief of incident]  
Thank you, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena. [Expression of appreciation]  
Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]  
Yes, let us proceed.

Dialogue 6 continues:



**Sentences 22 to 24 of dialogue 6, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

The discourse in sentences 22 to 24 can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events of the events of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue, in that more frequent expression of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not in the present tense, but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a descriptions by the complainant of actions and counteractions in the specific sequence that the events took place.

CO: [22] Ke be ke sa sepela mo tseleng. [Indicates actions leading to incident]

I was walking down the road.

[23] Ke tšwa kua felo ya lethabo, ke ile ka gahlana le banna ba bangwe ba babedi tseleng. [Indicates from where complainant came and what happened]

Coming from my favorite place when I met up with two other men in the road.

[24] Banna bao ba ile ba utšwa mokotlana wa ka, ba tšhaba kudu. [What suspects did]

Those men grabbed my handbag and ran away as fast as they could.

Dialogue 6 continues:

**Sentences 25 to 30 of dialogue 6, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

The discourse segment in sentences 25 to 36, can in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. The discourse happens in the present tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer format in that the police official needs to determine cost and where possible suspects. As before, the generic move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [25] Bjale o sa kgona go ba tseba banna bao. [Requests if possible to identify suspects]

Now will you be able to know those men.

CO: [26] Ee, ke sa kgona go ba tseba. [Acknowledgment]

Yes, I will be able to know them.

PO: [27] Go na le eng ka kgare ga mokotlana wa gago? [Identify what is lost]

What was inside your bag?

CO: [28] Ke be ke na le tšhelete le dikarata le laesense la ka la go otlela koloi.

[Explanation as what is lost]

I had some money, cards and my drivers licence.

PO: [29] Mokotlana wa gago o be mmala bjang? [Determine color of bag]

What was the color of your bag?

CO: [30] Mokotlana wa ka o be ntsho. [Response]

My bag was black.

Dialogue 6 continues:

### **Sentences 31 to 33 of dialogue 6, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure)**

The discourse segment in sentences 31 to 33 can be characterized as part of Dimension 1, in terms of to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation on the process that will follow. It is also performed in the present tense, hence the " here and now." This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity.

PO: [31] Re feditše. [Indicate that they are finished] Thank you sir.

[32] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]

We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [33] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse. [Expression of appreciation and greeting]

Thank you sir, stay well.

### 3.8.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 6:

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflection on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that this interaction is not dealt with in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into content conveying the reflection on the specific incident as well as specific interaction, in the present tense, on the incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### 3.8.3 Analysis of dialogue 6 within the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit (ASU)

The segment comprising of sentences 1-21, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-6, 9-18 and 20-21. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. The complex clause in sentence [7] consists of a temporal adjunct clause with **ka** with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause in sentence [19] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes a complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentences 22 -30, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment, with the exception of sentence [27]. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [22] consists of a complex clause containing the compound tense with **be**, followed by an infinitival complement clause. Sentence [23] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of two indicative mood clauses, where the second clause express elaboration of the information provided are preceded by a comma pause. The complex structure demonstrates the perfect tense form **-ile**. The complex clause structure exemplified by sentence [24] consists of two clauses where the second clause express elaboration of the information provided are preceded by a comma pause, and reflecting the perfect tense form **-ile**. Sentence [25] and [26] both reflect the main clause with the verb **kgona** preceded by the infinitival clause complement **sa**. Sentences [28] to [30] consist of a complex clause containing the compound tense with **be**.

The segment comprising of sentences 31-33, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentence [31] is a simple clause. Sentence [32] is a complex clauses. Sentence [32] which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses, also reflecting the complementizer clause with **gore** as well as the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [33] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.



#### **3.8.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 6:**

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

### 3.9 DIALOGUE 10 [page 177 of the Appendix]

#### 3.9.1 Analysis of dialogue 10 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category on assault with intention to inflict grievous bodily harm.

**Sentences 1 to 21 of dialogue 10, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official asks the relevant questions to the complainant in order to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) there are relatively few elements present, and no casual. The discourse happens in the present tense. Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [1] Dumela ntate [Greeting]

Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena [Response to greeting]

Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae? [Enquiry about well being]

How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona. [Response]

No, everything is All right.



PO: [5] Le ka dula fase. [Invitation to sit down]

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]

Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo. [Requests to ask personal questions]

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile. [Agreement]

Yes, you are welcome.

The police official subsequently proceeds with the completion of the case docket [SAP 3] and the following questions, in sentences 9 to 21 are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago. [Requests for name]

Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko. [Presents name]

My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng? [Requests for surname]

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka. [Presents surname]

It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng? [Requests telephone number at home]

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065. [Provides number at home]

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng? [Requests number at work]

At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides number at work]

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks for residential address]

Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town. [Provides address]

My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information and invites a brief of incident]

Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena. [Agreement]

Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele. [Encouragement to proceed]

Yes, let us proceed.



Dialogue 10 continues:

**Sentences 22 to 30 of dialogue 10, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

The discourse can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events of the events of the events of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue, in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not in the present tense, but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a descriptions by the complainant of

actions and counteractions in the specific sequence that the events took place.

CO: [22] Ka moo nako yeo, ke be ke tšwa boratapelo. [Explanation as to what complainant was doing]

At that time I came from where I like to go.

[23] Ke ile ka kopana le monna yo mongwe ba mmitša ka leina la Michael. [Meet with suspect]

I went and met up with a man they call Michael.

[24] Michael yena o ile a ntšosetša ka gore o sa nyaka go ntlhaba ka thipa. [Explain what suspect tried]

This Michael scared me because he wanted to stab me with a knife.

[25] Mme ke maketse gore ke a mo tseba, gape o a thoma go tlhaba. [Stabbing took place] And I was so amazed because I knew him, but he started to stab me.

PO: [26] O o gobetše kudu na? [Enquiry about injury]

Did he hurt you seriously?

CO: [27] Ee ntate o ntlhabetše mo legetla la ka [Explain where complainant was stabbed].

Yes sir, he stabbed me in the shoulder.

[28] Gona bjale ga ke kgone go šoma, letšogo la ka ga le na maatla. [Brief on impossibility to work due to injury]

Now I cannot work, my arm has no power.

PO: [29] Agee, o ile septleleng. [Inform if complainant went to hospital]

All right so you went to hospital.

CO: [30] Aowa, ba nthušitše gabotse kua gae, mme ga ke ne tshelete go patela dingaka. [Reasons provided for not attending to hospital]

No, they assisted me very well at home, and I had no money to pay the doctors.

Dialogue 10 continues:

### **Sentences 31 to 34 of dialogue 10, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure)**

The discourse segment in sentences 31 to 34 can be characterized as part of Dimension 1, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation of the process that will follow. The discourse comprises of exchanges performed in the present tense. This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity. As before, the generic micro move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [31] Re a leboga tate. [Expresses appreciation]

Thank you sir.

[32] Re feditše. [Declare that discussion is finished]

We are finished.

[33] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [34] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse. [Expression of appreciation and greeting]

Thank you sir, stay well.

### **3.9.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 10:**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3,, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflection on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that this interaction is not dealt

with in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into content conveying the reflection on the specific incident as well as specific interaction, in the present tense, on the incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### 3.9.3 Analysis of dialogue 10 within the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit (ASU)

The segment comprising of sentences 1-21, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-6, 9-18 and 20-21. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. The complex clause in sentence [7] consists of a temporal adjunct clause with **ka** with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause in sentence [19] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes a complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentences 22 -30, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [22] consists of a complex clause containing the compound tense with **be**. Sentence [23] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of two indicative mood clauses, where the second clause express elaboration of the information provided. The complex structure demonstrates the perfect tense form **-ile**. The complex clause structure exemplified by sentence [24] consists of two clauses where the second clause express elaboration of the information provided are preceded by a comma pause, and reflecting the perfect tense form **-ile**, preceding the complementizer clause with **gore** and the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [25] demonstrates the main clause with the verb **maketse** preceding the complementizer clause with

**gore.** Sentence [26] demonstrates the main clause with the perfect tense verb **gobetše.** Sentence [27] also demonstrates the verb in the perfect tense, **ntlhabetše.** Sentence [28] to [30] consist of complex clauses containing more than one clause, which elaborates on the initial clause, and reflecting the verb in the past tense.

The segment comprising of sentences 31-34, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentence [31] and [32] are simple clause sentences. Sentence [33] is a complex clause, which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses, also reflecting the complementizer clause with **gore** as well as the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [34] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

#### **3.9.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 10:**

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

#### **3.10 DIALOGUE 11 [page 180 of the Appendix]**

##### **3.10.1 Analysis of dialogue 11 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)**

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category on theft of a motor vehicle.

**Sentences 1 to 21 of dialogue 11, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official asks the relevant questions to the complainant in order to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) there are few elements present, and no casual reasoning. The discourse happens in the present tense. Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [1] Dumela ntate

Hallo sir.

[Greeting]

CO: [2] Dumela morena

[Response to greeting] Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?

How are you?

[Enquiry about well being]

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.

No, everything is All right.

[Response]

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.

Please take a seat.

[ Invitation to sit down]

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.

Thank you.

[Expression of appreciation]



PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo. [Requests to ask personal questions]

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile. [Agreement]

Yes, you are welcome.

The police official subsequently proceeds with the completion of a case docket SAP 3 and the following questions, in sentences 9 to 18 are sequenced according to the specific registered form.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago. [Requests for name]

Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko. [Presents name]

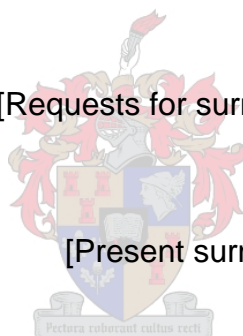
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng? [Requests for surname]

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka. [Present surname]

It is Manaka.



PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng? [ Requests for telephone number at home]

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065. [Provides the number]

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng? [Requests for telephone number at work]

At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides the number]

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks the residential address]

Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town. [Presents physical street address]

My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information and invites brief of incident]

Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena. [Agreement]

Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]

Yes, let us proceed.

Dialogue 11 continues:

**Sentences 22 to 26 of dialogue 11, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

The discourse segment in sentence 22 to 26 can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events of the events of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not in the present tense, but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a descriptions by the complainant of actions and counteractions in the specific sequence that the events took place.

CO: [22] Ntate go na le monna yo mongwe ba mmitšša ka leina la Mokwana. [Identify other party]

Sir there is another man by the name of Mokwana.

[23] Re ile re na le kwano gore ka lebaka la yena a ka se kgone go lefa tšhelete ya koloï ka kgwedi, ke tlo e lefa, mme ke tlo tšea koloï yeo. [Description of agreement made between them]

We went and made an agreement that if for any reason he cannot pay the monthly fee on the vehicle, I will pay the amount and I will take the vehicle.

[24] Re ile re ngwaditšše kwano ya rena. [Confirm writing of agreement]

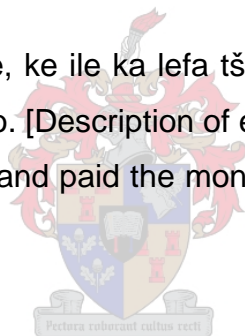
We also wrote this agreement down.

[25] Mme re ile ra amogetššana mong ya koloï yeo. [ Met with owner ]

We also went to meet the owner of the vehicle.

[26] Ka morago ga kwano ye, ke ile ka lefa tšhelete ka kgwedi gape gona bjale okwana o sa nyaka koloï yeo. [Description of events after payment was made]

After this agreement I went and paid the monthly fees but now Mokwana wants the vehicle back.



Dialogue 11 continues:

**Sentences 27 to 36 of dialogue 11, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

The discourse segment mentioned here, can in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events of the events of the events of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. The discourse happens in the present tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer format in that the police official needs to determine cost and where possible suspects.

PO: [27] O sa re gore o lefetše tšhelete sa koloi ka moka, mme yena o tšeatše koloi yeo? [Asks for clarity on who has vehicle]  
Do you say you have paid all the monthly fees of the vehicle and he now took the vehicle?

CO: [28] Ee ntate. [Acknowledgment]Yes sir.

PO: [29] Ka mantswe a mange o sa re gore o utšwitše koloi yeo. [Reconfirm statement of complainant]  
In other words you say he has stolen the vehicle.

CO: [30] Ee ke therešo, [Confirmation]  
Yes that is true.

[31] Ke na le dipampiri tše di re gore mang le mang ke mong wa koloi yeo. [Acknowledge ownership via documentation]  
I have papers that indicate who is the owner of that vehicle.

PO: [32] Wena o kgopola gore o lefetša bokae bja koloi yeo. [Determines payments made]How much do you think you have paid of that vehicle.

CO: [33] Morena, Mokwana o lefetše dikgwedi tše tharo fela, gape nna ke lefetše dikgwedi tše mašome tharo. [Acknowledges number of payments made]  
Sir Mokwana paid the installment for three months and I paid for thirty months.

PO: [34] Re tlo hwetša Mokwana kae bjale? [Needs to locate suspect]  
Where will we find this Mokwana now?

CO: [35] Ntate, o sa šoma kua Pick & Pay, Adderley Street Cape Town. [Presents locality of suspect]  
Sir he is working at Pick&Pay, Adderley Street Cape Town.

[36] O tšwa mošomong ka nako ya five. [Indicate when office hours end]  
He leaves work at five in the afternoon.

Dialogue 11 continues:

### **Sentences 37 to 40 of dialogue 11, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure)**

The discourse segment in sentence 37 to 40 can be characterized as part of Dimension 1, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation of the process that will follow. The discourse comprises of exchanges performed in the present tense. This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity. As before, the generic micro move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [37] Re a leboga tate. [Expresses thanks]

Thank you sir.

[38] Re feditše. [Indication that discussion is completed]

We are finished.

[39] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [40] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse. [Expression of thanks and greeting]

Thank you sir, stay well.

### **3.10.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 11:**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3,, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflection on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that this interaction is not dealt

with in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into content conveying the reflection on the specific incident as well as specific interaction, in the present tense, on the incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### 3.10.3 Analysis of dialogue 11 within the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit (ASU)

The segment comprising of sentences 1-21, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-6, 9-18 and 20-21. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. The complex clause in sentence [7] consists of a temporal adjunct clause with **ka** with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause in sentence [19] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes a complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentences 22 -36, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment, with the exception of sentences [28], [30] and [36]. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlates with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [23] consists of more than one indicative mood clauses, expressing elaboration of the information provided, and preceded by a comma pause. Furthermore it demonstrates the perfect tense form **-ile**, the complementizer clause with **gore** and the infinitival clause complement within the complex. Sentence [24] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting the perfect tense form **-ile**, and the perfect tense verb **ngwadiše**. Sentence [25] also demonstrates the perfect tense form **-ile**. Sentence [26] consists of three indicative mood clauses also reflecting the

perfect tense form **-ile**, as well as the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [27] demonstrates the complementizer clause with **gore**, which precedes the perfect tense verb **lefetše** and **tšeatše**. In sentence [29] the infinitival clause complement and the complementizer clause with **gore** preceded the perfect tense verb. Sentences [31] and [32] each consists of two indicative mood clauses with the **complementizer clause with gore**. Sentence [33] also consists of two indicative mood clauses elaborating on the information provided and reflecting a comma pause, with perfect tense verbs **lefetše**. Sentence [34] demonstrates the infinitival clause complement, and sentence [35] the infinitival clause complement.

The segment comprising of sentences 37-40, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentence [37] and [38] are simple clause sentences. Sentence [39] is a complex clause, which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses, also reflecting the complementizer clause with **gore** as well as the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [40] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

#### 3.10.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 11:

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

### 3.11 DIALOGUE 15 [page 192 of the Appendix]

#### 3.11.1 Analysis of dialogue 15 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category on crimen injuria and assault.

**Sentences 1 to 21 of dialogue 15, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official asks the relevant questions to the complainant in order to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) there are relatively few elements present, and no casual reasoning. The communication happens in the present tense, hence the "here and now." Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [1] Dumela ntate [Greeting]

Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena [Acknowledgment]

Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae? [Enquiry about well being]

How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona. [Response]

No, everything is All right.



PO: [5] Le ka dula fase. [Invitation to sit down]

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]

Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo. [Requests permission to ask personal questions]

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelelegile. [Agreement]

Yes, you are welcome.

The police official subsequently proceeds with the completion of a case docket SAP 3 and the following questions, in sentences 9 to 18 are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago. [Requests name]

Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko. [Provides name]

My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng? [Requests surname]

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka. [Provides surname]

It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng? [Requests telephone number at home]

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065. [Provides number]

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng? [Requests number at work]At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides number]

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks for residential address]

Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town. [Provides address]

My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expression of appreciation for information and invites brief of incident]

Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena. [Appreciation]

Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue]

Yes, let us proceed.

Dialogue 15 continues:



**Sentences 22 to 23 of dialogue 15, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

The discourse can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events of the events of the events of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not in the present tense, but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a descriptions by the complainant of actions and counteractions in the specific sequence that the events took place.

CO: [22] Mabane ke ile ka sepela setarateng sa Strand Mo Cape Town, gona mo toropong. [Brief on where and when incident happened]

Yesterday I was walking down the Strand Street in Cape Town, here in town.

[23] Ke kopana le monna yo mongwe, ge o a mpona a thoma go nthoga, mme o a mpetha ka seatla mo sefahlogong. [Brief on what precisely happened]

I met up with another man, when he saw me he insulted me and hit me in the face with his open hand.

Dialogue 15 continues:

**Sentences 24 to 35 of dialogue 15, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

The discourse segment in sentence 24 to 35 can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. The discourse happens in the present tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer format in that the police official needs to determine cost and where possible suspects.

PO: [24] Monna yo, o a mo tseba na? [Requests information on suspect] This man do you know him?

CO: [25] Aowa ntate, eupša ke ka kgona go le bontšiša ge ke ka mmona gape. [Response and acknowledgment to recognize suspect if seen again]

No sir, but I will be able to show him to you if I see him again.

PO: [26] Agee, ga le kopane gatee? [Enquire more about suspect]

All right, you have never met before?

CO: [27] Aowa ntate, ge ka mmone maabane e be e le pele. [Respond negatively]

No sir, when I saw him yesterday, it was the first time.

PO: [28] Eeh, e be e le ba bangwe ba sa nyaka go go thuša goba go mo tšhwara?  
[Require about witnesses]

Yes, was there anybody that wanted to help you, or catch him?

CO: [29] Aowa, ga go na selo. [Response]

No nothing.

PO: [30] Anke o botšiša gore o swana bjang? [Requests brief on how suspect looked]  
Please tell us how did he look?

CO: [31] O motho yo motelele, mme o na le meririr ye meso, ye e foretša. [Describes  
length and hair]

It is a long man, with black hair that curls.

[32] O be a apere hempe ye tshweu, le borokgo ya denim.[Detail clothing]

He wore a white shirt and denim trousers

[33]Mme o rwala ditekkies tša Nike ye tshweu le tala. [Detail shoes]

And had Nike tekkies that were white and blue.

PO: [34] Re ka mo hwetša kae? [Attempt to locate suspect]

Where can we find him?

CO: [35] Ba bangwe ba ile ba re motho yo o sa šoma kua maphodisa a Woodstock.  
[Provides detail]

Some of the people said he works at the Police in Woodstock.

Dialogue 15 continues:

### **Sentences 36 to 39 of dialogue 15, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure)**

The discourse segment in sentence 36 to 39 can be characterized as part of Dimension 1, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation on the process that will follow. The

discourse comprises of exchanges performed in the present tense, hence the “here and now.” This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity. As before, the generic micro move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [36] Re feditše. [Indication that discussion is completed]

We are finished.

[37] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [38] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse. [Expression of appreciation and greeting]

Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [39] Sepela gabotse. [Greeting]

Go well.

### 3.11.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 15:



According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflection on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that this interaction is not dealt within the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into content conveying the reflection on the specific incident as well as specific interaction, in the present tense, on the incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### 3.11.3 Analysis of dialogue 15 within the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit (ASU)

The segment comprising of sentences 1-21, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-6, 8-18 and 20-21. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. The complex clause in sentence [7] consists of a temporal adjunct clause with **ka** with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause in sentence [19] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes a complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentence 22 - 36, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment, with the exception of sentences [24], [26], [29] and [30]. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlate with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [23] consists of more than one indicative mood clauses, expressing elaboration of the information provided, and preceded by a comma pause. Sentence [25] also demonstrates the temporal adjunct clause with **ka**. Sentence [27] demonstrates the situative clause conjunction **ge** and demonstrates the perfect tense **be**. In sentence [28] the infinitival clause complement is reflected with the perfect tense **be**. Sentences [31] and [32] each consists of two indicative mood clauses with the comma cause complementizer. Sentence [34] demonstrates the temporal adjunct clause with **ka** and sentence [35] the infinitival clause complement.

The segment comprising of sentences 36-39, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentence [36] and [37] are simple clause sentences. Sentence [38] is a complex clause, which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses, also reflecting the complementizer clause with **gore** as well as the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [39] expresses the pleasantries

(thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

#### **3.11.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 15:**

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as posited by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

#### **3.12 DIALOGUE 16 [page 195 of the Appendix]**

##### **3.12.1 Analysis of dialogue 16 within the framework of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM)**

This dialogue conveys the content about the complainant presenting a case to the police official relating to the case category on armed robbery.

**Sentences 1 to 21 of dialogue 16, presented below, constitutes the Introductory Phase.**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) this part characterizes Dimension 1 as the content demonstrates aspects of planning. The official works from a pro forma document. The official asks the relevant questions to the complainant in order to obtain the required information. The official has prior knowledge about what to ask and the complainant has prior knowledge as it is his/her personal detail. This part of the dialogue constitutes a single task, namely to complete the document. In terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) there are relatively few elements present, and no casual reasoning. The

discourse happens in the present tense. Hence this segment exhibits the characteristics of low performative and low developmental complexity in terms of Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model.

The micro generic moves are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [1] Dumela ntate [Greeting]  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena [Response]  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae? [Enquiry about well being]  
How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona [Response].  
No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase. [Invitation to sit down]  
Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga. [Expression of appreciation]  
Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo. [Requests to ask personal questions]  
Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile. [Agreement]  
Yes, you are welcome.

The police official subsequently proceeds with the completion of a case docket SAP 3. The following questions, in sentences 9 to 18 are sequenced according to the specific registered form. The micro generic moves of the cognitive move structure are specified in parenthesis next to each sentence.



PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago. [Requests for name]

Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko. [Presents name]

My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng? [Requests for surname]

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka. [Presents surname]

It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng? [Requests telephone number at home]What is your home phone number?

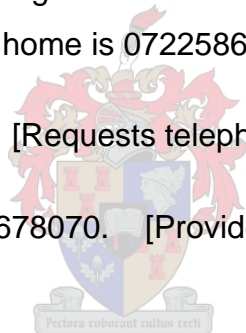
CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065. [Provides number]

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng? [Requests telephone number at work]At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070. [Provides number]

At work it is 0214678070.



PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng? [Asks residential address]

Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town. [Presents physical street address]

My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng? [Expresses appreciation for information received and invites brief of incident]

Thank you, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena. [Agreement to narrate events]

Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele. [Encouragement to continue with narration of events]

Yes, let us proceed.

Dialogue 16 continues:

**Sentences 22 to 26 of dialogue 16, constitutes the Narrative phase.**

This discourse segment can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 3, hence it exhibits features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events of the events of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue in that more frequent expressions of temporal spatial phrases occur. The discourse reference is not in the present tense, but rather in the past tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a description by the complainant of actions and counteractions in the specific sequence that the events took place.

CO: [22] Ntate ka nako yeo ke be ka dula mmotorong kua parking ya Pick and Pay.

[Indicate where, what and at what time complainant was doing]

Sir at that time I was sitting in my car in the parking area of Pick and Pay.

[23] Gona bjale monna yo mongwe , Wammala, o thoma go bolela le na.

[Indicate what happened]

Just then another man, a colored, started to speak to me.

[24] Mme na ke a mo nyatša gore ga ke nyaka go tseba dilo tša yena. [Own reaction]

I was ignoring him because I did not want to know about his stories.

[25] Ka morago ga sebakanyana o ntlogetše. [Indicate what suspect initially did]

After a while he left me alone.

[26] Gape, o boe, o ntšha sethunya, o tšea dilo tša ka ka moka le mmotoro.

[What happened when suspect returned]

Then, he came back, he took out a gun and took everything of mine including the motor.

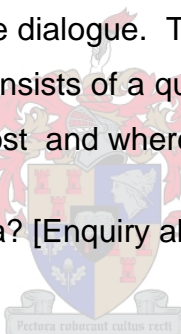
Dialogue 16 continues:

**Sentences 27 to 36 of dialogue 16, constitutes a continuation of the Narrative phase.**

The discourse segment in sentence 27 to 36 can, in terms of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM), be characterized as representative of Dimension 1. The communication requires planning in that the official requests to know the detail of the events. The official needs the detail to proceed with the judicial process. The complainant has prior knowledge of the incident. In terms of Robinson's model there are more elements in this part of the dialogue. The discourse happens in the present tense. This part of the dialogue consists of a question and answer format in that the police official needs to determine cost and where possible suspects.

PO: [27] Monna yo, o a mo tseba na? [Enquiry about suspect]

This man do you know him?



CO: [28] Aowa ntate, eupša ke ka kgona go le bontšiša ge ke ka mmona gape. [No confirmation]

No sir, but I will be able to show him to you if I see him again.

PO: [29] Agee, ga le kopane gatee? [Acknowledge response]

All right, you have never met before?

CO: [30] Aowa ntate, ge ka mmone maabane e be e le pele. [Confirm that have never seen suspect before]

No sir, when I saw him yesterday, it was the first time.

PO: [31] Eeh, e be e le ba bangwe ba sa nyaka go go thuša goba go mo tšhwara?

[Requires about witnesses]

Yes, was there anybody that wanted to help you, or catch him?

CO: [32] Aowa, ga go na selo. [Confirm there was no one]

No nothing.

PO: [33] Anke o botšiša gore o swana bjang? [Requires a description]

Please tell us how did he look?

CO: [34] Aowa, yeno o ntšhogetše kgolo kudu, ga ke kgona go gopola gore o swana bjang. [Response]

No sir he scared me very much, I can not remember how he looked.

PO: [35] Mmotoro wa gago , o ka re e laodiša na? [Requires description of vehicle]Your motor can you describe it to us?

CO: [36] Ke Mercedes Benz SE280, ye botala, mme nomory ke CF 12354. [Provides description]

It is a Mercedes Benz SE280, green and the number is CF 12354.

Dialogue 16 continues:

### **Sentences 37 to 40 of dialogue 16, constitutes the Final Phase (or Closure)**

The discourse segment in sentence 37 to 40, can be characterized as part of Dimension 1, according to Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM). Prior knowledge is required of the official to explain the way forward. Within Robinson's model this part of the dialogue demonstrates few elements because it contains only an expression of appreciation and an explanation of the process that will follow. The discourse comprises of exchanges performed in the present tense. This dialogue segment exhibits the features of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity. The generic micro move structure is indicated in parenthesis next to each sentence.

PO: [37] Thobela morena. Re feditše. [Expresses thanks]

Thank you sir. We are finished.

[38] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? [Explanation on process to be followed from here]  
The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [39] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse. [Expression of thanks and greetings] Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [40] Sepela gabotse. [Greeting ]  
Go well.

### **3.12.2 Summary of analysis of dimensions of cognitive complexity analysis of dialogue 16:**

According to the specific criteria in Robinson's Dimensions of Complexity Model (DCM) this dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics from Dimension 1 and 3, where specific planning, prior knowledge and single tasks are required. The flow to dimension 3 in the Narrative Phase, of the Dimensions of Complexity Model is characterized in the reflection on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, where the main difference lies in the fact that this interaction is not dealt with in the present tense, but past tense. The narrative phase is further divided into content conveying the reflection on the specific incident as well as specific interaction, in the present tense, on the incident, to allow additional knowledge or information to be explored by the official. Although one of the characteristics of Dimension 4 of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model (DCM) is reflected in the interaction within the narrative phase, namely reasoning, all other characteristics reflected here is found in Dimension 1.

### **3.12.3 Analysis of dialogue 16 within the framework of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit (ASU)**

The segment comprising of sentences 1-21, namely the Introductory Phase, consists mostly of simple clauses. These sentences express short monoclausal questions and answers, as shown in sentences 1-6, 9-18 and 20-21. Only a few instances of complex clauses occur in the Introductory Phase. The complex clause in sentence

[7] consists of a temporal adjunct clause with **ka** with the verb **tswela**, preceding the main clause with the verb **nyaka** followed by an infinitival complement clause. The complex clause in sentence [19] consists of the main clause verb **botšisa**, which takes a complement clause, introduced by the complementizer clause with **gore**, furthermore this clause also contains the copulative clause with **ke eng**.

The segment comprising of sentence 22 - 36, namely the Narrative Phase, exhibits a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity in the respective sentences, than that in the Introductory Phase segment, with the exception of sentences [27], [29] and [32]. This segment therefore illustrates that increased cognitive complexity correlate with increased syntactic complexity.

Sentence [22] consists of more than one indicative mood clauses, expressing elaboration of the information provided, and preceded by a verb reflected in perfect tense. Sentence [24] illustrates a complex clause structure consisting of the complementizer clause with **gore**. Sentence [25] also demonstrates the perfect tense form of the verb **tlogela**. Sentence [26] consists of three indicative mood clauses also reflecting the perfect tense form **boe**, preceded by a comma pause. Sentence [28] demonstrates the temporal adjunct clause with **ka**. Sentences [31] and [32] demonstrates the perfect tense form **ile**. Sentence [33] also consists of two indicative mood clauses elaborating on the information provided and reflecting a complementizer clause with **gore**. Sentence [34] demonstrates the complementizer clause with **gore** and is preceded by the verb in the perfect tense **ntšhogetše**. Sentence [35] demonstrates the temporal adjunct clause complement.

The segment comprising of sentences 37-40, the Final Phase or Closure, exemplifies a lesser degree of syntactic complexity. Sentence [37] and [38] are simple clause sentences. Sentence [39] is a complex clause, which expresses the future procedure with the handling of the complaint (case) is more complex, since it contains three clauses, also reflecting the complementizer clause with **gore** as well as the infinitival clause complement. Sentence [40] expresses the pleasantries (thanking and departing), consisting of two indicative mood clauses separated by a comma pause.

### 3.12.4 Summary of Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit of dialogue 16:

According to the specific criteria in Foster et al, the dialogue demonstrates specific characteristics within the Introductory Phase and Final Phase as determined by Robinson where both simple and complex clauses are reflected, while the complex clauses are fewer. In the Narrative phase most sentences reflect complex clauses. The complex clauses in the Introductory Phase, clearly develops from sentences consisting of simple clauses to complex clauses. The sentences then exemplify further complexity due to specific questions posed by the police official demanding certain detail within the interaction. The complex clauses in the Final Phase are the result of the explanation by the police official to the complainant within the specific environment and situation.

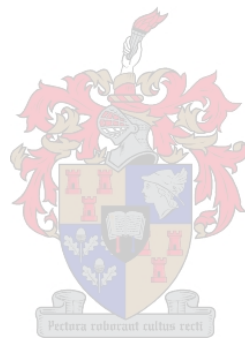
### 3.13 CONCLUSION

From the analysis of the Sepedi Dialogues in the paragraphs above, following the cognitive sequencing as determined by Robinson, all of the interviews can be defined into three phases, with the initial phase (Introductory phase) consisting of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity. According to the framework of Foster et al (2000) this phase consists out of mostly simple clauses, reflected in the monoclausal questions by the police official and answers provided by the complainant.

The second phase defined as the Narrative phase, consists of low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource directing) complexity, with a considerable higher degree of syntactic complexity and where most of the sentences reflect a complex clause structure. The complainant in this phase reflects on the situations and although the police official still provides monoclausal questions, the answers provided by the complainant are more detailed and complex and requires a higher degree of interaction.

In the final phase or Closure consisting of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity, which is similar to the initial phase. In this phase there is a lesser degree of complexity, where the police official explains the further procedure to the complainant.

Within the specific discourse of the complainant lodging a complaint with the police official, the genre-based approach as determined by Henry and Roseberry (1998) and the specific moves in this discourse can be defined as obligatory. These interactions are needed for communicative purposes.





## CHAPTER FOUR

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

#### 4.1 UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR AND ITS ROLE IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The theoretical view was adopted in this study that through Universal Grammar all languages have a universal set of principles and parameters which determine the development of language. These principles apply to all natural languages and include Sepedi. Although the target group of learners for this specific purpose course design, are adults, and that they already have mastered a native language, they still have the ability to access their Universal Grammar via different mechanisms to acquire the targeted language because of their specific motivation. It is also important to note that there is no critical period of learning a second language.

#### 4.2 COGNITIVE APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Assuming as broad theoretical basis research on Universal Grammar, this study discussed further research that was done on the processes of the learning a second language. Cognitive researches do not only focus on the competence of the learners but also their performance. As all languages have similar principles and parameters, specific operational principles were developed for second language acquisition. In the analysis of the learning processes, it was determined that second language learners follow rigid routes with regard to learning grammatical structures. From this learnability model, the teachability dimension draws precise conclusions on how specific structures and features should be taught.

This study has examined research done on Connectionism and parallel distributed processes which consist of links between various clusters, and the strength of these links are dependant on the activity frequency of the link. The more the link is repeated the more successful the learning process is. Cognitive psychologists also developed information processes where complex behavior is formed out of simpler processes composed together. In order to achieve success in learning a second language, the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill is required, which can be

achieved through the automatization of specific skills, with the understanding that restructuring may take place as performance is increased. The learners will therefore move from controlled processing to automated processing. Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought model also stipulates that practice leads to automatization.

#### **4.3 SOCIAL INTERACTION AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION**

This study reviewed research on interaction by the learners should not only be evaluated as target language input, but also as the negotiation of meaning. Krashen's Input Hypothesis into interaction in second language learning claims that it is necessary for the learners to be exposed to comprehensible input to ensure that sufficient second language acquisition can take place. From further research it was clear that learners who had the opportunity to negotiate meaning through interaction, where more successful in their tasks.

Research also determined that the extent to which learners' second language input in the form of environmental language is utilized has a direct correlation to the learners' processing capabilities and degree of attention on form. Noticing, paying attention to form, is therefore the necessary condition for the conversion of input to intake. Through interaction, mature learners will make use of self-regulating processes whilst the less mature learners will be dependant on other-regulating processes, where the more skilled speakers or native tongue speakers correct and guide them. Such supportive dialogue to allow growth is called scaffolding.

#### **4.4 FORM-MEANING CONNECTIONS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION**

The study further explored research on form-meaning connections, characterized in second language use as the situation in which form reflects a type of semantic referential meaning, therefore the second language form and its second language meaning. The establishment of such form-meaning connections is a fundamental aspect in both first and second language acquisition. The first focus of second language learners is to acquire meaning (lexical acquisition) as to be in a position to communicate and interact socially. Form-meaning connections goes beyond the lexical learning, as it involves relationships between forms, their meanings and how

the different connections are established.

Such a form-meaning connection is established when the learner cognitively registers a form, a meaning and the fact that the form in some manner encodes the meaning. If connections are repeated, it will be strengthened. If the initial form-meaning connection is incomplete, subsequent encounters may lead to the filling of additional elements. This may lead to restructuring of existing connections, having an influence on the lexical component of the developing interlanguage, which is then accessible for the learner for comprehension and output.

#### **4.5 TASK-BASED SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION**

The examination on task-based second language acquisition undertaken in this study revealed that there are three basic uses of language, namely to the service macrofunction, the social macrofunction and the aesthetic macrofunction. In this study the focus is on the service macrofunction, where services are exchanges between the service provider (the South African Police Service) and the client (the complainant). In order to allow the target group the opportunity to achieve fluency in the target language, it will be necessary to transform real world tasks into pedagogical tasks. The successful development of task-based learning will involve three specific task components, namely the goal, the input and the procedure.

Learners will acquire the target language by using such language through casual conversations. In order to allow the learner the opportunity to be exposed and to acquire more, the different tasks presented must be graded according to their difficulty. This will allow the progressive sequencing of tasks to allow the learner the growth potential. In order to ensure that learners are not exposed to too difficult tasks, the task's complexity is measured through performance. Such performance is characterized by accuracy, complexity and fluency. The complexity of tasks is further defined through the Dimension of Complexity Model developed by Robinson. Tasks with little cognitive demand will allow learners the opportunity to acquire the targeted language a bit easier, than tasks with an increased cognitive demand.

Tasks within the second language acquisition are defined as activities that call for meaning-focused language use, where the learners function primarily as language

users in the sense that they need to utilize the same communicative processes as reflected in real world activities. The overall goal of a task is to learn a specific language, but the learners will have to pay attention to meaning-focused and form-focused language uses to obtain the target language. Tasks can be defined as focused tasks with a specific linguistic feature or unfocused tasks with a variety of options to choose from.

This study has demonstrated that task-based language teaching entails one of two possible manners in which tasks are utilized by language teachers. Tasks are very important in communicative language teaching, which focuses on the development of the learners' ability to use the target language in real world situations. The manner in which tasks are deployed may have an influence on the interaction that will occur, with further affects on comprehension and language acquisition. In the specific focus on learning Sepedi to adult learners, focused communicative tasks are important as it allows for the measurement of what the learners have acquired and also allows for the determination of the learners' implicit knowledge.

Taking the above-mentioned views into consideration, two psycholinguistic bases for focused communicative tasks were evaluated namely skill-building and automatic processing theory where the first occurs with attentional control and which occurs more slowly and in series and the latter is easy and rapid and take up very little processing capacity. In order for controlled processes to develop into automatic activities, learners need to practice the skill. The role of tasks is then to provide the learners with the opportunity to practice forms presented to them declaratively.

#### **4.6 DESIGN OF A TASK-BASED LANGUAGE COURSE**

This study has explored research on task-based course design which showed that in order to ensure success, it is imperative to select the correct data and to sequence it in such a manner as to allow the learners the opportunity to achieve it without unnecessary problems. The key elements in such construction are the specific tasks to be included and the specification on the features of the language itself. The specific tasks included in the design must however be classified to ensure that task types can be identified, and the specific theme of the tasks is important. The thematic scheme will however be dependant on the purpose of the course. In the

purpose specific task, as for the police official attending to a complainant, the theme or topic selection for the tasks, will be determined mainly by an analysis of the target tasks that the learner will need to perform.

Tasks will also have to be sequenced to ensure maximum opportunity and exposure for the learners to achieve the set goal. This can be achieved by determining the complexity of each task and the placement thereof in such a manner to match the learners' level of development. The sequencing of tasks is done within the parameters of task complexity.

Although tasks are defined, sequenced, and work plans developed, it will be necessary to develop procedural methods for executing the plan, and this is done through lesson design and participatory structures. In the lesson design the different stages of a lesson are reflected with a task as its principal component and the participatory structures allow for interaction between the learners and the teacher in various forms such as class rooms, groups, pairs or even individuals.

Tasks are not performed in isolation, and if tasks are studied in isolation the effect of pedagogic choices cannot be derived accurately. In order to ensure sound second language acquisition and development, it is necessary to focus on the specific role that the teacher plays, but also that the learners are involved in the process. This study aimed at identifying communication tasks that are purposefully specific.

#### **4.7 COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS**

The research undertaken in this study invoked the framework for pedagogic tasks as developed in Nunan (2003), and Ellis (2003), amongst others, the cognitive complexity model of Robinson (2005), for specific purposes. The purpose in this regard, was the investigation of interviews held in Sepedi, within the Community Service Centre of the South African Police Service, with complainants. In this study the complexities of the Sepedi interviews are measured against the model developed by Robinson (2005), and which posits the Resource-directing and Resource-dispersing dimensions of complexity as well as the implications thereof on task sequencing. The study also invoked the genre-based approach to second language teaching and learning as defined by Henry and Roseberry(1998). Genre is viewed

as the text that serves a particular purpose and which is composed of a series of segments called communicative moves. Basturkman (2006) defined genre as a class of language use and communication that occurs in particular communities. The communicative purpose of a genre is seen as its defining feature that sets it apart from other genres.

The study invoked the views of Foster, concerning the analysis of the spoken language requires a principled way of dividing transcribed data into units in order to assess features such as accuracy and complexity. Foster et al, further pointed out that researchers utilizing such units often attempt to measure frequency of certain discourse features or the frequency of grammatical features or to measure quantitatively such dimensions as the relative grammatical accuracy, fluency of language in their data and syntactic complexity.

The specific Sepedi dialogues evaluated in this study demonstrated specific characteristics of Dimension 1 and Dimension 3, of Robinson's Dimension of Complexity Model. In the Narrative phase of the dialogues, the flow to Dimension 3, is characterized in the reflection on the specific incident experienced by the complainant, and which is conveyed in the past tense. The Introductory Phase, demonstrates specific characteristics from Foster et al's Analysis of Speech Unit Model, namely simple clauses. The sentences express short monoclausal question and answers. The Narrative Phase exhibits a considerable high degree of complexity, which clearly indicates that an increased syntactic complexity correlates with an increased cognitive complexity. The Final Phase of the dialogues again exhibits a lesser degree of complexity.

The study has demonstrated that the Sepedi dialogues analyzed, can be categorized into three phases as determined by Robinson and Foster, namely the Initial Phase consisting of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity and simple clauses, the Narrative Phase with low performative (resource-dispersing) and high developmental (resource-directing) complexity and a complex clause structure, and finally the Final Phase consisting of low performative (resource-dispersing) and low developmental (resource-directing) complexity and a lesser degree of complex clauses.

#### 4.8 IMPLICATION OF THE STUDY ON SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Although there is research done on second language acquisition, specific and applied research needs to be developed. The development of a specific course design to address the specific needs in this discourse relies on the language features and learner needs. The researchers for new course designs should be aware of the relevant principles of second language acquisition and the processes that learners have to complete, in order to ensure successful achievement of the target language.

There is an enormous need for the development of specific and purpose course designs for second languages such as African Languages. The importance of multilingualism cannot be overemphasized in the Government Service and the South African Police Service. Such development will enhance the daily interaction, comforting and assurance, service delivery, cooperation, trust, and support the principles of Batho Pele.

The analysis of the Sepedi dialogues within the Community Service Centre of the South African Police Service, clearly identified a need for an introductory course in Sepedi teaching of police officials, with specific purpose of initial dealing with complainants. The target tasks that were identified deals with the interview between the police official and the complainant, with the interview consisting of monoclausal and simple questions on personal details, complex and detailed explanation of the specific incidents where additional reasoning occurs, and a final simple brief on of the procedures to be expected by the complainant. The study revealed that although there is a need for more complex knowledge within the narrative phase of the complaint, the initial phase has significant opportunities for learners to achieve such targeted language without too much effort.

The study demonstrated that task-based teaching of Sepedi in a specific purpose environment can benefit all members of the community. Such an intervention can also be further developed to address the need in respect of other African Languages within the same purpose in other geographic areas of South Africa.



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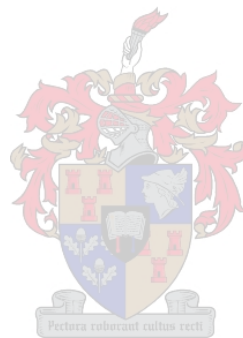
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## APPENDIX

### DIALOGUE 1: ASSAULT GBH

PO: [1] Tsena  
Come in

PO: [2] Ee, dumela mme  
Ee Hello Mrs.

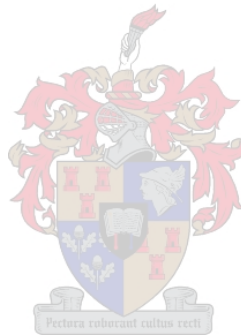
C: [3] Dumela ntate lepodisa  
Hello Mr. Police Man

PO: [4] O kae?  
How are you?

C: [5] Ke gona ntate  
We are fine sir.

PO: [6] Ee, dulang.  
Yes, you can take a seat.

C: [7] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you sir.



PO: [8] Molato ke eng?  
What is the problem.

CO: [9] Ke sa nyaka go bega taba.  
I want to lay a complaint.

PO: [10] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo.  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.

C: [11] Ee, le amogelebile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [12] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago.  
Yes, you can give us your name.

C: [13] Leina la ka ke nna Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [14] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang?  
What is your surname.

C: [15] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka.  
My surname is Manaka.

PO: [16] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
What is your phone number at home?

C: [17] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065.  
The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [18] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong?  
The telephone number of yours at work?

C: [19] Ya mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [20] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Yes what is your home address.

C: [21] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.  
My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [22] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [23] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate.  
I can explain it sir.

PO: [24] Agee, tšwela pele.  
All right continue.

C: [25] Mošupologo, ka iri ya monyanya, ke be ke ile kua Silver Coffee Shop mo setarata sa Adderley. [26] Gona bjale, monna yo mosweu o sa nbatametše, ke a mo tseba, ba mmitša ka leina la Michael. [27] Bjale Michael o a mpoša gore o sa nyaka diranta tše lešome mo nna. [28] Ke mmoditše gore ga ke ne tshelete. [29] Gape yena o a thoma go ntšhošetša ka gore o tla ntlhaba ka thipha. [30] Michael o ntlhabile ka thipha mo mpeng ya ka. [31] Ke thome go lla mme Michael o tshabile. [32] E be gona ke ile sepetlele.

Monday at four o'clock I went to the Silver Coffee Shop in Adderley street.

There a white man approached me, I know him, they call him Michael. Michael then wanted ten rand from me. I told him that I do not have money. He then started to threaten me to stab me with a knife. Michael then stabbed me in the stomach with the knife. I started to cry and he ran away. After that I went to the hospital.

PO: [33] Re a leboga tate. [34] Re feditše. [35] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [36] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse.

Thank you sir, stay well.

## DIALOGUE 2: HOUSE BREAKING

PO: [1] Ee, dumela ntate  
Ee Hello Mr.

C: [2] Dumela ntate lepodisa Hello Mr. Police Man

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?

C: [4] Re gona ntate

We are fine sir.

PO: [5] Ee, o ka tšea setulo.  
Yes, you can take a seat.

C: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you sir.

PO: [7] Molato ke eng?  
What is the problem.

CO: [8] Ke sa nyaka go bega taba.  
I want to lay a complaint.

PO: [9] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo.  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.

C: [10] Ee, le amogelebile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [11] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago.  
Yes, you can give us your name.



C: [12] Leina la ka ke nna Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [13] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang?  
What is your surname.

C: [14] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka.  
My surname is Manaka.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
What is your phone number at home?

C: [16] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065.  
The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [17] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong?  
The telephone number of yours at work?

C: [18] Ya mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [19] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Yes what is your home address.

C: [20] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street,Central Town, Cape Town.|  
My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [21] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [22] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate.  
I can explain it sir.

PO: [23] Agee, tšwela pele.  
All right continue.

C: [24] Ka Sontaga ngo 26, ke ile kua Bellville go reka dilo tša lebenkele la ka.  
[25] Ke na le khefi. [26] Ke ile ka iri ya half past four. [27] Ge ke bua mo  
khefing ya ka ke bona gore lefasetere le butšwe. [28] Ke ile kua lefasetere leo  
mme ke bona gore le robegile. [29]Bjale ke tsene khefing mme ke bona gore  
mapotlelo a mararo a seno sa JB, ga a kgone.  
On Sunday the 26<sup>th</sup>, I went to Bellville to buy things for my shop. I have a  
restaurant. I went at half past four. When I returned to my restaurant I noticed  
the window is open. I went over to the window and noticed that it was broken.  
I entered the shop and noticed that three bottles of liquor, JB, were gone.

PO: [30] O kgopola gore tshenyegelo ya gago ke bokae?  
What do you think is the damage?

C: [31] Bjale, lepotlelo la JB ke R100, bjale mapotlele a mararo ke diranta tša  
makgolo a moraro, le lefasetere ke diranta tše sekete.



PO: [32] Ee, go na le motho yo o mokgopolela na?  
Yes, is there anybody that you suspect.

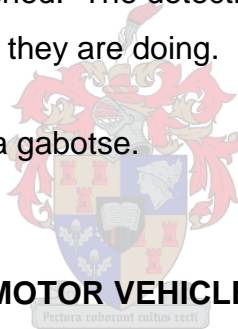
C: [33] Aowa kgoši, ga ke gopolele motho.  
No, sir I suspect no one.

PO: [34] Bjale mapotlelo ao, o sa kgona go a tlemoga ge o a bone gape.  
Now, will you be able to identify the bottles if you see it again.

CO: [35] Ee, ke ka kgona go le šupa mapotlelo ao ge a na le boitshwaro bja ka.  
Yes I will be able to show you my bottles if it has my eticette.

PO: [36] Re a leboga tate. [37] Re feditše. [38] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case  
nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?  
Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case  
number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [39] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse.  
Thank you sir, stay well.



### **DIALOGUE 3: THEFT OUT OF MOTOR VEHICLE**

PO: [1] Ee, dumela ntate  
Ee Hello Mr.

C: [2] Dumela ntate lepodisa  
Hello Mr. Police Man

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?

C: [4] Re gona ntate  
We are fine sir.

PO: [5] Ee, o ka tšea setulo.  
Yes, you can take a seat.

C: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you sir.

PO: [7] Molato ke eng?  
What is the problem.

CO: [8] Ke sa nyaka go bega taba.  
I want to lay a complaint.

PO: [9] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo.  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.

C: [10] Ee, le amogelebile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [11] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago.  
Yes, you can give us your name.

C: [12] Leina la ka ke nna Noko. My name is Noko.

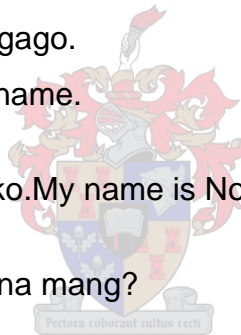
PO: [13] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang?  
What is your surname.

C: [14] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka.  
My surname is Manaka.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
What is your phone number at home?

C: [16] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065.  
The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [17] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong?  
The telephone number of yours at work?



C: [18] Ga ke na mošomo.  
I do not have a work.

PO: [19] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Yes what is your home address.

C: [20] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street,Central Town, Cape Town.  
My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [21] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank you, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [22] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate.  
I can explain it sir.

PO: [23] Agee, tšwela pele.  
All right continue.

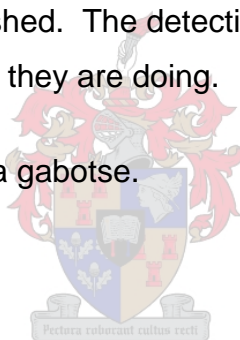
C: [24] Ka Mokibelo ke ile go etela bagwera ba ka. [25] Ke ile ka mmotoro wa ka. [26] Kua ngwakong ya bagwera ke phaka mmotoro kua hukung. [27] Ge re bua kua mmotoro go ya toropong, re hwetša gore ba robegile lefasetere le senotlelo. [28] Ba utšwitše radio le di-CD, le baki ya ka.  
On Saturday I went to visit my friends. I went with my motor. At the house of my friends I parked the car at the corner. When we returned to the vehicle to go to town, we found that the window and doorlock were broken. They stole my radio, CD's and jacket.

PO: [29] Ee, go na le motho yo o mokgopolela na?  
Yes, is there anybody that you suspect.

C: [30] Ee, ntate ke gopolela bafana ba be ba sa dule kua khefing  
Yes, sir I suspect the young men that sat at the cafe.

PO: [31] O sa kgona go le bontsha bafana bao?  
Will you be able to identify those men.

- C: [32] Ee, ba be ba apere dijeans le dihempe tša Kaizer Chiefs, mme ba be ba na le dipaesekele tše khubedu. Yes, they wore jeans and shirts of Kaizer Chiefs and they had red bicycles.
- PO: [33] Bjale dilo tša gago, o sa kgona go e tlemoga ge o e bone gape. Now, will you be able to identify your stuff if you see it again.
- CO: [34] Ee, ke ka kgona go le šupa baki le di CD tša ka, ka gore ke ngwaditše leina la ka ka gare ga tšona.. Yes I will be able to show you my jackets and CD's because I wrote my name in the inside of it.
- PO: [35] Re a leboga tate. [36] Re feditše. [37] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang? Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.
- CO: [38] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse. Thank you sir, stay well.



#### **DIALOGUE 4: THEFT**

- PO: [1] Ee, dumela ntate  
Ee Hello Mr.
- C: [2] Dumela ntate lepodisa  
Hello Mr. Police Man
- PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?
- C: [4] Re gona ntate  
We are fine sir.
- PO: [5] Ee, o ka tšea setulo.  
Yes, you can take a seat.

C: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you sir.

PO: [7] Ee, pele re ka tšwela pele, ke tlo nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo tšeo.  
Yes, before we can go on, I would like to ask you the following questions.

C: [8] Ee, le amogelelegile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Ee, le ka re fe leina la gago.  
Yes, you can give us your name.

C: [10] Leina la ka ke nna Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefane sa gago ke wena mang?  
What is your surname.

C: [12] Sefane sa ka ke Manaka.  
My surname is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
What is your phone number at home?

C: [14] Nomoro ya thelefomo kua gae ke 0722533065.  
The number of my phone number at home is 0722533065.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya thelefomo ya gago kua mošomong?  
The telephone number of yours at work?

C: [16] Ya mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Ee, atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Yes what is your home address.



C: [18] Atrese ya ka kua gae ke 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.  
My home address is 28 Second Street, Central Town, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Thobela, anke o re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

C: [20] Ke ka le hlalošetša ntate.  
I can explain it sir.

PO: [21] Agee, tšwela pele.  
All right continue.

C: [22] Mmh! Ntate ka naka yeo, ke ile ka tlogela kamora ya ka go Bontewiel Hotel, kua setarata sa Louis le Grange, Cape Town. [23] Ka e be e le quarter to seven ka nako eo. [24] Ke ile ka bua kamora ya ka ka one o'clock ya bošego. [25] Ke hwetša gore, khamera ya ka le ye e ka fihla diranta tše dikete tše tharo le makgolo a mane le fifty ranta ga e kgone.  
Mmh! Sir at that time I left my room at Bontewiel Hotel, in Lousi le Grange Street, Cape Town. It was quarter to seven. I came back to my room at one o'clock the night. I then found out that my camera that costs three thousand five hundred and fifty rand was gone.

PO: [26] Ee, go na le motho yo o mokgopolela na?  
Yes, is there anybody that you suspect.

C: [27] Ee, ntate ke goplela motho o sa na le kamora hleng ya ka..  
Yes, sir I suspect the person in the room next to mine.

PO: [28] Bjale khamera ya gago, o sa kgona go e tlemoga ge o e bone gape.  
Now, will you be able to identify the camera if you see it again.

CO: [29] Ee, ke ka kgona go le šupa khamera ya ka.  
Yes I will be able to show you my camera.

PO: [30] Re a leboga tate. [31] Re feditše. [32] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [33] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse.  
Thank you sir, stay well.

**DIALOGUE 5: ATTEMPTED THEFT OUT OF MOTORVEHICLE/ DAMAGE TO PROPERTY.**

PO: [1] Dumela ntate  
Good day sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena lephodisa  
Good day Mr. Policeman

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you.

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.  
No it is well.

PO: [5] All right, anke o dula mo.  
All right please sit here.



CO: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you.

PO: [7] Ee, re tlo rata go go botšiša dipotšišo tše di sa latela.  
Yes, we would like to ask you the questions that follows.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Aha, le ka re botša leina.  
Aha, please tell us you name.

CO: [10] Leina la ka ke Noko.

My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena re eng?

What is your surname?

CO: [12] Sefana sa ka ke Manaka.

My surname is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?

The number of the phone at home is?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya ka ke 0722588065

My number is 0722588065.

PO: [15] Nomoro ya telephomo kua mmereko ke eng?

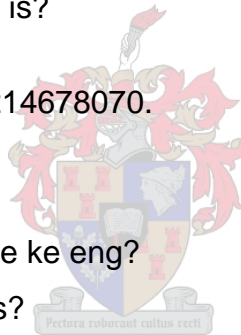
The phone number at work is?

CO: [16] Kua mmerekong ke 0214678070.

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?

What is your home address?



CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] O ka re botšisa gore go diregetše ke eng?

Can you explain to us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Aah, ke ka kgona.

Aah, yes I can.

PO: [21] Ee, re ka tšwela pele.

Yes, we can continue.

CO: [22] Ka nako yeo, ke be ke le mmerekong, ke šoma mo Coin Security. [23] Ke ile kua Parkley Bay, mo Bumpy Road. [24] Kgona mo ke bone monna yo



mosotho, eeh, mme ke bona monna o mongwe wammala, monna wo o apere borokgo bjo bontsha. [25] Ke ile ka bona monna yo mosotho o ile kgauswi ga koloi ye nngwe ya 4x4.

At that stage I was on duty, I work at Coin Security. I was in Parkley Bay in Bumpy Road. There I saw a black man and another man, a coloured, this man wore a black trousers. I then saw this man approaching a 4x4 vehicle.

PO: [26] Mme.

And

CO: [27] Monna yo o ile kgauswi o t swere setena o betha lefasetere la ka morago la koloi. [28] Ke ba ke ba batamela ge ke bona o thuba koloi ya batho. [29] So, ge ke ye go yena, a leka go tšhaba, ka be ke mo kitimiša mme ka kgona go mo swara. [30] Ge ke fihla go yena, o a mphetha ka setena mo sefahlogong. [31] Ke be ke ntšha tonkipili ya ka ke mmetha ka yona, ka lebaka leo ka kgona go mo swara mme go mo tliša mo mapodiseng.

The man who went closer had a brick and hit the back window of the bakkie.

I went towards him when he started to break the vehicle. So when I went towards him, he started to ran away, and I followed him as to catch him.

When I closed in on him he hit me with the brick in the face. I then took out my baton and hit him and that is how I managed to catch him and bring him to the station.

PO: [32] Ahaa, e ka ba o tseba gore o utswitšwego selo se sengwe se se sengwe kua koloi na?

Ahaa, do you know of anything that he stole from the vehicle.

CO: [33] Aowa o utswitše selo ntate, ke ile ka mmona ge o betha lefasetere la koloi.

He stole nothing sir, as I saw him when he hit the window.

PO: [34] Bjale, o ka kgona go ya kgorong go fa bohlatse ge le ka kgopelwa go dira bjalo?

Will you be able to appear before court to testify, if you are requested to.

CO: [35] Ee, ke ka kgona. Yes I can.

PO: [36] Re a leboga Ntate.  
Thank you sir.

### DIALOGUE 6: ROBBERY

PO: [1] Dumela ntate  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.  
No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.  
Please take a seat.



CO: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.  
Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelelegile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko. My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.

It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?

At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?

Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?

Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.

Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.

Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Ke be ke sa sepela mo tseleng. [23] Ke tšwa kua felo ya lethabo, ke ile a gahlana le banna ba bangwe ba babedi tseleng. [24] Banna bao ba ile ba utšwa mokotlana wa ka, ba tšhaba kudu.

I was walking down the road. Coming from my favourite place when I met up with two other men in the road. Those men grabbed my handbag and ran

away as fast as they could.

PO: [25] Bjale o sa kgona go ba tseba banna bao.  
Now will you be able to know those men.

CO: [26] Ee, ke sa kgona go ba tseba.  
Yes, I will be able to know them.

PO: [27] Go na le eng ka kgare ga mokotlana wa gago?  
What was inside your bag?

CO: [28] Ke be ke na le tšhelete le dikarata le laesense la ka la go otlela kolo.  
I had some money, cards and my drivers licence.

PO: [29] Mokotlana wa gago o be mmala bjang?  
What was the color of your bag?

CO: [30] Mokotlana wa ka o be ntsho.  
My bag was black.

PO: [31]Re feditše. [32] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme  
ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?  
Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case  
number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [33] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.  
Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [34] Sepela gabotse.Go well.

## DIALOGUE 7: HOUSEBREAKING

PO: [1] Dumela ntate  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?

How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.

No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.

Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile.

Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.

Can you tell us your name.



CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.

My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.

It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Morena, ke sa dula kua atrese ya ka, ke na le kgwebo, kgwebo ye ke restorante. [23] Ka mafelelong ya Disemere ya 2004, ke notletse kgwebo ya ka. [24] Ka letšatši la bobedi la Janaware 2005, ge ke bula kgwebo ya ka, ke hwetsa gore lefasetere la kgwebo le robegile. [25] Gona mo ke hwetša gore ba bangwe ba tsene kgwebo ya ka ba utšwitše dilo tša mehutahuta.  
Sir I live at my address, I have a business, this business is a restaurant. At the end of December 2004, I closed my business. On the second of January 2005, when I opened my business, I found a window as broken. Then I found out that some people entered my business and have stolen a variety of things.

PO: [26] Ba tšeatše eng?  
What did they take?

CO: [27] Ke bona gore ke mabotlele a mabedi a J&b Whisky, maširo, le nama kua setšidifatsing le thelebišene. I saw that it was two bottles of J&B Whisky,

curtains, meat from the fridge and a television set.

PO: [28] O gopola gore ke bokae?

How much do you think it was worth?

CO: [29] Ke kgopola gore ke diranta tša dikete tše pedi.

I think it is two thousand rand.

PO: [30] O na le motho yo mongwe o ka mo gopolela na?

Is there any person that you suspect?

CO: [31] Morena, ke kgopolela ngwana wa moagišana, ka gore ga a na mošomo, eupša o na le tshelethe ke lehono le lehono.

Sir I suspect the child of my neighbour, because he has no work but has money everyday.

PO: [32] Re feditše. [33] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [34] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.

Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [35] Sepela gabotse.

Go well.

## DIALOGUE 8: HOUSEBREAKING

PO: [1] Dumela ntate

Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena

Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?

How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.

No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.

Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelelegile.

Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.

Can you tell us your name.



CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.

My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?

What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.

It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.



PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Mmh, ka nako yeo ke ile ka tšwa ngwakong ya ka, ke ile seteišeneng. [23] Ge ke fihla kwa ke hwetša gore go na le dithekisi tše pedi, di sa emela mo setepisi sa seteišene.. [24] Gona mo ke kopana le banna ba babedi. [25] Yo mongwe wa bona, o be o na le sethunya. [26] Yebana ke tshogile kakudu. [27] Moona yo o a ntšhupiša ka sethunya seo mme yo mongwe o a nnyakišiša. [28] Ba tšeatse dilo tša ka ka moka.

Mmh, at that time I went from my home and went to the station. When I got there I found two taxis waiting at the steps of the station. Just there I met up with two men. One of them had a gun. Wao I was really scared. This man was pointing the gun at me while the other one searched me. They took all my things.

PO: [29] Bjale o ka re botšiša gore ba utšwitše eng le eng ya gago na?  
Now can you tell us what did they steal from you?

CO: [30] Ee ntate, ke be ke ngwaditše dilo tšeo tša ka mo pampirir yeo. [31] Gape ke tlo kgona go le bontšhiša banna bao ge ke ka ba bona.

Yes sir, I wrote all my things on this paper. Furthermore I will be able to identify those two men if I see them again.

PO: [32] Re feditše. [33] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [34] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.

Thank you sir, stay well.

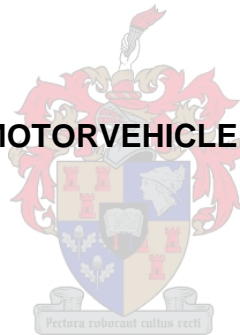
PO: [35] Sepela gabotse.

Go well.

## DIALOGUE 9: THEFT OUT OF MOTORVEHICLE

PO: [1] Dumela ntate

Hallo sir.



CO: [2] Dumela morena

Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?

How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.

No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.

Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.  
Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelelegile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?  
What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.  
The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?

Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.

Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.

Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Ka nako ya ten, ke ile ka tšwa ngwakong. [23] Selo se sengwe le se sengwe le be lokile ntate. [24] Gape ge ke buile ka morago ga iri ye tee, ke humana gore koloi ya ka e robegile. [25] Ba robegetše lefasetere la ka mo o ka laola koloi. [26]Ba tšeatše dilo tša ka ka moka gare ga koloi.

At ten I went out of my house. Everything was in order. But when I came back after one hour, I found that my car was broken into. They have broken the window on the driver's side. They took everything of me from inside the car.

PO: [27] Ke eng, dilo tšeo ba utšwitše na?

What is this that they have stolen?

CO: [28] Ba utšwitše ePioneer radio ya diranta tša dikete tše tharo, le mokotlanyana ya diCD, wo o na le di CD tše mašome a mane, ke gopola gore ke diranta tša makgolo a mhlano, le baiki wa larala e ka ba diranta tša sekete, le digalase tša letšatši ya Police e ka ba diranta tša makgolo a mane.

They stole a Pioneer radio worth three thousand rand, a case of CD's with forty CD's inside worth five hundred rand, a leather jacket worth a thousand rand as well as Police sunglasses worth four hundred rand.

PO: [29] Bjale moo lefasetere la koloi, o na le tshenyego e e bjang?

Well at the window of the car, is there any damage.

CO: [30] Aowa morena, ke lefasetere fela.

No sir it is only the window.

PO: [31] Ee, go na le motho yo o mokgopolela na?  
Yes, is there anybody that you suspect.

C: [32] Aowa kgoši, ga ke gopolele motho.  
No, sir I suspect no one.

PO: [33] Re a leboga tate. [34] Re feditše. [35] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?  
Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [36] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse.  
Thank you sir, stay well.

#### **DIALOGUE 10: ASSAULT WITH GRIEVOUS BODILY HARM**

PO: [1] Dumela ntate  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.  
Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.  
Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.



CO: [8] Ee, le amogelegile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

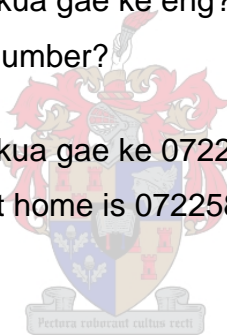
PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?  
What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.  
The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?



CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070. At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Ka moo nako yeo, ke be ke tšwa boratapelo. [23] Ke ile ka kopana le monna yo mongwe ba mmitšha ka leina la Michael. [24] Michale yena o ile a ntšosetša ka gore o sa nyaka go ntlhaba ka thipa. [25] Mme ke maketse gore ke a mo tseba, gape o a thoma go tlhaba.  
At that time I came from where I likie to go. I went and met up with a man they call Michael. This Michael scared me because he wanted to stab me with a knife. And I was so amazed because I knew him, but he started to stab me.

PO: [26] O o gobetše kudu na?  
Did he hurt you seriously?

CO: [27] Ee ntate o ntlhabetše mo legetla la ka. [28] Gona bjale ga ke kgone go šoma, letšogo la ka ga le na maatla.  
Yes sir, he stabbed me in m shoulder. Now I cannot work, my arm has no power.

PO: [29] Agee, o ile septleleng. All right so you went to hospital.

CO: [30] Aowa, ba nthušitše gabotse kua gae, mme ga ke ne tshetele go patela dingaka.  
No, they assisted me very well at home, and I had no money to pay the doctors.

PO: [31] Re a leboga tate. [32] Re feditše. [33] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?  
Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [34] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse.  
Thank you sir, stay well.

**DIALOGUE 11: THEFT OF MOTOR VEHICLE**

PO: [1] Dumela ntate  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.  
No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.  
Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.  
Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.





PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?

What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.

The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?

At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.

At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?

Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?

Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.

Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.

Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Ntate go na le monna yo mongwe ba mmitšša ka leina la Mokwana. [23]

Re ile re na le kwano gore ka lebaka la yena a ka se kgone go lefa tšhelete ya

koloi ka kgwedi, ke tlo e lefa, mme ke tlo tšea koloi yeo. [24] Re ile re

ngwaditše kwano ya rena. [25] Mme re ile ra amogetš ana mong ya koloi yeo.

[26] Ka morago ga kwano ye, ke ile ka lefa tšhelete ka kgwedi gape gona bjale

Mokwana o sa nyaka koloi yeo.

Sir there is another man by the name of Mokwana. We went and made an agreement that if for any reason he cannot pay the monthly fee on the vehicle, I will pay the amount and I will take the vehicle. After this agreement I went

and paid the monthly fees but now Mokwana wants the vehicle back.

PO: [27] O sa re gore o lefetše tšhelete sa kolo ka moka, mme yena o tšeatše kolo yeo?

Do you say you have paid all the monthly fees of the vehicle and he now took the vehicle?

CO: [28] Ee ntate.

Yes sir.

PO: [29] Ka mantswe a mange o sa re gore o utšwitše kolo yeo.

In other words you say he has stolen the vehicle.

CO: [30] Ee ke therešo, [31] Ke na le dipampirir tše di re gore mang le mang ke mong wa kolo yeo. Yes that is true. I have papers that indicate who is the owner of that vehicle.

PO: [32] Wena o kgopola gore o lefetša bokae bja kolo yeo.

How much do you think you have paid of that vehicle.

CO: [33] Morena, Mokwana o lefetše dikgwedi tše tharo fela, gape nna ke lefetše dikgwedi tše mašome tharo.

Sir Mokwana paid the installment for three months and I paid for thirty months.

PO: [34] Re tlo hwetša Mokwana kae bjale?

Where will we find this Mokwana now?

CO: [35] Ntate, o sa šoma kua Pick & Pay, Adderley Street Cape Town. [36] O tšwa mošomong ka nako ya five.

Sir he is working at Pick&Pay, Adderley Street Cape Town. He leaves work at five in the afternoon.

PO: [37] Re a leboga tate. [38] Re feditše. [39] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [40] Re a leboga ntate, dula gabotse.  
Thank you sir, stay well.

## DIALOGUE 12: THEFT OUT OF MOTOR VEHICLE

PO: [1] Dumela ntate  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.  
No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.  
Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you.



PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.  
Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?  
What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.  
The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Ka letšatši leo e be e le iri ya pele mosegare. [23] Ke ile ka phaka koloi ya ka mo Strand Street, mo Cape Town. [24] Ke ile go reka dilo tše dingwe le dingwe. [25] Ge ke bue ke bone gore koloi ya ka e robegile, mme ba utšwitše dilo ka gare.

On that day, at one o'clock in the afternoon I parked my car in Starnd Street in Cape Town. I went to do some shopping. When I came back I saw that the

car was broken into and the things inside were stolen.

PO: [26] Ke eng, dilo tšeo ba di utšwitše mo koloi ya gago?  
What is it that was stolen from your vehicle?

CO: [27] Ba utšwitše cellphone sa ka , ye ke Nokia 6310.  
They have stolen my cellphone, a Nokia 6310.

PO: [28] Cell phone ye ke bo kae?  
How much is this cell phone?

CO: [29] E ka ba diranta tša dikete tše pedi. [30] Nomoro ya cell phone ya ka ke  
0844088090  
It can be two thousand rand. My cell phone number is 0844088090.

PO: [31] Aha, nomoro ye ka gare ga cell phone ba re ke IAEMI nomoro, ke eng?  
Aha, the number inside the cell phone, which they call the IAEMI number will  
be?

CO: [32] IAEMI nomoro ya ka ke 123454323.  
IAEMI number of mine is 123454323.

PO: [33] O na le motho yo mongwe o ka mo gopolela na?  
Is there any person that you suspect?

CO: [34] Morena, ke kgopolela ngwana wo mongwe o monthso, ke be ka mmona o  
sa emelela kgauswi ga koloi ya ka.  
Sir I suspect a young black man, I saw him standing close to my vehicle.

PO: [35] O ka nthuše go mpotša gore o apere eng?  
You can help me by telling me what he was wearing.

CO: [36] Ntate, o be a apere hempe ye sehla sa Kaizer Chiefs, mme o na le kefa  
ye hwibidu le jeans.  
Sir he wore a yellow shirt of Kaizer Chiefs, and a red hat and jeans.

PO: [37] Re feditše. [38] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme

ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [39] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.

Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [40] Sepela gabotse.

Go well.

### DIALOGUE 13: HOUSE BREAKING /THEFT

PO: [1] Dumela ntate

Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena

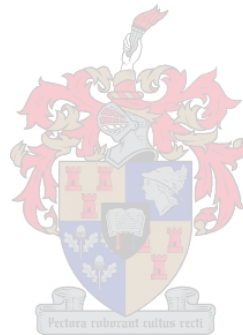
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?

How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.

No, everything is All right.



PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.

Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile.

Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?  
What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.  
The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.



PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

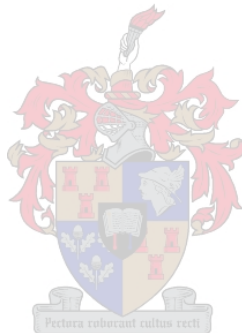
CO: [22] Ka nako ya go tšwalela mošomong, ke notletše lemati la ofisi ya ka. [23] Ka letšatši le le latelago ke hwetša gore lemati la ofisi le robegile, mme ba bangwe ba tsene ofisi ya ka ba utšwitše dithuo tša ka.  
At the end of the working day, I locked my office. The following morning I found the door to my office has been broken and that someone entered my office and have stolen some of my property.

PO: [24] Ka gare ba be ba tšea eng?  
What did they take from inside?

CO: [25] Aowa, ba utšwitše diranta tša makgolo a šupang le masomi a matlhano.  
No they stole seven hundred and fifty rand.

PO: [26] O re ke 750 rand, na?  
Do you mean 750 rand?

CO: [27] Ee ke yona, 750 rand.  
Yes that is so, 750 rand.



PO: [28] O na le motho yo mongwe o ka mo gopolela na?  
Is there any person that you suspect?

CO: [29] Morena, ke kgopolela batho bao ba sa hlwekiša di ofisi tša rona.  
Sir I suspect the people that clean our offices.

PO: [30] Ke ka lebak la eng o ba kgopolela.  
For what reason do you suspect them?

CO: [31] Ntate, ba tseba gore ke lefa bakontraki ba rena ka Labohlano, mme ba tseba gore ke ba lefa ka kheše.  
Sir they know that I pay the contractors on Friday, and they know I pay the in cash.



PO: [32] Re feditše. [33] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [34] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.

Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [35] Sepela gabotse.

Go well.

#### **DIALOGUE 14: ASSAULT**

PO: [1] Dumela ntate

Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena

Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?

How are you?



CO: [4] Aowa re gona.

No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.

Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelegile.

Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?  
What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.  
The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Ke be ke ile go BP garage kua Cape Town. [23] Gona bjale banna ba babedi ba bo majikelane. [24] Yo mongwe o sepela le mpša. [25] Gona mo, monna yo o na le mpša o laela mpša yeo go ntoma. [26] Ka morago ga mpša o tnomile banna bao ba thoma go mphetha.

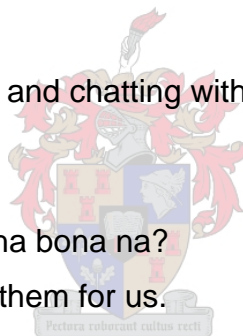
I went to the BP Garage in Cape Town. At that stage two security guards approach. One had a dog. There the one with the dog, instructed the dog to bite me. After the dog bit me both the men started to assault me.

PO: [27] Bjale wena o be o dira eng, go ba šišinya bona?  
What did you do to annoy them?

CO: [28] Ga se selo, ke be ke dule fase, ke bolela le mogwera wa ka yena o sa šoma garaging.

Nothing, I was sitting down and chatting with my friend who is working at the garage.

PO: [29] O sa kgona go le botšha bona na?  
Will you be able to identify them for us.



CO: [30] Ge ke ka ba bona gape ke tlo kgona go le bontšhiša.  
If I see them again I will be able to identify them.

PO: [31] Ba be ba apere eng?  
What did they were?

CO: [32] Ba be ab apere semphato sa majikelane, ba e bitsa ke K9-Security Systems.

They wore security uniforms which is called K9-Security Systems.

PO: [33] Re feditše. [34] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [35] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.  
Thank you sir, stay well.

### DIALOGUE 15: CRIMEN INJURIA AND ASSAULT

PO: [1] Dumela ntate  
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena  
Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?  
How are you?

CO: [4] Aowa re gona.  
No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.  
Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.  
Thank you.



PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.  
Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile.  
Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?  
What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.  
The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.  
My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.

PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Mabane ke ile ka sepela setarateng sa Strand Mo Cape Town, gona mo toropong. [23] Ke kopana le monna yo mongwe, ge o ampona a thoma go nthoga, mme o a mpetha ka seatla mo sefahlogong.  
Yesterday I was walking down the Strand Street in Cape Town, here in town. I met up with another man, when he saw me he insulted me and hit me in the face with his open hand.

PO: [24] Monna yo, o a mo tseba na?  
This man do you know him?

CO: [25] Aowa ntate, eupša ke ka kgona go le bontšiša ge ke ka mmona gape.  
No sir, but I will be able to show him to you if I see him again.

PO: [26] Agee, ga le kopane gatee?  
All right, you have never met before?

CO: [27] Aowa ntate, ge ka mmone maabane e be e le pele.  
No sir, when I saw him yesterday, it was the first time.

PO: [28] Eeh, e be e le ba bangwe ba sa nyaka go go thuša goba go mo tšhwara?  
Yes, was there anybody that wanted to help you, or catch him?

CO: [29] Aowa, ga go na selo.  
No nothing.

PO: [30] Anke o botšiša gore o swana bjang?  
Please tell us how did he look?

CO: [31] O motho yo motelele, mme o na le meririr ye meso, ye e foretša. [32] O  
be a apere hempe ye tshweu, le borokgo ya denim. [33]O rwala ditekkies tša  
Nike ye tshweu le tala.  
It is a long man, with black hair that curls. He wore a white shirt and denim  
trousers and had Nike tekkies that were white and blue.

PO: [34] Re ka mo hwetša kae?  
Where can we find him?

CO: [35] Ba bangwe ba ile ba re mtoho yo o sa šoma kua maphodisa a  
Woodstock.  
Some of the people said he works at the Police in Woodstock.

PO: [36] Re feditše. [37] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?

Thank you sir. We are finished. The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [38] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.

Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [39] Sepela gabotse.

Go well.

### **DIALOGUE 16: ARMED ROBBERY**

PO: [1] Dumela ntate

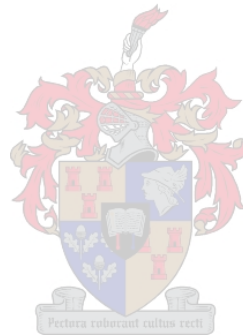
Hallo sir.

CO: [2] Dumela morena

Good day sir

PO: [3] Le kae?

How are you?



CO: [4] Aowa re gona.

No, everything is All right.

PO: [5] Le ka dula fase.

Please take a seat.

CO: [6] Ke a leboga.Thank you.

PO: [7] Pele re ka tšwela pele ke sa nyaka go go botšiša dipotšišo.

Before we go one, I would like to ask you a few questions.

CO: [8] Ee, le amogelebile.

Yes, you are welcome.

PO: [9] Le ka re botšiša leina la gago.  
Can you tell us your name.

CO: [10] Leina ke Noko.  
My name is Noko.

PO: [11] Sefana sa lena ke eng?  
What is your surname.

CO: [12] Ke Manaka.  
It is Manaka.

PO: [13] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke eng?  
What is your home phone number?

CO: [14] Nomoro ya telephomo kua gae ke 0722586065.  
The number of the phone at home is 0722586065.

PO: [15] Ya mošomong ke eng?  
At work it is?

CO: [16] Kua mošomong ke 0214678070.  
At work it is 0214678070.

PO: [17] Atrese ya gago kua gae ke eng?  
Your address at home is?

CO: [18] Atrese ya ka ke 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town. My address is 28 Bantam Street, Cape Town.

PO: [19] Re a leboga, anke o re botšiša gore go diregetše ke eng?  
Thank yo, please tell us what has happened to you.

CO: [20] Ee, thobela morena.  
Yes thank you sir.





PO: [21] Agee, a re tšwela pele.  
Yes, let us proceed.

CO: [22] Ntate ka nako yeo ke be ka dula mmotorong kua parking ya Pick and Pay. [23] Gona bjale moona yo mongwe , Wammala, o thoma go bolela le na. [24] Mme na ke a mo nyatša gore ga ke nyaka go tseba dilo tša yena. [25] Ka morago ga sebakanyana o ntlogetše. [26] Gape, o boe, o ntšha sethunya, o tšea dilo tša ka ka moka le mmotoro.

Sir at that time I was sitting in my car in the parking area of Pick and Pay. Just then a another man, a colored, started to speak to me. I was ignoring him because I did not want to know about his stories. After a while he left me alone. Then, he came back, he took out a gun and took everything of mine including the motor.

PO: [27] Monna yo, o a mo tseba na?  
This man do you know him?

CO: [28] Aowa ntate, eupša ke ka kgona go le bontšiša ge ke ka mmona gape.  
No sir, but I will be able to show him to you if I see him again.

PO: [29] Agee, ga le kopane gatee?  
All right, you have never met before?

CO: [30] Aowa ntate, ge ka mmone maabane e be e le pele.  
No sir, when I saw him yesterday, it was the first time.

PO: [31] Eeh, e be e le ba bangwe ba sa nyaka go go thuša goba go mo tšhwara? Yes, was there anybody that wanted to help you, or catch him?

CO: [32] Aowa, ga go na selo.  
No nothing.

PO: [33] Anke o botšiša gore o swana bjang?  
Please tell us how did he look?

CO: [34] Aowa, yeno o ntšhogetše kgolo kudud, ga ke kgona go gopola gore o swana bjang.

No sir he scared me very much, I can not remember how he looked.

PO: [35] Mmotoro wa gago , o ka re e laodiša na?

Your motor can you describe it to us?

CO: [36] Ke Mercedes Benz SE280, ye botala, mme nomory ke CF 12354.

It is a Mercedes Benz SE280, green and the number is CF 12354.

PO: [37] Re feditše. [38] Mafokisi ba tlo go founela ne case nomoro ya gago mme ba tlo go botša gore ba tšwela pele bjang?Thank you sir. We are finished.

The detectives will call you with your case number and to tell you how they are doing.

CO: [39] Re a leboga ntate, hlala gabotse.

Thank you sir, stay well.

PO: [40] Sepela gabotse.

Go well.

